

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: STUDENTS AS INVESTIGATORS, TEACHERS AS RESEARCHERS: DOCUMENTING A CRITICAL HISTORY PEDAGOGY AND ITS IMPACT ON DIVERSE LEARNERS IN A TENTH-GRADE WORLD HISTORY CLASSROOM

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This study documents a teacher's efforts to scaffold and support his students' investigations of modern world history and their interactions with the critical history pedagogy he implements in a diverse tenth-grade classroom. Using teacher research methods to generate descriptive quantitative and qualitative data, the study explores the role of the teacher, the students, and local contextual factors in the teaching and learning process. In particular, the teacher-researcher details his attempts to mediate the influences of curriculum and assessment measures in a high stakes accountability context, while equipping his students with powerful disciplinary tools aimed at deepening their understanding of the past and developing in them a capacity to shape those meanings.

The data suggest that the teacher-researcher faced considerable challenges in implementing an inquiry-based approach to learning about the past. The breadth of the Virginia Standards of Learning (SOL's) meant that in-depth learning centered on the analysis of conflicting sources and the interpretation of competing perspectives necessarily contended with coverage demands associated with SOL test preparation. These external constraints became background concerns when the teacher-researcher focused more on the internal knowledge-based constraints that were impeding student learning. In addition to the cultural, linguistic, and academic diversity of the learners in his classroom, the teacher was challenged by his students' lack of experience analyzing historical sources, exploring multiple perspectives, and writing evidence-based arguments.

Study findings indicate that two main factors contributed to the growth of historical thinking and writing among study participants. First, the history domain's cognitive practices were progressively introduced and learning supports were designed to meet the range of aptitudes and skill levels present in this diverse public school setting. Although some students experienced more in the way of skill development than conceptual growth, evidence demonstrates that a range of students experienced progression. Second, the teacher-researcher learned to utilize traditional classroom structures in the context of open-ended inquiries and directed these practices toward more meaningful encounters with historical knowledge. Although elements of his instructional pedagogy seemed to align with more conventional practices, a disciplinary thread was woven throughout the fabric of the world history course.

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CHAPTER 1

GENERATING PUZZLES AND PROBLEMS OF PRACTICE: CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AND CONSTRAINTS IN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF HISTORY

As a veteran history teacher, I have come to appreciate the beginning of each new school year. It represents a chance to start anew with a different set of students and an opportunity to make those slight changes in how I approach an historical topic or to reinvent certain aspects of my practice altogether. Last fall I enhanced my initial historiography unit in order to challenge my students' notions about the nature of historical knowledge and to explore why we study the past. During our unit on the Renaissance, they considered how art, music, and literature reflect the values and beliefs of a time period by first examining the material culture consumed by young people in the United States today. And during our Global Encounters unit students evaluated the legacy of the Columbian exchange by investigating primary documents, oral histories, and visual accounts.

As I recall the thrust of teaching and learning towards the end of the school year, a different set of experiences comes to mind. I found myself assigning short summary readings that provided an overview of selected time periods, such as the Cold War and global independence movements, so that students might learn the basic facts before the state mandated exam. I created a series of power point presentations crammed with carefully selected terms from the county history standards in an effort to reinforce the content they were reading about. The investigative work that was central to most of those

early units in the fall gave way to fill-in-the-blank worksheets and practice tests designed to reinforce basic understandings of key historical figures and events. The focus was no longer on the students and how they were thinking about history; rather I worried about whether I would cover the curriculum in time for the standardized assessment.

Of course, these snapshots represent exaggerated portraits. There were worksheets assigned in the beginning of the year that tasked students to do more factual recall than interpretation. And there was some work with primary documents in those weeks leading up to the state test—analyses of political cartoons related to the Cuban Missile Crisis and the Fall of Communism and evaluations of speeches by Kwame Nkrumah, Jomo Kenyatta, and Nelson Mandela. Still, the tone of my teaching and the tenor of classroom work and interactions were palpably different in the first four weeks as compared to the last four weeks of school. I find that the dissonance created by these polarized learning experiences causes me to reassess my learning goals and teaching methods.

I prefer a history curriculum rich with opportunities for young people to ask important questions, investigate critical issues and problems, examine evidence, and make thoughtful arguments based upon their research. And yet, as an educator challenged by coverage demands and the pressures of “high stakes” tests, I feel the tug of policy initiatives that influence my teaching in ways that bring it in line with more conventional practice. My attempt to make sense of these tensions and my desire to have young people create and understand, rather than simply consume knowledge, have provided the impetus for this research project.

Introduction: An Evolving Professional Identity

For the past six years I have been uniquely positioned as both a secondary social studies teacher in a diverse public school in Virginia and a researcher studying history education in a university setting. At times, my location in these often disparate worlds has left me struggling to make sense of what feels like a fractured identity. For example, in utilizing the theory and research in social education to view the teaching and learning taking place in my own and others' classrooms, I find myself occupying a space on the "outside." The application of this external gaze implies the power to name, to critique, and to change conventional pedagogies so that they conform to the "wise practices" described in the research literature (see Yeager & Davis, 2005). Meanwhile, the politics of school culture, as well as the daily routines and realities of classroom life that I experience as a practitioner, offer me an "insider's" view. In these instances, I come to "know teaching [and learning] from within the action of it" (Erickson in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, viii). This closeness to the standardized organizational structures and practices of schools, what Tyack and Tobin (1994) refer to as the "grammar of schooling," can involve an almost self-justifying preservation of the status quo, rather than an immediate impulse toward reform-minded change (pp. 454-456).

While much has been written about the distinct cultures and frameworks which separate the university research community and that of school practitioners (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, pp. 5-22), I have learned that having one foot in academia and another on the ground in schools is not necessarily a liability, nor does it need to lead into a debilitating schizophrenic spiral. In fact, the distance between outsider and insider perspectives, sometimes referred to as the gap between theory and practice, is not as great

as we sometimes make it out to be (Anderson, Herr, & Nihlen, 1994, pp. 27-29). Without ignoring the differences between these perspectives, it seems helpful to view them as Erikson (in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993) does: “not simply as opposites, but as voices that engage one another in dialogue” (viii). In my experience, the dialogic interplay between insider and outsider perspectives, between theory and practice, often has the effect of creating a “productive disequilibrium” (Ball & Cohen, 1999, pp. 13-15). The resulting discord helps to bring to the surface key questions and problems which demand critical investigation. I have found that reflective inquiry around these issues may not bring harmonious resolution, but it does allow for the progressive reconstruction of knowledge and practice.

For me, this reflective process began sixteen years ago when I started my professional career as a social studies educator in a Catholic high school. Some of the primary influences on my teaching theory and practice in the early years of my professional experience included: (a) my own “apprenticeship of observation” (see Lortie, 1975, p. 61) as a secondary student, in particular, the way my high school teacher framed history as a struggle between the “haves” and the “have-nots”; (b) the debates over multiculturalism and historical revisionism, which I participated in as a college student in the early 1990’s; and (c) a disciplinary approach to teaching and learning history, which I was introduced to in the methods course of my undergraduate teacher education program (see Kobrin, 1996). One aspect of my early teaching practice, which bore the imprint of these influences, was my interest in demonstrating to students the contested nature of history. I attempted to expose them to competing (hi)stories, especially historical accounts that ran counter to traditional narratives about the progress

of Western civilization and the exceptionality of the United States (see Dunn, 2000; see also Sexias, 2000). These influences shaped my early classroom efforts in ways that diverged from common practice; however, they did so unevenly (Kelly & VanSledright, 2005).

While I found general support for my professional growth during the early years of my career, there were few specific mechanisms in place at the high school where I taught to fully engage my intellectual interests or my pedagogical convictions. In fact, I felt pressure to bring my teaching practice in line with more conventional approaches to history education—teacher and textbook centered instruction and assessment practices that emphasized learning unidirectional stories and recalling basic facts (see Cuban, 1991; see also Sexias, 2001). Colleagues, parents, and curriculum coverage demands all served as significant socialization agents. When I began graduate work after five years in the classroom I gained a deeper understanding of the influence these external forces were having on my teaching (Cornbleth, 2002). In the process of reaching beyond what I perceived to be a culture of professional isolation (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, pp. 86-87), I discovered my practice was also impacted by internal knowledge-based constraints (VanSledright & James, 2002). In other words, my understanding of the history domain was still rudimentary, even if my commitment to using disciplinary tools in the classroom was strong.

In graduate school I also learned that there was an accumulating body of research on teaching and learning history that supported some of the things I was trying to do in the classroom. In the process of taking in the views of these outsider voices (e.g., Bain, 2000; Barton & Levstik, 2004; VanSledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001), what Kemmis and

McTaggart (2000) refer to as “reaching out,” I began to refine my own theoretical frameworks. Simultaneously, I was also “reaching in” (p. 598) to see if this developing theory might translate into satisfying practical results for me and my students in the history classroom. When I left the classroom to pursue graduate studies full-time, I was further socialized into the culture of university research. Despite being afforded increasing familiarity with outsider categories, I was still very much informed by my experiences as a classroom teacher.

Now that I have returned to full-time teaching at the secondary level, I cannot escape the feeling that professionally speaking, I have come full circle. I start with this introductory narrative because, in many ways, I see this study and its central questions as a natural outgrowth of years of practice, research, and reflection. This progression reflects key elements of the action research cycle (Mills, 2003) and resonates with the idea, proposed by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993), of “reconstructing practice as inquiry across the professional lifespan” (ix). Despite the blurring of distinctions resulting from significant border crossing, I still find myself straddling the researcher-practitioner divide. What I am learning is that pinpointing my location on this continuum is less important than identifying the theoretical questions and practical dilemmas which emerge at the intersection of my biography, my professional identity, the research literature in which I have been immersed, and my teaching practice. Of course, the specific dimensions of the local school context where I have been situated for the past four years, especially the sociocultural diversity of my students and the pressures associated with a “high stakes” accountability climate, have been central in the generation of specific puzzles and problems of practice (Russell & Munby, 1991).

Contextual Factors and Constraints

For this study I am interested in investigating how my diverse students and I might utilize the domain of history and research-based conceptions of “wise practice” in the process of navigating an educational landscape dominated by technical interests, such as coverage and control. Since beginning teaching modern world history (1500-Present) in a northern Virginia school district, I have been frustrated in my efforts to use the domain and its disciplinary tools to cultivate in my students deeper understandings of the past, the contemporary world, and themselves. As discussed above, I faced similar challenges as a history teacher in a private secondary school. However, the constraints I have encountered in a public school context seem all the more daunting. In what follows I detail these constraints on my practice and my students’ learning.

Reforming History Education in a High Stakes Accountability Climate

Even though there is not universal support in Virginia for educational reform based solely on “accountability by testing” (Duke & Reck, 2003, p. 63), a system of school improvement based on the alignment of content standards and assessment measures is fully operational in the state (see VDOE, 2001a). State efforts to create an assessment program directly aligned with the Virginia standards began in earnest in 1996 (Duke & Reck, 2003) and the call for measurable results has only intensified with external pressure from the *No Child Left Behind Act*. In the current testing regime, educational reform has become synonymous with raising students’ scores on a range of “achievement” measures. With the force of federal mandate, state and local school systems are being encouraged to reform public education, raise academic standards, and close the achievement gap.

The current efforts to raise achievement levels in school subjects, like history, appear to be well-intentioned and the language of the *No Child Left Behind* legislation and other policy initiatives is persuasive. Who, after all, would oppose “higher standards,” “accountability,” and the “alignment” of policy instruments and instructional materials? The language used to rationalize these systems of accountability implies consensus about the form and function of school improvement. And on the face of it, the constant chatter I hear as a teacher in this “high stakes” climate seems to make sense. The problem, at least in the context of history education reform in the district where I am teaching, is that this common sense rhetoric obscures the role these systems play in sanctioning or officializing (Apple & Weis, 1983) a rather reductive view of what it means to “know” history.

The Public Curriculum and Standardized Assessments

In their introduction to a collection of work by Lawrence Stenhouse, Rudduck and Hopkins (1985) assert that “the most important focus for research is the curriculum in that it is the medium through which knowledge is communicated in schools” (p. 3). My own study in part reflects this focus on interrogating the “commodified” (Apple & Weis, 1983, pp. 22-23) or “public” (Stenhouse in Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985, p. 62) curriculum in order to explore the messages that are communicated about the methods and goals of history education. Johnston (2006) speaks to the empowering and emancipatory potential of action research designed to insert teacher voices and perspectives into the conversation about history education reform. I see my efforts to interpret and document the material culture of schools—formal content standards and assessment measures—as an important

step in countering what Johnston refers to as the “deafening discourses of accountability and ‘leave no child behind’” (p. 68).

Earlier work done by me and my colleagues (see Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007), provides a focused content analysis (Silverman, 2000) of those policy instruments that were presumably created to “drive” the teaching and learning of modern world history, 1500-present (the course which is the focus for my study). Although our analysis of the Virginia state curriculum for the subject uncovered elements of what Dunn (2000) calls a “Different Cultures” approach, it is essentially a revitalized version of the traditional “Western Civ” course (pp. 125-127). And while it acknowledges the role of history education in developing civic competences, it forwards a narrow view of citizenship. As Levstik (1996) noted more than a decade ago, “The question has never truly been whether history serves citizenship aims; rather the debate has been about *whose* conception of citizenship it serves” (p. 392). In Virginia, good citizenship, at least as it is officially sanctioned, turns on students’ ability to commit to memory a narrative about the exceptionality and progress of the United States. The state Standards of Learning (SOL’s) for modern world history adhere to this collective memory orientation (see Sexias, 2000), placing a distinctively American story within the broader sweep of Western civilization. In this arrangement, referred to as the “Western Heritage Model,” world history becomes “the story of ‘our civilization’” and “the framework that will commit young Americans to national unity and our cherished way of life” (Dunn, 2000, p. 124).

In Virginia, the format and scope of high-stakes assessments reinforce a rather flattened view of history. Primarily, these end-of-year exams ask students to recall a

broad range of names, events, and general patterns of change in a test that consists solely of 70 multiple-choice items. “Achievement” measures, like the SOLs, typically equate learning history with immediate (albeit temporary) substantive knowledge gains. In fact, school history, as outlined here, is concerned almost exclusively with teaching and learning this type of factual or narrative knowledge. Conceptual and strategic knowledge, which are critical to “doing history” and making meaning from the past, typically receive less attention (see VanSledright & Limon, 2006, for a detailed discussion of this typology of historical knowledge).

“The study of history,” the introduction to the Virginia Standards of Learning reads, “rests on knowledge of dates, names, places, events, and ideas” (VDOE, 2001a). Even though there is mention of historical thinking skills, including raising questions, analyzing sources, and marshalling evidence in support of answers, the shape of SOL assessments and the structure of the supplemental curriculum framework reinforce the idea that what matters most is “the facts,” referred to in these documents as essential knowledge and understandings. Sixty-nine of the seventy pages in that framework consist of a basic outline of content to be taught (VDOE, 2001b).

Mills (2003) argues that a critical step in the action research process is “doing reconnaissance,” which he broadly defines as “preliminary information gathering” designed to gain deeper insights into your area of focus (pp. 26-29). Analyzing and interpreting formal curricula and assessment measures in the local context where I am teaching have been an important part of this process. I will continue to study these documents in order to develop new and perhaps more nuanced meanings and to evaluate the ways they might influence my practice.

Although there is not conclusive evidence about the impact of external mandates and centralized policy instruments on teaching and learning (Cohen, 1995), there is an accumulating body of research in the field of social studies (e.g., Grant et al., 2002; Yeager & Davis, 2005) calling into question the effectiveness of current “high stakes” accountability reforms. As van Hover and Heinecke (2005) made clear in their study of secondary history teachers in Virginia, “the accountability measures associated with the standards have created a context that encourages planning, instruction, and assessment practices that conflict with the ‘wise practices’” (p. 104) discussed in the history education research literature.

Marshalling students to critically read and question the interpretations contained in their textbooks and other sources, to critique the evidentiary grounds on which these narratives are constructed, and to develop alternative accounts, would require equipping them with powerful disciplinary tools (see Barton & Levstik, 2004; Sexias, 2000). As an instructional resource, the Virginia Standards of Learning are not up to this task. The SOL’s do not primarily support teachers and students in doing the type of investigative and interpretive work that characterizes rich domain thinking. Most of the cognitive work so central to creating and understanding historical knowledge is already complete. History is presented as a finished product ready to be delivered and consumed in predictable fashion, what Freire (2001) refers to as the factory model of education.

As the opening vignette illustrated, the pressure to cover the curriculum in its entirety can leave teachers feeling like hurried shoppers. For example, I feel rushed to check all of the curriculum items off of my grocery list before the state exam. For their part, it appears that most of my students have learned to become faithful consumers.

Some of them seem to buy into the reductive model of history traditionally forwarded in school and reproduce it without much thought. Others, more attuned to the operating structures of school, appear to play the game and follow its rules in order to receive the rewards they have been conditioned to attain. Of course, both teachers and students may reject conventional practice and the dominant historical narratives typically served up in schools, however, there is a powerful inertia at work. Consider that Virginia begins testing students in the social studies in third grade and you get a sense of the momentum behind the current policy initiatives. Virginia's entire system of accountability appears to be based on the premise that teachers and students simply need clear incentives to encourage (coerce?) them to commit an officially sanctioned (hi)story to memory and to reproduce this purportedly objective and neutral knowledge on standardized assessments (see Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007).

Student Views of History

Another potential problem emerges when we view Virginia's accountability system in light of the research on how young people think about and learn history. Current policy instruments, like the SOL's, may play a role in reinforcing the kind of fundamentalist epistemologies that most students already possess. At the beginning of each academic year, I ask my students to list their favorite school subjects and to explain their rankings. History seldom emerges as a collective favorite. Students typically complain that it is "boring" and requires "too much memorization." When I query them further about their understanding of what history is and why we study it, their answers come into sharper focus. In fact, the views expressed by my students seem to parallel the

responses of participants in a number of studies designed to explore how young people think about history and how they understand the purpose of learning it in school.

Research suggests that many students view school history simply as a collection of “other people’s facts” (Holt, 1990). In evaluating the epistemological orientations of school-age children, VanSledright (1997) concluded that “students understand history as a fixed tale, a body of inert facts, holding within it a series of important moral lessons that might be learned, stored in memory, and acted upon at the right time” (p. 550). Similarly, teacher-researcher, Bain (2000), reported that his students’ expressed a “static, formulaic vision of history,” whereby their task was to memorize the facts that historians had retrieved from the past (p. 337). Recent reforms in the district where I am teaching have not been designed to counter these common (mis)conceptions of the history domain. In fact, the ultimate measure of success in the current accountability system, mainly the passing of state assessments in history, requires at least tacit acceptance of these views. It is worth asking, though, whether or not a steady diet of “other people’s facts” will actually improve the learning of history?

This question seems all the more urgent given the increasing diversity of our public school classrooms and our heightened interest in closing the achievement gap. Fordham’s (1996) research argues that there may be heavy costs for African Americans and other cultural minorities who accept and reproduce “officialized” heritage accounts and dominant ideologies in order to “make the grade.” Other studies suggest that the official story promoted by the curriculum may lead to dislocation and disengagement (Murrell, 2001) because it does not resonate with the vernacular histories or personal experiences of learners outside of the cultural mainstream (see Barton & Levstick, 1998;

Epstein, 1998). It is possible, then, that accountability reforms designed to close the achievement gap, may actually help to reproduce some of the very arrangements that caused such a disparity of outcomes in the first place.

The Challenges of Diversity

The current demographic trend toward diversity and globalization is reflected in the racial and ethnic make-up of the student population at the school where I am teaching. Data for the 2010-11 school year (when the study was done) shows a student body that was 25.84% White (Not of Hispanic Origin), 31.90% Hispanic, 24.46% Asian or Pacific Islander, 15.55% Black (Not of Hispanic Origin), and 2.26% identified as Other. The limited nature of the reporting categories for race and ethnicity obscures the truly international character of the school. Data collected by our guidance department in 2008-09 showed that 76 different countries of origin and 52 languages were represented at the school. The numbers indicate that roughly 25% of the student body was born/claimed citizenship in a country other than the United States.

In journal entries and class discussions many of my students have made reference to being first or second generation Americans or, themselves, recent immigrants to the United States. They have mentioned a number of different world-historical developments that have “pushed” their families from their home countries and/or “pulled” them to the United States. These include: the break-up of the Soviet Union; civil wars in Central America (e.g., El Salvador); ethnic strife and civil unrest in African nations (e.g., Somalia, Ethiopia, and Eritrea); struggling economies in Southeast Asia (e.g., Vietnam); the influence of ethnic American communities in the U.S. (e.g., Korean); and the draw of jobs in the government or high-tech industries.

These new arrivals to the United States by no means make up a monolithic cultural group. There is significant diversity across and within student groups identifying particular countries of origin. Still, taken as a whole, there are significant challenges associated with educating a large population of immigrants and first- and second generation Americans in a public school. While some of these students come from middle class backgrounds, many of them make up the nearly 50.34% of students at the school who receive free or reduced-priced meals. As Maslow (1943) has shown, students who struggle to have their basic needs met might also experience difficulty with intellectual and social development.

There is another set of academic challenges associated with the level of English proficiency demonstrated at the school. While many of our students from immigrant families speak fluent English or quickly exit the English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program, almost 25.21% are considered Limited English Proficient (LEP). Nearly 15% of the student population actually received English language services at the school in the year of the study, but this number can be deceiving. It does not include LEP students who have refused ESOL services or those who are transitioning out of the ESOL program during a two-year monitoring process. In addition, data collected by our staff indicates that 51% of our student body speaks a language other than English at home or claim that language as their “native” language. There is a parent resource center at the school which facilitates communication between teachers and non-English speaking parents. However, in a subject like history where there is intensive reading and writing, it can be a tall order for a teacher to structure learning experiences in order to meet the wide range of linguistic skill levels present.

Another factor creating significant challenges for the entire staff is the high rate of student mobility at the school. In a county where the average mobility rate for high schools was 12.81% in 2010-11, the school where I am teaching experienced a mobility rate of 17.40%. In the last three years, the county has experienced a slight, but steady decrease in mobility rates, while the focus school for this study has seen their rates rise. These increasing numbers, as well as increases in the rate of students receiving free or reduced-priced meals may be the result of a recent boundary change, which altered the demographic make-up of the school. High levels of transience can create a range of classroom issues and problems, not simply for the student who is entering or leaving, but for the entire class. Everyone involved in the educative process necessarily experiences the growing pains of a frequently shifting classroom dynamic.

The problems associated with a mobile student population are compounded by the severe overcrowding we are currently experiencing in the building. The school site is designed to hold 2,134 students. The projected enrollment for 2009-10 was 2,767, leading the county to undertake what became a contentious boundary study in order to investigate possible ways of alleviating overcrowding at the school. While the enrollment numbers for 2010-11, the year of the study, went down to 2,527, overcrowding was still a problem. Some new temporary structures were set up in the summer prior to the study to accommodate the overflow of nearly 400 students, but funding was limited. The fiscal realities of a national recession meant that this county, like most local school districts, was forced to make some tough decisions. In a budget year where controversial cuts had already been made, including freezing step and cost of

living increases for teachers, it was unlikely that there would be significant relief for rising class sizes.

Like the children they are charged to educate, schools, too, bear the imprint of broader historical and sociocultural currents, whether they are patterns of immigration, zoning policies, or economic crises. As such, these institutions are deeply implicated in the larger ideological, economic, and political context (Apple & Weis, 1983, p. 4). They are not simply the great social levelers we often claim them to be; rather, they also reflect the “savage inequalities” (Kozol, 1991) that characterize the prevailing social, political, and economic order. The school where I am teaching is located in a wealthy county, but its location on the fringes of a sprawling metropolitan area means that it serves both students living in \$600,000 homes and those living in government subsidized housing.

Pressure leveraged by the *No Child Left Behind Act* has challenged states and school districts to equalize the service it offers all children. The school improvement plan and the yearly goals set by the administrative team at the site where I am teaching consistently target the needs of the traditionally underserved segments of the school population. There are programs in place at the school which serve and support students who are economically disadvantaged and significant attention has been given to closing the achievement gap and placing students of color in advanced classes. Still, it is difficult to ignore the role schools often play in sorting students through visible and hidden institutional mechanisms. For example, the statistical overrepresentation of poor and minority students in special education and team-taught classes at the school and their underrepresentation in advanced classes reflect the findings that came out of Oakes’ (1985) classic study on tracking.

Minority Achievement

Why poor and minority students disproportionately perform at rates lower than their counterparts remains a topic of considerable debate. There is less argument concerning what the quantitative data reveal, mainly that there remains a pervasive achievement gap between Black and Latino students and their white and Asian counterparts (Jackson, 2001). Statistical analyses that disaggregate data according to socioeconomic status also evidence a significant divide between those students participating in the National School Lunch Program (NSLP) and those who do not receive this form of government assistance. The gap in achievement between these groups can be seen in the results of almost every indicator, including the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), and a range of subject-specific “high stakes” tests administered by states and local school districts (Irvine, 1990; Nettles & Perna, 1997).

NAEP data for the 2010 U.S. history test shows that some of the highest gains between 1994 and 2010 were made by the lowest performing fourth graders, including Black and Hispanic students. In addition, there was a narrowing of score gaps between Black and Hispanic students and their White peers at grade 8 when 2006 and 2010 results are compared. Still, there were no significant changes in the scores of racial/ethnic groups measured at grades 4 and 12 during this same period. Despite scattered evidence of periodic gains by poor and minority students, the most recent NAEP test results for U.S. history evidence a persistent achievement gap. Just as worrying, the executive summary of the current report shows that the majority of students tested at all three grade levels performed below the Proficient level. Only 20 percent performed at or above the

Proficient level at grade 4, 17 percent at grade 8, and 12 percent at grade 12 (NCES, 2010).

These statistics are certainly troubling. However, looking at Hillendale's SOL results for social studies courses in the three years prior to the study one might respond that there is little need for alarm. Test scores in all of the history subject areas have experienced significant gains in that span of time. While low-income and minority students at the school are still disproportionately represented among those students with failing scores, evidence shows that the achievement gap is closing. The accreditation pass rate for 2010-11 was 96%. This number is based on the percentage of students who passed history SOL exams at or above the proficient level in 2009-2010, the academic year prior to the study. It is apparent that there is a statistical disconnect between these scores and the NAEP history results in the same year. As such, it is worth asking why periodic assessments of students' historical knowledge, including two decades NAEP data (see Wineburg, 2001), evidence similarly dismal results, while history test scores in this northern Virginia context show consistent gains and an achievement gap that is narrowing.

Assessment in the Local Context: Trends and Attitudes

The school and the social studies department, in particular, have been lauded as a county-wide model of success in terms of their ability to serve such a diverse population. One explanation for Hillendale's relative success in preparing poor and minority students for the Standards of Learning tests may be its location in a wealthy district, one with adequate resources and a productively functioning bureaucracy. There may also be some merit in the argument that the social studies department and the entire staff deserve credit

for meeting the challenges associated with serving a diverse student body. After all, there are other schools in the county with similar demographics and challenges, who have not consistently met adequate yearly progress (AYP) as stipulated by the *No Child Left Behind* legislation. As the above discussion of constraints has demonstrated, it is likely there are other factors at work.

An argument could be made that the Standards of Learning assessments for social studies are not actually tests for “higher standards;” rather, it is more likely that they are designed to have students meet only the most basic standards for learning. In the case of the history assessments, this amounts to measuring students’ immediate factual knowledge gains and educators’ ability to align content standards and instructional tools. In a 70 question test that includes 10 field-tested items, students need to answer only 30 questions correctly in order to receive a passing score on the test. With enough cramming and test preparation, I suspect that even the most challenging students can be “remediated” (a popular term used in the district for SOL review sessions targeting failing students).

Test data from my own classes suggests this may be the case. My students’ collective SOL test scores over the past three years reflect the general trend of the departments’ pass rates. Last year (2009-10) about 95% of my students passed their SOL exams for world history. What is troubling, however, is that roughly 20% of those same students failed to pass the corresponding world history course they took with me. The students who failed my courses were predominantly African American and Latino. Many of these same students had poor attendance records, experienced discipline problems,

and/or faced significant challenges outside of school, which likely impacted their performance.

I do not want to diminish the real gains made by poor and minority students in local school districts, like my own, nor do I want to disparage the hard work done by teachers and students since the advent of *No Child Left Behind*. And, I am not suggesting that we have been duped by the instruments designed to hold us and our students accountable. Rather, I sense another dynamic is at play. Publically, many teachers admit that the SOL's place significant constraints on their practice, while privately I suspect we accept (in varying degrees) the policy apparatus because, in the end, it creates a set of learning goals that is clear, attainable, and comfortable given the shape of conventional practice. And for some it may allow enough time and space, as well as a workable curriculum framework, to create what they consider (more) meaningful and challenging learning experiences in history. Of course, the state's interest in administering assessments cheaply and efficiently may, ultimately, explain the staying power of the SOL accountability framework (see Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007).

Conclusion

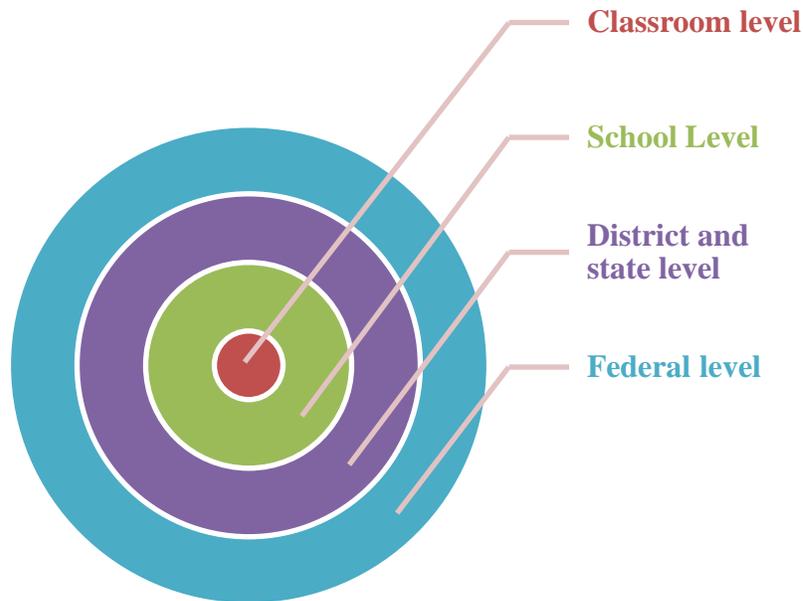
As summer drew to a close, I prepared myself for another school year. On the one hand, I examined my teaching practice critically and also looked to research-based recommendations in order to make changes that might benefit the new learners entering my classroom. On the other hand, I felt the steady tug of conventional practice and the status quo. At the opening faculty meeting the year of the study, our department was congratulated by the principal for once again raising SOL test scores. As a whole, we

admitted these scores were only one measure of success, but our sense of collective pride outweighed any real discussion of the potential problems with the current testing regime. By the end of the year, we returned to “remediating” our failing students using a variety of instructional tools carefully aligned with the state standards, all of this in the name of accountability.

In fact, the central focus of our professional learning communities (PLC’s) that year was the creation of common assessments for core SOL subjects like modern world history using the county’s state of the art and award-winning Electronic Curriculum Assessment Resource Tool (eCart). The modern world history team, of which I am apart, was tasked to create quarterly tests and to use the data from these SOL-style assessments to target early those students at risk of failing the end-of-year state exam. While we were charged to use this technology to close the achievement gap, I see it reinforcing conventional ideas and practices concerning what it means to know and teach history.

My study is designed to better understand how these processes impact my practice and to explore how my students and I might mediate the potential influences of those internal and external constraints at work in the local context (see *Figure 1.1* below). The above discussion and the accompanying conceptual map are not designed to explore every possible influence on the teaching and learning taking place in my modern world history classroom. Rather, they highlight those factors that have been most influential in generating the puzzles and problems of practice that will become the focus of this investigation.

Figure 1.1. Factors and constraints at work in the local context of this study



Classroom level: Students’ experiences with conventional teaching and their view of history as “other people’s facts” → creates challenges for teachers using an inquiry approach that upsets these notions about how and why we study the past

School level: Diverse student body, overcrowding, and effects of an economic recession and budget crisis → creates challenges for staff in serving wide range of cultural/economic backgrounds and meeting diverse skill levels

District and state level: Virginia SOL curricula and assessments → forward a reductive view of what it means to know history, encourage rote learning and reinforce the conservatism of practice

Federal level: *No Child Left Behind Act* and the push for “higher” standards and accountability → put pressure on states and school districts to raise test scores and make AYP; these considerations outweigh the evaluation of the learning officialized by policy instruments and reform measures

Research Questions

These puzzles, in turn, have been central in the generation of the research questions that will guide this study:

1. What are the specific affordances and challenges for me in using an inquiry approach with diverse students in a high stakes accountability climate? Specifically, how do I navigate the pressure to prepare diverse students for success on the SOL exam, while

- also using that general curriculum framework to engage them in investigations of the past?
2. How will I engage and support students, especially those learners outside of the cultural mainstream, in using the cognitive tools of the discipline (defined as thinking historically and developing/demonstrating deeper historical understandings)?
 3. How will the full range of student participants interact with the instructional activities I create and what will the outcomes of these interactions be?
 - a. To what extent do students grow in their ability to think historically and develop deep(er) historical understandings?
 - b. What are the relationships between the different types of domain knowledge (for example, first order, second order, and strategic knowledge—see typology below) evidenced in student learning/assessment tasks?
 - c. How do students who experience this course do on the SOL exam relative to the students who took this same course with me last year?

These types of questions have been approached and examined from diverse perspectives by researchers, theorists, and practitioners in the field of social education. I will be exploring them as a teacher-researcher, who is interested in shining light on aspects of my own practice and learning, as well the learning of my students (see Johnston, 2006).

Key Terms and Concepts

- **Historical thinking** involves a range interrelated cognitive acts. Those strategic processes which will be the focus of both instruction and assessment measures for this study will center on:

- **developing evidence-based interpretations** using evidence from a range of documents examined in class and/or provided in assessment tasks.
- **examining multiple perspectives** in the process of developing interpretations in response to historical questions/prompts.
- **analyzing sources**, including assessing the origin (identifying the author, type of account, and the context in which the source was created), as well as evaluating the status (purpose, perspective, value, and limitations) of a source.
- **Historical understanding** develops as learners utilize the strategic processes outlined above (in conjunction with second order organizing concepts) to build interpretations of the past, for example, in the form of written arguments. Ideally, these arguments would reflect deep first order content knowledge and would be coherent and well-organized so as to communicate these understandings clearly. Toward that end, student writing samples examined for study purposes will also be assessed by the following criteria:
 - **Demonstrating detailed and accurate content knowledge** (based on prior knowledge and historical accounts from the unit of study) to build historical context and structure a nuanced narrative response to the unit investigative question.
 - **Organizing and presenting an argument**, which involves establishing a clear thesis, presenting evidence that supports that thesis, and fully addressing the question/prompt. Writing that is structured in an organized, coherent fashion is more likely to communicate historical understandings that are well-developed and clear.

- **First order knowledge** is narrative or factual knowledge concerning, for example, what happened in the past and why. This type of content knowledge can be deep or shallow. Items on the SOL exam primarily test students' low-level narrative knowledge.
- **Second order knowledge** comprises organizing concepts that help make sense of residual evidence from the past and structure historical narratives. Some examples of the concepts I plan to explore with my students include evidence, cause, explanation, and change.
- **Strategic knowledge** includes critical reading (and writing) practices that emerge in the process of analyzing sources and using evidence from these accounts to construct arguments or interpretations of the past.

Creating a Culture of Inquiry

As the above outline of key terms and concepts demonstrates, the investigative approach that I plan to implement seeks to engage a wide range of historical knowledge, including cognitive strategies employed while “doing history” and conceptual ideas that help to organize and bring order to a mass of information and evidence from and about the past. Aimed at addressing complex historical questions that have profound implications for contemporary society and politics, the use of these strategies and concepts are designed to develop in students a deeper understanding of the past and an increased capacity to shape those meanings themselves. This inquiry-based approach is not designed as a panacea for social studies education. However, I do view it as a healthy antidote to the ready-made stories typically served up by history teachers and textbooks

and the surface level presentation of factoids hastily covered in preparation for state exams, like the Virginia SOLs.

The research on historical thinking, which will be presented in more depth in the next chapter, shares much in common with a wider body of research on how students learn across a range of disciplines. For example, the three core principles of learning outlined by Donovan and Bransford (2005) in *How People Learn: History in the Classroom* (on which I draw to frame the *critical history pedagogy* implemented in my own classroom) are the same fundamental principles used by the National Research Council to structure volumes on mathematics and science. The authors recommend that teachers in these diverse domains be able to understand and incorporate the following learning principles in their teaching.

First, since “new understandings are constructed on a foundation of existing understandings and experiences,” classroom inquiry must begin by engaging students’ prior conceptions (Donovan & Bransford, 2005, p. 4). Second, developing competence in an inquiry-based learning environment requires students to learn factual knowledge and ideas in the context of a broader conceptual framework, so that this knowledge may be organized and retrieved for future use. Finally, “a metacognitive approach to instruction can help students learn to take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress in achieving them” (ibid., p. 5). These fundamental principles highlighted by the National Research Council align with many of the learner-centered principles identified by Alexander and Murphy (1998) in their review of the research on how people learn.

Furthermore, this research-based consensus about the developmental and experiential elements of reflective thinking and inquiry stretches back to the writing of Dewey (1910) and later pragmatists and progressive educational theorists (see also Bode, 1940; Bruner, 1977; Hullfish & Smith, 1961). So, my interest in engaging students in historical thinking transcends domain specific concerns. Still, the learning principles discussed above are central to the investigative approach that will be employed in the context of this study. This approach is designed to support students in developing rich content knowledge, more complex conceptual understandings, and a capacity for critical thinking and problem solving that extends beyond any single assignment or unit of study in the modern world history class. Ideally, students immersed in and supported by a shared culture of inquiry are progressively equipped with the tools and mindset to independently learn about the past and its contemporary legacy, as well as critically reading the range of texts and messages they encounter as citizens in a diverse democracy and an increasingly global world.

Why This Study

While university researchers have vigorously and voluminously explored the teaching and learning of historical thinking in other people's classrooms, there have been relatively few systematic efforts by practitioners, themselves, to demonstrate the use of domain-specific teaching and learning strategies. Johnston (2005) explains that although action research and self-study have been important in other areas of educational research, they have been relatively underutilized in the social studies (p. 57). There have been a handful of teacher-researchers who have written about their efforts to engage students in epistemic acts (Bain, 2000), the use of historical documents (Kobrin, 1996), and more

systematic historical investigations (VanSledright, 2002; Stout, 2004; Wilson, 1990). The most in-depth and methodologically rigorous among these was carried out in the context of an elementary classroom by a university researcher who taught a few units of United States history to fifth graders (see VanSledright, 2002). Stout (2004), a social studies supervisor in a large school system, conducted similar research with eighth graders. Like VanSledright, he temporarily took over the teaching responsibilities in a U.S. history classroom as part of his teacher-research study. According to VanSledright (2002), studies at the high school level have been mostly anecdotal and impressionistic.

I see my study filling a void in the research literature on several levels. First, it will be carried out by a full-time teacher, but one whose university training will hopefully gain him access to both local/school and public/university audiences. Second, it will be situated in a high school classroom and centered on the study of world history. Third, it will include a student-centered investigative project, one where students frame their own questions and locate their own source materials, rather than simply participating in prefabricated historical investigations designed by their teacher. Fourth, the study will highlight the challenges of working with a diverse population and within the constraints of a rigid accountability system. Finally, I believe that the blending of disciplinary norms and practices with theory emerging from critical multiculturalism may generate interesting tensions as I explore my students' investigations of the past.

CHAPTER 2
INVESTIGATING HISTORY IN DIVERSE CLASSROOMS:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

It was the end of May, my students had just taken the SOL test for modern world history and, in my first year teaching part-time in the county I wondered what other social studies teachers did in the remaining three to four weeks before school let out for the summer. My students wanted to “chill,” watch movies, and maybe review a little bit before the final exam. I decided to create an extended historical investigation, one where my students would formulate their own questions, locate and evaluate sources, and present their findings to their peers. I figured that the students already viewed me with some suspicion. I was an outsider, a full-time graduate student who parked his car outside the trailer every day, popped in to teach one class, and then drove away. I suspect that now they were thinking, ‘This guy really is crazy. The year is essentially over and he wants us to complete a detailed research project!’ (see Kelly, 2006).

One student who admittedly “questioned what [I was] trying to do” was Sergio. In an interview he expressed frustration with the open-ended nature of the project and said that “at first [he] wanted a little bit more instruction.” In particular, he did not understand why he had to generate questions when he had already chosen a topic, the civil war in El Salvador. His mother experienced the conflict in this tiny war-torn country before immigrating to the United States. Eventually Sergio did develop a research question, but then found it difficult to locate relevant primary and secondary sources. He explained, “It was hard to find sources related to the question and still keep

on the topic.” In the end it was “the quotes from people who were actually there” that Sergio found “most useful.” This included an interview with his mother. He described his preference for these first-hand accounts: “A person there, their emotions are in it. So, they’re more involved. That’s their country, that’s their villages.” Sergio contrasted the emotive and authentic nature of these sources to what he viewed as the distant tone of secondary sources: “You can’t really get a feel for [the conflict], because they weren’t really at the event, they don’t really have a point of view. They’re just giving you the facts” (see Kelly, 2006).

As a result of his involvement with the project Sergio was able to use history’s disciplinary tools, even though he was still very much a novice in the domain. While he expressed a deep personal connection to the historical event and some of its actors, his final paper and presentation demonstrated a limited understanding of the causes and outcomes of the civil war in El Salvador. In allowing students to choose a topic they deemed important, I hoped to validate some of what they were already bringing to their investigations of modern world history. Most of my students’ research projects that year centered on some aspect of their own cultural identity and many referred to the importance of studying “my” history. Yet, in the end, I wondered if creating opportunities for them to explore “their” history was enough. They still had some distance to go in order to develop deeper and more nuanced understandings of the past, its connections to modern society, and their place in it (see Kelly, 2006).

Introduction: “The Sergio Dilemma” and Alternative Perspectives on the Social Studies

My follow up interview with Sergio, a portion of which I include here, raised another set of questions for me and confirmed that, even after ten years of teaching, I also had room for further reflection and growth. Earlier in the year I made a clumsy attempt to speak Spanish to Sergio, who was usually the first one to arrive to class. He responded, “You’re butchering my language...my people’s language.” Was I also butchering what he considered to be *his* history? I told him that his comment reminded me of a refrain I had heard from some of my past students. They claimed that *school* history seldom connects to *their* history. When I asked if he also felt that way he replied, “Yes, we just skipped *my* history [referring to our surface level coverage of independence movements in Latin America]” (see Kelly, 2006).

I referred back to this exchange in the project exit interview, a portion of which I include here:

Teacher Researcher (TR): My conversation with you [earlier in the year] and my subsequent conversations with other students was one of the reasons why I chose to give you some freedom with the project. How did you feel about having the freedom to choose a topic you wanted?

Sergio(S): It felt good for the most part.

TR: In your paper you said that you did something that you could relate to and “that is something that [you] can never do in history.” What do you mean here?

S: Well, it’s usually American history or European history.

TR: And so by relating to it you mean something more connected to your culture?

S: Yeah, background.

TR: So, if you were to identify yourself would you say, ‘I’m American?’

S: No, Spanish.

TR: If someone were to ask you a question about the world history curriculum, let's say you were a student representative, and they were asking you what are some things you might change about the curriculum, would you have any suggestions for them?

S: I guess, but maybe you shouldn't skip over that chapter [on Latin America] when you're going through history [laughing]. That would probably help. I guess it's because Europe is the major topic for history.

TR: Well, it's been that way for a long time, but it doesn't mean it's necessarily right or wrong even, but that it's created by people for a reason...

S: But the way we went over it in class it didn't seem like there *was* any space for it.

TR: No, it didn't have a major part in the curriculum and I knew it wouldn't be a big part of the SOL test. And the other reason is that as a teacher... the Latin American history I know is during the contact period when the Europeans first arrived here, but in terms of Latin American history, let's say 1700's through 1900's, not much. So, as a teacher you have some limits in terms of what you can bring to the table. Which is another reason why I had you guys do this, so I can learn something from you.

S: Yeah, but I could have picked anything. I didn't have to pick [the civil war in El Salvador].

TR: But you did.

S: Yeah, but I didn't have to. And we'd have four papers on the Holocaust and then you wouldn't have learned anything [new].

TR: Then I would certainly have to research it [on my own], right?

S: Yeah, but you wouldn't, because no one every studies that.

TR: You don't think so?

S: No.

In my research journal I referred to this exchange and the questions it raised as the "Sergio Dilemma" (see Kelly, 2006). How could I allow for a more equitable distribution of historical content knowledge? Should I add "ethnic" content to the curriculum so that it mirrors the cultures represented in my classroom? Or is my job,

instead, to convince Sergio and other cultural minorities that they *are* American and that a due respect for and knowledge of *our* history is evidence of good citizenship and a path to success in school and the wider society? Is there an alternative narrative structure for the modern world history curriculum that would allow me and my students to access and develop new meanings? What are the gaps in my own narrative knowledge and the limits of my strategic and conceptual knowledge? How might I best prepare and support students, like Sergio, in using history's cognitive tools?

Since the conception of the field, educational theorists and researchers have forwarded a number of different arguments concerning the definition of the social studies and the educational purpose of teaching and learning history in secondary schools. An examination of the historical and contemporary literature in social education suggests that academics have not reached any consensus on these issues. According to Martorella (2001), while there has traditionally been some agreement among educators that citizenship education should be a major focus of the social studies curriculum, they disagree on the specific role the curriculum should play in promoting this end. This literature review examines two broad perspectives on the social studies in order to gain some analytic leverage on the questions raised by the "Sergio Dilemma" and to better understand the constraints at work in the context of this study. In particular, I will examine social studies as the transmission of cultural heritage and values and social studies as reflective thinking and inquiry.

Drawing from some of the recent research and theory in the fields of history education and multicultural studies, as well as some foundational readings in cultural psychology and pragmatism, this discussion will highlight the guiding purposes of these

alternative curricular perspectives and show how they influence the shape and function of history in schools. Each is rooted in a set of assumptions about the nature of knowledge and our ability to obtain truth and know the “real” world. The epistemological beliefs that inform these perspectives, as well as the interests and purposes they support carry significant implications for the pedagogical approaches utilized in the history classroom and the role of the teacher and student in the learning venture.

It should also be noted that the literature used to frame these perspectives reflects diverse, even divergent, disciplinary practices and theoretical traditions. While it is important to explore these tensions, I am personally and intellectually committed to finding areas of confluence (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). This effort, I hope, will encourage conversation, rather than the kind of narrow parochialism that can inhibit discourse in the multidisciplinary field of education. Before discussing specific curricular and pedagogical options at the level of the classroom, I first explore the macro-level processes which have historically impacted the educational experiences of cultural minorities, like Sergio, and the meanings surfaced by critical social theory when applied to schools and the wider cultural landscape.

Seeing Sergio through a Critical Lens: Why History and Culture Matter

Several years ago at a *Maryland Institute for Minority Achievement and Urban Education* symposium lecture, Turner (2004) presented the findings from her study of European American teachers and their use of culturally relevant pedagogies for literacy instruction. The title of her paper contained a phrase, which is all too common among educators today: I see children, not color. I believe that the thrust of such statements is

actually well-intentioned. If we see only children, the argument goes, then we free ourselves from any potential bias associated with the stereotypes and low expectations traditionally leveled against students of color. In reality, the impact of this popular “egalitarian” framework can be quite detrimental to the psychological and academic development of minority students. Tracing the consequences and, ultimately, the fallacy of a “color-blind” approach to teaching in diverse schools will demonstrate the importance of utilizing historical analysis and (more complex models of) culture as a construct in our efforts to best serve an increasingly diverse public school population.

In “seeing children, not color,” we ignore the fact that our students are cultural and historical beings, whose lives and circumstances are mediated by powerful structures and developments in their communities and the larger society. This “color-blind” view of students goes hand in hand with another supposedly progressive-minded impulse to view schools as fundamentally democratic and egalitarian institutions. Since *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), there certainly have been great strides made in regards to equality of access in public education. However, an overemphasis on the development of equal educational opportunities ignores the vestiges of racism and ethnocentrism (Takaki, 1993), current trends toward de facto segregation (Frankenberg, Lee, & Orfield, 2003), and a persistent achievement gap. Murrell (2002) makes this point when he writes:

As much as we would like to believe in American public schools as the great equalizer, it is not reasonable to expect public schools to transform social injustice because they are cut from the same fabric of American society that has generated the practices of oppression and inequality in its institutions throughout our history (xxiv).

And yet, the “American Dream” metaphor prevails, sustained, in part, by a popular faith in the promise of educational equality and a firm belief in rugged individualism and meritocracy (Murrell, 2002).

Proponents of this popular “pull yourself up by the bootstraps” ideology appear to suffer from what Weiner (1993) calls, “historic amnesia” (p. 8). By failing to view schools and their clients through the lens of history, we tend to adopt simplistic explanatory models that blame poor and minority students for their own low academic achievement. Similarly, we level charges against their families and communities for the current conditions of “failing” schools. In the research literature these attitudes are categorized as genetic determinist and/or cultural determinist (see Solorzano, 1995), because they use pseudo-scientific models (or scientific racism) and oversimplified constructs of culture to explain the supposed intellectual and cultural deficits of poor and minority youth (e.g., Herrnstein & Murray, 1994; Lewis, 1969; Murray, 1984; Ogbu, 1992). In our attempts to look past the “color” (race, ethnicity, class, and culture) of our students, that is sometimes all we see, especially when they do not measure up to the normative standard we imagined when we so earnestly uttered, “I see children, not color.”

Consider the achievement gap discussed in the first chapter. Why *are* poor and minority students disproportionately performing at rates lower than their counterparts? We have seen how cultural deprivation and student-deficit models lack the historical perspective necessary to get at the root causes of such disparity in educational outcomes. Even where cultural determinist theorists offer critiques of deeply embedded systems of social domination, they tend to emphasize the development of “deviant” subcultures on

the part of historically subordinated groups. I am referring here to Ogbu's (1992) arguments about the formation of "oppositional cultures" by involuntary minorities and Lewis' (1969) discussion of the problems associated with a "culture of poverty."

Like the color- and culture- blind frameworks discussed above, these types of shallow analyses either assume that the cultural orientation of the dominant or privileged group (usually white, middle-class culture) should be adopted by all young people *or* that academic and social progress take place in a politically and culturally neutral zone, which allows for the equal development of all learners, regardless of race, class, or culture. Some critical theorists suggest that if educators and policy makers ignore the implications of an increasingly diverse public school population, as well as the historic role of schools in reproducing inequality, school improvement plans will continue to target symptoms and not core problems (Hilliard, 1984). It is worth asking if the prescriptions of recent accountability reform efforts fit this mold.

This question has been taken up by researchers in the field of multicultural studies. They argue that accountability measures designed to raise levels of achievement, especially for racial and ethnic minorities, may actually impede academic and social development by reinforcing conventional teaching practices and reinscribing traditional historical narratives. According to Ladson-Billings (1996 & 2004), recent models of educational reform tend to forward a muted discourse on culture and encourage highly technical practices. While they bear the stamp of "equity," in reality they may have a more conserving effect. By sorting underperforming students and "failing" schools, recent accountability reforms may, to borrow from Shujaa (1994), "perpetuate and

maintain the society's existing power relations and the institutional structures that support those arrangements," even though they propose to *leave no child behind* (pp. 15-16).

Recent revisionist histories, as well as cultural and ethnic studies, offer insights as we survey the economic, social, and cultural landscape of United States history and its deep connections to the development of public education. Some scholars have focused on the historic subordination of particular ethnic and racial groups throughout the nation's history. They trace the negative impact of government policy, the development of stereotypes, prejudices, and discriminatory practices by the cultural mainstream, and the (mis)representation of racial and ethnic minorities in social science research. See, for example, Gutierrez' (2004) examination of scholarship on ethnic Mexicans, Min's (2004) review of research on Asian Americans, and the work of King (2004) in the field of Black studies. Of particular power, are those studies that offer a comparative analysis of racial domination in the United States by tracing the experiences of several historically subordinated groups. Takaki's (1990) work is distinguished by such an analysis, as well as by the way he draws a relationship between the development of a dominant culture and the material realities of a burgeoning industrial-capitalist society.

As mentioned earlier, public schools were shaped by and, in many ways, mirrored these developments. Cultural and social reproduction theories have been used to explain how schools help to perpetuate the social and economic inequalities of a class-stratified society by reinforcing hierarchically structured relationships built on authority and control (see Bowles & Gintis, 1976). Cultural mismatch models similarly trace the role of schools in replicating structural arrangements. However, they look to culture, and not class, as the primary vehicle through which racial and ethnic minorities remain

marginalized (see Shujaa, 1994). And, we have seen how current reforms aimed at closing the achievement gap may, in fact, reinforce it by officializing essentialist notions of culture and knowledge through the commodified curriculum of schools, including textbooks, standards documents, and assessment measures (Apple & Weis, 1983).

Social Studies as the Transmission of Knowledge, Culture, and Values

Even though historical and sociocultural perspectives point to structural arrangements that prevent fundamental economic and social change, schools continue to be viewed as fundamentally egalitarian institutions where students might earn the necessary cultural capital to gain them material access in the wider society. Cultural literacy and multicultural education represent two broad frameworks aimed at improving the educational experiences of not just poor and minority youth, but all students. Here I devote particular attention to how these two perspectives have shaped how we think about teaching and learning history. While there are clear conflicts between cultural literacy and multiculturalism as models of educational reform, both seem to view the social studies as a means of transmitting a core body of cultural knowledge and values.

History as Cultural Literacy: Assimilating and Elevating Sergio

Responding to what she characterized as "truly abysmal scores" on the 2001 U.S. History Report Card (a federally mandated test administered by the Department of Education), Diane Ravitch, a member of the test's governing board, commented:

Our ability to defend—intelligently and thoughtfully—what we as a nation hold dear depends on our knowledge and understanding of what we hold dear. That can only be achieved through learning the history we share, and clearly, far too

many high school seniors have not learned even a modest part of it. (see Henry, 2002)

Aside from offering commentary on the historical knowledge deficits of young people, Ravitch expresses one of the enduring purposes of social studies education, the transmission of cultural heritage. This functionalist perspective views schools as one of the primary social institutions responsible for preserving and transmitting shared knowledge, consensual values, and a common culture. Oppenheim and Torney (1974) discuss the role of social studies education in the socialization process. "Civic education," they explain, "does not merely consist in the transmission of a body of knowledge . . . it aims at inculcating certain shared attitudes and values . . . indeed the cognitive content of the curriculum is frequently used in order to highlight the underlying principles and ideology" that shape a society or culture (pp. 22-23).

According to Hirsch (1988), a leading proponent of cultural literacy, "learning depends on communication, and effective communication depends on shared background knowledge" (p. xiii). Common knowledge stored in memory as "abstract mental entities" or schemata allows the reader to decode texts and to supply essential information which is not written down or spoken (ibid., xi). Hirsch argues that this kind of cultural literacy would prevent cognitive overloads, facilitate public discourse, and enhance social cohesion. Since, in his view, "cultural literacy is the oxygen of social discourse," he asserts that neglect of our collective memory necessarily hampers effective communication and loosens the ties that bind Americans around consensual values and ideals (ibid., p.19). the promotion and development of a national literate culture. According to Hirsch, schools should play a central role in the promotion and

development of a national literate culture, though in his estimate, they have “failed to fulfill their fundamental acculturative responsibility” (ibid., p. 18).

Hirsch (1988) defends what he calls “the inherent conservatism of literacy,” alluding to the “traditional reference points of literate culture” included in his list of “what every American needs to know” (pp. xiv-xv). Responding to his critics, whom he refers to as “self-appointed protectors of minority cultures,” Hirsch argues that it is a simple fact of history that American cultural traditions draw heavily from Western European models (ibid., xv). He does not deny the importance of multicultural literacy, but views it as secondary to a shared body of cultural knowledge. Throughout his work, he hails education as the primary tool for enfranchisement in American society. Rather than serving as instrumental mechanisms, which perpetuate social inequality, Hirsch (1987) believes that school based cultural literacy programs “constitute the only sure avenue of opportunity” for disadvantaged children (p. 75).

Ravitch and Hirsch are not the first to defend the acculturative function of schools, specifically history’s role in assimilating American youth into a common literate culture. Using history education to socialize the identities of young people in the United States is a common and taken for granted practice with a long history. With the demographic explosion caused by multiple waves of immigration at the turn of the century, Progressive era educators and social scientists viewed public schools as a logical place to “Americanize” newcomers (see Gerstle, 1997; see also Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007). In the last half-century, new global patterns of change have again altered the cultural make-up of the United States and its public schools. Reports predicting that the United States will become a majority non-white society by 2056

(Takaki, 1993) have led to a collective reassessment of what it means to be American and how we might best educate students for success in a globalized economy.

The Virginia context, where this study is situated, appears to reflect the interests and ideological commitments of cultural literacy advocates and melting pot theorists. One could argue that there is a level of social capital that can be gained by cultural minorities who buy in to this kind of identity-shaping project. For example, students in my class who are able to recall some of the historical details associated with a traditional Western-centric narrative may reap tangible rewards, such as passing state mandated exit exams necessary for graduation. Wertsch (1998) suggests it may also offer them a degree of access to or participation in the wider popular culture. One problem with the cultural literacy framework as a curricular model is that it assumes a shallow analysis of culture as a construct, one that ignores the deep connections between schools, school sanctioned knowledge, and the broader historical developments described above. The literature in multicultural studies helps to illuminate these connections, but it, too, may forward simplistic explanatory models and essentialist notions of cultural identity.

Multicultural Pedagogies: Making Room for Sergio and “His History”

Responding to Hirsch and other melting pot theorists who emphasize the macro-culture, which supposedly unites all Americans, Simonson and Walker (1988) explain that educators and policymakers too often “ignore the part that women and/or people of color play in making this culture and country what it is” (p. xiii). They believe “we should also learn the great value of diversity and seek to preserve a diverse cultural heritage” (ibid., p. xi). Dating back to the early ethnic studies movements, scholars have worked to rethink and transform what they view as the Eurocentric, racist, and patriarchal foundations of school sanctioned knowledge.

Toward this end, they have illuminated the ways social and cultural minorities have been excluded and misrepresented in academic and popular discourses. According to Bennett (2001), some of these efforts are aimed specifically at “detecting bias in texts, trade books, and instructional materials” (p. 178). This is an important step in identifying how curricular materials alienate minority students, create barriers to their positive identification with school, and detrimentally impact their academic achievement.

One proposed alternative to the established narratives of consensus history is the “additive” multicultural approach. It attempts to broaden the traditional narrative to include more diverse experiences and viewpoints (Dimitriadis, 2000, p. 41). As mentioned earlier, Virginia’s modern world history curriculum reflects aspects of this “Different Cultures” model (see Dunn, 2000). However, as Banks (2004) notes, simply adding ethnic content and discrete cultural elements or focusing on the contributions of cultural heroes and heroines without changing the basic structure of the curriculum fails to interrogate the processes by which knowledge is constructed and legitimized in schools, the disciplines, and the larger society.

African-centered theorists have proposed a curriculum centered on African themes and ways of knowing. Rejecting traditional curriculum models, which are “ideologically conditioned” by notions of European cultural domination and racism, the Afrocentric approach attempts to provide African American students with a supposedly true “cultural foundation for learning” (Watkins, 2001, pp. 55-56). It would appear, however, that this framework replaces one essentialized narrative with another. And what would a culture-centered curriculum for social studies look like in a school with seventy-six countries and fifty-two languages represented? It may be less about finding “true” knowledge or “pure” cultural modes of

instruction and more about recognizing students' multiple ways of seeing and knowing the world (see Eisner, 1985).

Some researchers and practitioners address how conventional teaching and learning structures negatively impact minority achievement. Alternately referred to as equity pedagogy (Banks, 2004, pp. 18-20), cultural styles in teaching and learning (Bennett, 2001, pp. 188-190), and teaching the culturally different (Grant, Elsbree, & Fondrie, 2004, p. 188), this cluster of research challenges cultural deprivation, student deficit, and assimilationist paradigms by arguing that minority students bring considerable cultural strengths, unique learning styles, and distinct cultural frames of reference to the learning venture. According to culture centered theorists (e.g., Irvine, 1990; Ladson-Billings, 1994), the problem is not the inability of young people to adopt the culture of the mainstream; rather it is the negligence of monocultural classrooms and schools, which validate the cultural values, norms, and ways of knowing of the dominant group, at the cost of denigrating the home cultures of racial and ethnic minorities.

According to Bennett (2001), researchers attending to this "cultural mismatch" theory, describe successful teaching as "culturally relevant," "culturally congruent," "culturally compatible," or "culturally responsive" (p. 186). Proponents theorize that culturally relevant pedagogy creates the conditions whereby students may experience high levels of academic success and develop and maintain cultural identity by utilizing students' home culture as a vehicle for learning (Grant, Elsbree, & Fondrie, 2004). Culturally relevant pedagogy converges with critical pedagogy in its efforts to develop among students a critical consciousness through which they may learn to challenge social injustice (Sleeter & Bernal, 2004).

One potential problem for researchers and practitioners working to address the historic barriers to minority achievement lies in the way they define pedagogy. According to Murrell (2002), “instruction and pedagogy are by no means synonymous.” He continues, “Pedagogy...includes teachers’ awareness of their own culturally mediated values and biases, as well as an understanding of how success and failure are rooted in larger societal and institutional structures” (xxiii). So, pedagogy must be must be conceptualized in such a way as to account not only for the teaching strategies enacted in the space of the classroom, but also for the hidden curriculum of schools and those societal mechanisms which limit minority students’ access to equitable resources and educational opportunities and decrease their chances for academic success.

Thus, we see some of the literature framing equity pedagogy to include research on empowering school cultures and positive classroom climates. This literature is critical to understanding and transforming the hidden curriculum of schools, including teacher attitudes and expectations for student learning (Steele, 2004), disciplinary policies and procedures, (Bennett, 2001), tracking and remediation schemes (Oakes, 1985), and the availability of equitable resources (Darling-Hammond, 2004). Human relations and prejudice reduction frameworks may also contribute to the development of an empowering school culture, if conceptualized within a pluralist, rather than an assimilationist paradigm. The history classroom, according to these models, proves to be an ideal context for teachers and students to work on developing more democratic attitudes, values, and practices (Banks, 2004). By modeling and facilitating dispositions of open-mindedness, the absence of prejudice, and respect for diversity (Bennett, 2001; see also Helms, 1992), the history teacher may create an environment whereby students are empowered to challenge traditional patterns of race relations

and historic ethnic and religious conflicts that manifest in our schools, neighborhoods, and the wider global community.

(Re)Viewing Sergio: The Complexities of Culture and Historical Positionality

Historical factors and contemporary developments point to the relevance of taking diversification seriously and *also* to the importance of being smarter about how we conceptualize and articulate multicultural frameworks and practices. Banks (2004) expresses the concerns of many researchers in the field of multicultural education when he points to some of the potential problems associated with the cultural difference literature. In listing the “cultural characteristics designed to help teachers build on the cultural strengths of ethnic students,” culture-centered and cultural difference theorists run the risk of forwarding static and formulaic notions of culture and group identity (p. 19). These essentialized representations often ignore the differences within designated groups and devote little attention to other important factors, like class, gender, and locale.

Advocates of a critical multiculturalism suggest that new conceptions of culture and community need to be formulated in order to account for the everyday lived realities of students exhibiting multiple identities and the complex processes involved in cultural formation (Grant, Elsbree, & Fondrie, 2004; Heath, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 2004). These complexities are reflected in the definitions of culture offered by cultural psychologists and anthropologists (Erikson, 2002; Jacob, 2004). Rather than viewing culture as something we have because we are born into or belong to a particular group, they tend to see culture as something people develop over time because of the knowledge, values, and practices they

share with others, what Lave and Wenger (1991) refer to as participation in “communities of practice.”

Researchers in the domain of history express similar concerns. While theoretical frameworks constructed around categories like race and class may support historical analysis along the social axis of power, they deconstruct in their efforts to locate fixed structures and universal processes (Fields, 1982). In creating well meaning revisions to traditionally accepted orthodoxies, scholars often end up creating the kind of essentializing categories that they aimed to counter in the first place. The problem, or rather the paradox, of such an approach is that careful historical research reveals heterogeneity within group classifications and the fluidity of social relationships, rather than the existence of transhistorical laws and patterns. After all, race, class, and culture are ideological constructs as much as they are real things and our relative positions of power related to these constructs shift from one locale to another (Cherryholmes, 1999).

The central challenge in utilizing unifying theoretical models in our attempts to understand the experiences of minority youth, like Sergio, is to balance their explanatory power with an understanding that they are ideal types. For example, in accounting for the formal boundaries of racism, ethnocentrism, and class hierarchy, we must also recognize the limits to these and other forms of oppression and domination. The question of locating a synthesizing perspective might be a matter of living fruitfully with the tension between broad theories and thick description (Geertz, 1973). Therefore, if we are to view Sergio as an historical and cultural being, then we must discover the ways his life is impacted by powerful structures *and* how the social and economic processes affecting him and his classmates are always provisional and never complete.

This interest in exploring Sergio's sociocultural identity connects to related, yet divergent, strains of research coming out of the multicultural studies and history education communities. Whereas advocates of multiculturalism suggest drawing on the unique cultural frames of reference (Murrell, 2001) and "funds of knowledge" (Moll & Gonzalez, 2004) minority learners bring to the classroom, social studies researchers frame the discussion in terms of understanding students' "social location" (Seixas, 1996) or "historical positionalities" (VanSledright, 1997). The former views the culture of minority learners—most often race, ethnicity, and/or culture—as a tool that must be rescued from its place on the margins and centered in the discursive practices of the classroom. The latter considers a how wider web of sociocultural influences constitute the "temporal bearings" which help all students to make sense of their lives and which they bring to bear on their readings of the past (Seixas, 1996, p. 778).

How might a teacher interested in exploring the possibilities of both of these strains of research and theory do so in the context of investigating modern world history in a diverse classroom? By choosing an historical topic that mattered to them, one which they viewed as important in the broader scope of historical developments, I believe Sergio and his peers were both tapping into their cultural frames of reference (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Moll & Gonzalez, 2004; Murrell, 2001) and assigning historical significance (Barton and Levstik, 1998; Epstein, 1998). Given that this task is usually reserved for teachers, textbook writers, and curriculum development teams, there is a conferring of power in allowing students to openly shape the "lived curriculum" (Apple & Weis, 1983, pp. 2-3). This conferring of power is not simply about validating the unique cultural foundations of minority learners, nor does it necessarily involve creating more "truthful" or "authentic" knowledge. [Postmodern theory demands

humility from all historical narratives, from the most traditional version to the latest revision (see Segal, 1999; Seixas, 2000).] It might, however, open up new meanings (not made available via the teacher, textbook, or curriculum guide) and put students in a position to shape those meanings.

For example, research on students' historical positionalities (Barton & Levstik, 1998) demonstrates that cultural minorities may offer different explanations than their European-American peers for what they consider to be the most significant actors, events, and themes in United States history. In addition, Epstein (1998) shows how students' racial identities may impact their beliefs about the relative reliability of historical sources. European-American students in her study looked to the teacher and textbook as the most credible sources of knowledge about the past. African-American learners, on the other hand, placed more truth-value in the oral histories coming from family and community members. Epstein concluded that these different readings of the past and its residual evidence were based on the "race-related differences in the lived experiences of the students' themselves and their family members" (pp. 403-418).

Like more recent articulations of critical multiculturalism, researchers in history education (Seixas, 1996; VanSledright, 1997) suggest that, if we are to take seriously the historical positionalities of the learners in our classrooms, than we need to consider a range of sociocultural influences that might impact how students make sense of the present, read the past, and imagine possible futures. Sergio's understanding of himself as "Spanish" (Latino?) certainly shaped his reading of the curriculum that was covered in my class. Just as important, though, was the way he equated the "usefulness" of sources with their ability to bring the past

to life with emotional power. What were the other factors that shaped how he and other students approached the extended historical investigation project?

Studies in the field of history education (e.g., Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; Seixas, 1994) suggest that filmic representations of the past have a powerful influence on how student's view historical actors and events. These same studies show how students refer back to these popular culture referents in making sense of subsequent historical texts. A female student in Sergio's class switched her topic to the Cuban Revolution after watching a popular movie set during the time period. I encouraged her to use the film as an entry point to her investigation and asked her to compare what she found in the documentary record to what was presented in the film. These prior understandings, forged out of the complex processes involved in cultural formation, are the raw materials that history teachers must necessarily work with if they hope to lead students to develop new meanings and more complex understandings of the past and themselves (VanSledright, 1998).

Conventional Practice and How Students Learn History

Some of these concerns, focused on issues of epistemology, historical significance, and how students learn history have been taken up by a vibrant research community (see Barton & Levstik, 2004; Donovan & Bransford, 2005; Stearns et al., 2000; VanSledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001). They have not, however, been in the foreground of recent popular debates concerning school history. Instead, politicians, pundits, and activists from all sides of the political spectrum have argued over what content should fill history standards, curriculum documents, and textbooks. By asking "whose history" participants in the "culture wars" (Nash et al., 2000), as these virulent public contests have come to be called, are seeking to influence

what version of history will be legitimized via the material culture of schools (Apple & Weis, 1983, p. 4). Gordon (1994) characterizes the issue as “fundamentally one of control—that is, who will control the perspectives and interpretations given to children in American schools” (p. 62). Similarly, Seixas (2000) explains that different sides are seeking to influence “the power of the story of the past to define who we are in the present, our relations with others...and broad parameters for action in the future” (p. 21).

Unfortunately, these debates seem to be misdirected. The continual reverberations of the culture wars indicate that the definitions of national identity and the markers of historical significance are constantly shifting. The tug and pull of competing interests can, over time, lead to a healthy reorganization and reconstruction of the cultural knowledge we value. Bode (1940) makes this point when he writes, “Hence, the function of schools is not merely to conserve the values of the past, but to provide for the continuous reinterpretation of our cultural heritage so as to make it the servant and not the master of our lives” (p. 298). However, too much attention paid to the subject matter that should be transmitted to students in the social studies implies a rather static model of learning.

The relative stability of conventional practice in the teaching and learning of history has been well documented (see Cuban, 1991; Seixas, 2001). Wilson (2001) offers an unflattering, yet all too familiar, portrait of history instruction in United States’ schools. It frequently involves heavy reliance on textbooks as the authorities of particular bodies of knowledge, teacher-directed lectures that seek to reinforce or enliven that content, individual assignments which do not actively engage the mind in any kind of extended inquiry, and quizzes and tests that require students to recall historical minutiae. Research on students’ reading of historical texts (see Wineburg, 1991), suggests they are

typically seduced by what Barthes (1986) refers to as the text's "referential illusion." Since the traces of how a text came to be are largely hidden or erased, students tend to view them as authorless tracts which more or less correspond to the past itself.

Relying on unidirectional narratives of the past presented in didactic fashion, students are led to view history as a fixed, uncontested body of knowledge (Bain, 2000; VanSledright, 1997; Wineburg, 1991). Since school history has long been considered a synonym for patriotism, most often these narratives invite students to celebrate exclusive heritage myths and to commit an idealized consensus account to memory (Kammen, 1997; Lowenthal, 1996; VanSledright, 1998). Designed to fix national identity and promote social cohesion, Seixas (2000) refers to this method of history instruction as the collective memory approach. In this model, students become receiving objects, passively absorbing standardized "facts" and "truths" delivered by teacher-technicians on a kind of educational conveyor belt (Hullfish & Smith, 1961). Within the "banking concept of education" (Freire, 2001), success is attained when students demonstrate their ability to memorize and reproduce this purportedly objective and neutral knowledge on standardized assessments.

However, when we consider the results of periodic assessments of students' historical knowledge over the past century (see Wineburg, 2001), it would appear that success has not been attained. The evidence suggests that students are woefully ignorant of history and, that despite iterative cycles of outrage and reform, their knowledge "deficits" remain relatively constant. In the last three decades, the discussion about how to address this problem has been largely focused in two areas. Primarily, the discussion about what students *don't* know has turned heavily on the relative merits of

multiculturalism (see Banks, 2004; Takaki, 1993) versus cultural literacy (see Bloom, 1987; Hirsch, 1987; Schlesinger, 1992). As long as social studies educators operate within the framework of knowledge transmission and values acquisition, students will be left to swallow the latest version of cultural heritage forwarded in the schools.

According to Dunn (2000) the Western Heritage Model for world history presents a consensus account about the progress of the West based on its “exceptional seminal traits” (pp. 124-125). In the traditional world history classroom, these core attributes and values are nourished and celebrated. However, in a climate that embraces multiculturalism and moral revisionism, the refrain of the heritage apostles may be likened to a predictable lament, rather than a song of unending praise for the cherished ideals of the United States and Western Europe. In their efforts to expose “warts-and-all,” social studies educators sometimes show only warts, replacing one simplistic narrative with another (Lowenthal, 1996). And unless we want our kids to lug home texts the size of phonebooks, it does not make sense to indiscriminately add more content to the curriculum in an effort to appease each new interest group that enters the fray.

Connected to this first issue of *whose* history is the concern with how to get educators to faithfully teach and students to efficiently learn the decided upon course of study. The technical interest in controlling the processes (e.g., teacher behaviors) and products (often student outcomes in the form of as quantifiable measures of achievement) of the learning environment is not new by any means. Rooted deeply in the traditions of behaviorism and functionalism, its history can be traced to Tyler’s (1949) curriculum rationale and Skinner’s application of operant conditioning to education (see Carr & Kemmis, 1986).

These models of standardization have gained significant momentum in the wake of the *No Child Left Behind Act* and the current requirements set by the federal government for “scientific” research (see Johnston, 2006). In particular, school bureaucracies have been intensely focused on aligning instructional tools in the name of raising achievement levels in school subjects, like history. The degree to which instructional tools—academic standards, curricula, lesson plans, chosen text materials, and assessments—are aligned and utilized can have far-reaching implications for students, teachers, and local school districts, from how the subject matter is conceptualized, to grade promotion and graduation rates, to the connection of academic performance and school funding (see Barton & Levstik, 2004).

According to Dewey (1902), educational programs which put subject matter first tend to stress the immaturity of the student, thus the need to fill their minds with the important information and values that adults possess and children lack. In the case of conventional history practice, this typically involves almost exclusive attention to learning first-order narrative knowledge (VanSledright & Limon, 2006), often referred to as the basic facts about the past. However, the problem with this type of transmitted knowledge imposed from without is that it lacks any organic connection to the student’s own experience. It becomes, in the words of Dewey (1910), “so much lumber and debris” and “an obstruction to effective thinking” (p. 199). Recall that for Holt’s (1990) students, this “lumber and debris” amounted to a sterile accumulation of “other people’s facts.” When an historical narrative, whether the most traditional version or the latest revision, becomes a collection of neatly packaged facts or even a compelling moral tale,

the passive classroom audience involved in receiving its lessons and truths is necessarily susceptible to problems associated with indoctrination.

Dewey (1910), though writing almost one hundred years ago, might very well have been referring to the educational program forwarded via the Virginia Standards of Learning for history: "Certain men or classes of men come to be the accepted guardians and transmitters—instructors—of established doctrines. To question the beliefs is to question their authority; to accept the beliefs is evidence of loyalty to the powers that be, a proof of good citizenship" (p. 149). Yet, not even advocates of multicultural education are immune from the kind of identity politics which drive the social studies curriculum debates. As Hullfish and Smith (1961) have noted, too many educators who claim to support education programs that facilitate the development of critical thinking, "equate good thinking with the holding of [their] particular conclusions and values" (p. 18). Students, like our culture at large, would benefit more from educational opportunities aimed at the development of thinking, rather than the promotion of particular values or patterns of belief (Dewey, 1910).

Hullfish and Smith (1961), suggest that developing thoughtful habits of mind take precedence over the transmission of cultural heritage. They write, "When the coverage of facts and the fostering of thought conflict...it is but elementary educational wisdom to give right of way to thinking" (p. 229). Divorcing ourselves from a transmission model of learning is a prerequisite for developing learning experiences for the social studies that facilitate reflective thinking and inquiry. It is critical, however, that any proposed educational program arise out of its own philosophy, rather than from a rejection of existing policies and practices. Dewey (1938) makes this point when he writes: "There is

always the danger in a new movement that in rejecting the aims and methods of that which it would supplant, it may develop its principles negatively rather than positively and constructively" (p. 20). What we need, then, is a reappraisal of what constitutes learning and a re-conceptualization of the nature of knowledge, itself.

Social Studies as Reflective Thinking and Inquiry

Learning: The Reconstruction of Experience

In constructing a model of learning that facilitates the development of reflective thinking and inquiry, Dewey and later progressive and pragmatic educational theorists set out to redefine learning and the capacities and tendencies of the mind. As Bode (1940) illustrates:

Our conception of learning has a direct bearing on method. It also has a bearing on educational aims and objectives, because the question of what learning is can be answered only in terms of what the mind is; and our conception of the mind, in turn, will decide what we consider 'good' for the mind, in terms of an educational program (p. 6).

Dewey (1900) explains that the child has a natural interest in conversation and communication, inquiry or finding out things, and making or constructing things. It necessarily follows that education should utilize these interests by "drawing out" the child's natural tendencies and tapping into his capacity for using his mind well. Of course, the staying power of behaviorist and functionalist approaches to learning indicate that a child may be trained to accumulate information and memorize ready made answers; however, the impulse of the mind is to make and to do, to create and test

meanings (Dewey, 1900; Hullfish & Smith, 1961). Any sound model of learning, then, must have a due respect for the natural impulses of the mind by allowing the student to, in the words of Bruner (1962), “put things together for himself, to be his own discoverer...to be a constructionist” (p. 82).

According to Dewey (1902), developing an effective educational program is not a matter of choosing between the child and the curriculum. While he is critical of the tendency in education for the center of gravity to be located in the subject matter and mature knowledge of adults, he also opposes the idea of sheer self-activity on the part of the child. Dewey prefers to discard this traditional dichotomy in favor of learning opportunities, which integrate the experiences of the student and the subject matter of the curriculum. According to Dewey, subject matter has “an appropriate place within the expanding consciousness of the child” when “it grows out of his own past doings, thinkings, and sufferings, and grows into application in further achievements and receptivities” (p. 27).

Like Dewey, other pragmatists and progressive educational theorists (see Bode, 1940; Bruner, 1977; Hullfish & Smith, 1961) argue that learning must not only emerge out of the direct experiences of the student, but that it must represent an enlargement and reconstruction of experience. In order to bring about this transformation, something more must be done besides having students draw from a storehouse of prepackaged and sanitized knowledge. They must be encouraged to transform knowledge and experience for future use, rather than simply acquiring and reproducing it. This necessarily involves moving beyond one’s prior conceptions, lived experiences, and cultural frames of

reference. Cultivating this kind of reflective activity would, according to Bruner (1962), support students as they “learn how to go about the very task of learning” (p. 87).

By conceptualizing learning as the enlargement and reconstruction of experience, the progressives developed a foundational theory that has resurfaced in the research-based principles forwarded by current educational psychologists and domain specialists interested in how people learn. For example, the attention given to integrating and expanding on students’ prior knowledge and experiences reflects one of the key learning principles outlined in the previous chapter, namely that these are the foundation for future learning and must be engaged in the process of constructing new understandings (see Alexander & Murphy, 1998). This conceptualization of learning also is also consistent with recent articulations calling for history teachers to build on, extend, and even challenge the thoroughly embedded positionalities students bring to bear on their inquiries into the past (VanSledright, 1997). In addition, Bruner’s notion of supporting young people as they “learn how to go about the very task of learning” connects to the importance of fostering metacognitive acts, which has emerged as an important guiding principle across the domains (Bransford & Donovan, 2005).

The spiral process of reconstructing experience requires that students transform newly constructed knowledge into a familiar possession through reflective thinking and inquiry, so that it becomes a resource for subsequent deliberation, judging, and testing (Bode, 1940; Bruner, 1977; Dewey, 1910; Hullfish & Smith, 1961). Dewey (1910) defines reflective thought as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends” (p. 6). Bode (1940) states that “the finding and testing of

meanings” constitutes thinking (pp. 250-251). These definitions suggest that reflective thinking and inquiry must emerge from some uncertainty or doubt, from some difficulty or problem derived from experience (Bode, 1940; Dewey, 1910; Hullfish & Smith, 1961).

Creating learning experiences, which facilitate the development and use of reflective thought, requires a drastic reformulation of the role of teacher and student in the educational endeavor. Teachers cease to be technicians and reserve their role as experts in order to coach or guide students through a series of problem raising and problem solving exercises. This entails shifting from an expository mode of didactic instruction to a hypothetical mode (Bruner, 1962). Students in this arrangement are no longer bench-bound listeners passively absorbing the recitations of their instructor and the ready-made narratives in their textbooks. They become active participants in the learning process in an effort to develop a “respect for their own powers of thinking, for their power to generate good questions, to come up with informed guesses” (Bruner, 1966, p. 96). Because reflective thinking involves making a mental leap from present knowledge and experience in order to answer a question or solve some problem, students must learn to avoid the influence of received dogma, self-interest, and mental laziness (Dewey, 1910). According to Dewey they must practice suspending judgment in order to maintain a state of doubt during the systematic process of inquiry.

Dewey (1910) explains that experimentation is the typical method for throwing light on the problem or difficulty in question. The phases of reflective activity parallel the steps of the experimental method used in the sciences (Hullfish & Smith, 1961; Nagel, 1961). Hullfish and Smith (1961) provide an outline of these component steps.

They include the recognition of a problem situation; clarification of the problem; forming, testing, and modifying the hypothesis; and taking action based on the available evidence. The best that we can hope for is that our constructed meanings and knowledge ‘sit tight,’ that things ‘hang together’ well. This does not mean that anything goes!

Reflective inquiry is far from a willy-nilly and capricious exercise in the formulation of unwarranted facts, beliefs, and values. Dewey (1910) makes this point when he explains that it is the business of education “to cultivate deep-seated and effective habits of discriminating tested beliefs from mere assertions, guesses, and opinions; to develop a lively, sincere, and open-minded preference for conclusions that are properly grounded” (p. 28). Yet, the nature of the evolution of knowledge implies that what we know now is contingent upon the likelihood that new evidence may be found and the possibility that exceptions, contrary cases, and anomalies may turn up (Cherryholmes, 1999; Dewey, 1910; Hullfish & Smith, 1961; Kuhn, 1962; Mills, 1959).

Reflective Inquiry as Disciplinary Practice

Teaching and learning social studies as social science emphasizes the importance of introducing students to the epistemological structure of various social science disciplines and immersing them in the thought processes and methods of inquiry utilized by experts in these fields (Bruner, 1977; Mills, 1959). With a nod to the highly probable nature of knowledge, however, it requires a self-conscious stance concerning our ability to know the world—past and present. The application of rigorous disciplinary methods and fidelity toward established domain rules is balanced by an understanding of the stickiness involved in knowing social worlds that appear to be firmly in our grasps yet are, ultimately, beyond our reach.

Bruner (1977) argues that an essential element in such an educational program is “a sense of excitement about discovery—discovery of regularities of previously unrecognized relations and similarities between ideas, with a resulting sense of self-confidence in one's abilities” (p. 20). Mills (1959) explains how an integrated use of the materials, conceptions, and methods of the social sciences may lead to “an understanding of the intimate realities of ourselves in connection with larger social realities.” He refers to the “quality of mind” that may be developed by such an approach as the “sociological imagination” (p. 15).

The social science approach to the social studies assumes that novice learners are cognitively ready to comprehend and utilize disciplinary knowledge (Bruner, 1977). Bruner explains that such an approach would foster a recognizable “continuity between what a scholar does in the field and what a child does in approaching it for the first time” (p. 28). A recent teacher-researcher study undertaken by VanSledright (2002) in a fifth grade United States history classroom confirms that school-age children, while very much novices in the history domain, can begin to think and act *like* historians. During an investigation into Jamestown’s *Starving Time*, students initially ignored the rules of the historical community for “what counts as more or less acceptable and valid interpretations,” however, they did begin to grapple with the idea that history is fundamentally an interpretive exercise (p. 48).

Educators wishing to immerse students in the discipline of history, rather than simply transmitting facts or sharing compelling stories about the past, face several challenges. First, teachers would need to problematize the concept of history and the nature of historical knowledge (Bain, 2000). Second, students would have to be taught

how to use a range of cognitive strategies, what the literature broadly refers to as “historical thinking” (see VanSledright, 2004). Finally, teachers would have to systematically guide students in the use of these domain-specific processes in the context of investigating puzzling questions about the past and evaluating indeterminate evidence trails left to us in the present. Of course, what makes these educational tasks so difficult is that conventional practice (Cuban, 1991; Wilson, 2001) has more to do with heritage than it does with history. Recall that school history typically centers on celebrating (or denouncing) exclusive heritage myths in an effort to build on some (imaginative) collective memory (Lowenthal, 1996; Seixas, 2000).

Educational researchers and cultural historians (Kammen, 1997; Lowenthal, 1996; Seixas, 2000; VanSledright, 1998) have noted that attending to these challenges involves more than simply choosing between heritage and history. The presence and permanence of heritage pursuits cannot be denied. Students typically begin their formal instruction in school history having already been exposed to popular heritage legacies. And besides, it is our partisan values and personal interests, which often drive us to connect with the past in the first place. According to VanSledright (1998), human beings have an affinity for “those mythological legacies [that] bind us together into tribes with common inheritances and shared identities, no matter how distorted and fictional those legacies may be” (p. 247). In exploring *their* history, Sergio and his classmates were perhaps seeking connections to this type of heritage legacy.

Rather than trying to eliminate heritage and the desire to shape the story of the past for present-day purposes, the literature suggests that educators can limit its influences by recognizing what separates it from history (Kammen, 1997; Lowenthal,

1996; Seixas, 2000; VanSledright, 1998). History seeks genuine understanding about the past, rather than trying to make it better or worse by modern lights (Lowenthal, 1986).

The cognitive strategies historians employ, as well as the goals that inform their practices, set them apart from heritage fashioners. “History,” according to VanSledright (1998), “is about the application of rigorous method, about the counsel and judgment of peers, about exhaustive inquiry, and about attempts to overcome bias in reporting, however unsuccessful” (p. 244). Much of the historical method has to do with the way experts evaluate historical texts, what is often referred to as doing “source work” (VanSledright, 2004).

Historians begin by identifying what type of evidence they are examining and, therefore, what kinds of questions can be asked about the particular source (identification). Some of these questions revolve around who created it and for what purposes (sourcing or attribution). They attempt to understand the time period in which the text was produced, the geographical locale where its production took place, and the historical positionality of the creator. By situating the text in this way, the historian considers the role of a specific historical context in shaping its content and the perspectives taken (contextualization or judging perspective). In examining the evidentiary base on which an account rests, historians also assess its reliability in relation to competing source materials (reliability assessment or corroboration) (Stahl et al., 1996; VanSledright, 2004). Whereas heritage declares faith in a past that is not testable against the overall received picture of the documentary record; historical interpretations must conform to the available evidence and remain open to critical reappraisal.

It is evident that a disciplinary approach to learning history embodies the basic components of reflective thinking and inquiry. Students would participate in historical investigations in order to answer questions about the past. The process of constructing and understanding historical knowledge would center on a critical evaluation of evidence and the interpretation of source materials. Teachers would guide and support students as they engaged in discipline-specific strategic processes—for instance, identification, sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization—necessary for reading and evaluating historical texts. In other words, students would begin to think and act *like* historians. In the history education literature these epistemic and cognitive acts are broadly referred to as “historical thinking” (Bain, 2000; VanSledright, 2004; Wineberg, 2001).

As an extension of the progressives’ constructivist project and a vital part of the expanding literature on how people learn, research-based models of historical thinking offer the vision of a social studies classroom where students are equipped with powerful learning tools. While some of these tools are unique to the history domain, they are part of a larger inquiry-based toolkit designed to deepen knowledge-based understandings and enhance a range of critical thinking skills. Ideally, students experienced at gathering and corroborating evidence in the process of answering complex historical questions could leverage this same cognitive process while solving difficult contemporary problems. In the same vein, analyzing conflicting historical accounts becomes a pathway for making sense of the dizzying flow of information encountered in a digital age. Hawley and Valli (1999) note, “As we learn more about how students learn and insist that students master more complex knowledge and develop greater capabilities for problem solving, ‘teaching by telling’ is replaced (or should be replaced) by ‘teaching for understanding’” (p. 132).

History educators interested in “teaching for understanding,” in supporting the development of more powerful ideas and capacities on the part of their students, have a resource in research-based models of progression (see Lee & Shemilt, 2003). By attempting to map students’ developing ideas and understandings in the history domain, these models can be influential in shaping expectations for the teaching and learning of historical thinking. However, studies show that simply presenting students with multiple texts does not automatically trigger the growth of the conceptual or strategic knowledge associated with historical thinking (Stahl et al., 1996; Wineburg, 1991). Recall that most students tend to view historical narratives as authorless, unmediated accounts, which offer a clear window the past; and the heritage view most often afforded students in schools stresses the likeness of the past and present. As Lowenthal (1985) reminds us, the past is more like a “foreign country” and traveling there requires navigating tricky epistemological minefields and engaging in unnatural cognitive acts (Wineburg, 1991).

Merging a mediated view of learning forwarded by cognitive and cultural psychologists (see Bruner, 1962; Gardner, 1994; Vygotsky, 1978; Wineburg, 2001) with an understanding of the history domain opens up opportunities for teachers to assist young people in utilizing and internalizing powerful disciplinary tools (Bain, 2000). By faithfully attending to the disciplinary processes discussed above students would be encouraged to go beyond their existing base of knowledge and experience. So, while they are engaging with a distant past from a thoroughly imbedded social location in the present, students would need to be educated to consciously avoid invoking current identity politics and the imposition of twenty-first century values and perspectives in making judgments about the past (VanSledright, 1998). By opening all narratives read or

created in the space of the classroom to the critiques of the community of learners, each interpretation would be nudged toward, what Seixas (2000) calls, “epistemological humility” (pp. 28-29).

Even though historians are very much working in the shadow of the ideal proposed by Leopold von Ranke, postmodern theory has had the effect of unsettling the supposed ‘objectivity’ of disciplinary knowledge (Segall, 1999; Seixas, 2000). About the discipline of history von Ranke remarked, “It seeks only to show what actually happened” (in Wines, 1981). While historians aim to perform an objective, disinterested investigation, most would agree that impartiality is an elusive goal. In fact, historical narratives can be shaped by some of the same influences—presentism, bias, politics, and prejudice—critics believe are peculiar to heritage. The difference is that any history worth taking seriously, acknowledges the role of the historian’s positionality in the interpretive process. The primary challenge to history’s quest for objectivity lies in the nature of historical knowledge itself.

Researchers in the history education community have focused much attention on the epistemological fundamentalism that characterizes naïve thinking in the domain. According to Bain (2000), the first step in leading students of history (and their teachers) to more complex understandings of the discipline is “differentiating between history as a past event and history as an interpretive account” (p. 338). This proves to be a difficult task considering that young people are typically taught to find literal meanings in texts. Despite popular belief, VanSledright (2000) points out that there is no strict correspondence between what textbooks or other sources present as “truth” and what “really happened” in the past (p. 6). So, while thinking historically requires students to

be active, thoughtful, and critical readers of texts, it also demands that they step away from the texts they are reading in order to realize that they are not the *actual past*, but socially constructed arguments *about the past* (Segall, 1999; Seixas, 2000).

We have seen how “critical history,” broadly defined to include tenets of postmodernism and post-structural literary theory, has the effect of calling into question the positionality of the author of historical texts (see Barthes, 1986; Scott, 1997; Segall, 1999; Seixas, 2000). It may also be used to explore the relationship between reader and text. Since, as Segall (1999) notes, “history education does not engage in the real past but interpretations of the past in the form of texts” (p. 370), students may help to shape historical meanings as they interact with a variety of source materials. Hunsberger (1989) argues that meaning is never solely controlled by the text itself, rather textual meanings emerge during interactions with readers. And since every reader understands the text from their own unique social location, reading becomes a process of constructing multiple interpretations, as opposed to arriving at a single destination (or meaning). Referring to think-aloud protocols he did with high-school students, Wineburg (1991) noted that historical texts “may tell us more about those who read [them] than those who wrote them” (p. 508).

How do we lead students to view history as a process of constructing interpretations out of the residual evidence available to us in the present? And how do we cultivate an understanding of the role the historian and the reader play in the meaning making process? There are some practical ways research-practitioners have worked with their students to problematize the concept of history and the processes by which historical knowledge is produced and understood. Bain (2000) guides his students to “develop a

graphic record of their understanding of the discipline” (p. 339). His students use this concept map to locate classroom activities within a disciplinary frame. “It constantly reminds them,” reports Bain, that historical texts, broadly conceived, are products of a cognitive process involving investigation, selection, evaluation, interpretation, and thought” (p. 340). Similarly, VanSledright (2002) took his students through a step-by-step process for being what he called “good historical detectives” (p. 6). A chart of this process was posted in public view in order to assist students in practicing disciplinary methods and internalizing the domain’s epistemological orientations.

In the Vygotskian (1978) sense, building mental models of the discipline with students offers them the kind of “social assistance” necessary to cultivate historical thinking. Yet, it is worth asking if our efforts to problematize the concept of history will produce a model so messy that students will simply shrivel in their seats when asked to internalize its assumptions. And will our efforts to deconstruct historical narratives in the wake of the postmodern turn have a potentially destructive leveling effect? Will students simply throw their hands up in the air when asked to judge the evidentiary warrants of competing accounts, because they now understand all narratives to be “epistemologically equivalent” (Seixas, 2000, pp. 30-31)? Finally, will the conceptualizing grand narratives common to the collective memory approach be replaced by a “medley of nanonarratives” creating fundamental conflicts that cannot be resolved “for lack of a rule applicable to all conflicting parties” (Marshall, Sears, & Schubert, 2000, p. 168).

Summary

A disciplinary approach to learning history can acknowledge the epistemological critique of postmodern theory, while firmly grounding students in the methodological rules of the domain. It merges with a critical or transformative multicultural approach in its respect for “multiple historical perspectives” (Dimitriadis, 2000, p. 41) or “reciprocal history” (Cornbleth & Waugh, 1995, p. 197). Like the “Patterns of Change Model” for world history presented by Dunn (2000), a disciplinary approach also “advances the idea that social and spatial fields of inquiry should be open and fluid” (pp. 128). As Lowenthal (1996) explains, history is “an open inquiry into each and every past” (pp. 119-120). My classroom efforts reflect an interest in having students explore multiple historical perspectives and reciprocal relationships. Furthermore, I see the value of having students look for explanations of change in the interactions of specific peoples and places during particular time periods and to “connect [this] detailed knowledge...to larger frameworks of development and causation” (Dunn, 2000, p. 129).

Although it is difficult to completely ignore the traditional narrative structure of the SOL’s for modern world history, I believe students can be taught to “decipher knowledge” (King, 2004, pp. 363-364), that is to understand how it is constructed, by whom, and for what purposes. This kind of critical consciousness does not depend on an exclusive body of knowledge, nor does it rest on a set of established doctrines or a priori values. It does, however, demand a democratic openness, characteristic of Habermas’ “ideal speech situation” (see Grundy, 1987, p. 117) and Apple’s (1993) “common processes of participation” (p. 248). Instead of simply reproducing the narratives and values imbedded in the official curriculum, the teacher in this type of democratic

classroom would create the conditions necessary for students to develop the dispositions and skills to thoughtfully and responsibly understand, create, and critique their own and others interpretations of the past.

The idea of giving students access to powerful learning tools and carving out spaces for them to use those tools has its roots in both the critical theory and history education literature outlined above. Raising critical consciousness (Friere, 2001) and cultivating historical thinking (VanSledright, 2004) are not the same thing. However, together they can challenge the notion that historical knowledge is somehow objective and neutral. Acknowledging that historical texts reflect particular values, interests, and perspectives, is an important part of the *critical history pedagogy* I sketch out in the next chapter. Ideally, students immersed in such a program would also become self-conscious about the values, interests, and perspectives they, too, bring to bear on their readings of the past and the present.

Opening the channels of knowledge production and making that process transparent, does not presume that every narrative offered or position taken is as “good” as the next. That would amount to a dangerous relativism. However, this approach also rejects essentialist and foundational thinking about the “correct” values and “true” knowledge that must be imparted to young people in our schools (Cherryholmes, 1999). Historical knowledge, in this view, is open to continuous reinterpretation and reconstruction. Through their participation in the critical history pedagogy students will be invited to share in that process. Some have argued that these pragmatic concerns imply a lack of principle and a retreat from notion of using schools to promote what has

been referred to in the social studies and wider education community as the “common good” (see Apple, 1995; Barton & Levstik, 2004).

On the contrary, students who understand that historical texts do not appear magically from on high, might also be pressed to consider how the supposed “natural” order of society is actually created by people, on behalf of certain groups and against others (Freire, 2001). In this way, they may realize their capacity to be agents for positive change on behalf of the “common good.” In the history classroom that I am envisioning, students will not be asked to check their thoroughly imbedded positionalities at the door, nor will they be expected to refrain from making evaluative judgments about historical actors or taking clear moral stances on past events. However, I hope they will develop a respect for arguments that are properly grounded and a self-conscious attitude about the limits of their own and others’ claims. I believe students who are immersed in an open and democratic culture of inquiry and equipped with powerful disciplinary tools can responsibly travel the contested terrain of historical meaning making with a greater sense of their own efficacy.

CHAPTER 3

STUDENTS AS INVESTIAGTORS, TEACHERS AS RESEARCHERS: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

During the first few days of the 2010-11 school year I explored with my students the idea that we are all historical and cultural beings. They engaged in a series of activities—readings, questionnaires, and geography exercises designed to have them think about their academic identities, their cultural backgrounds, and their experiences with and connections to history (see Appendix A). I began, however, with a reading by one of my heroes, Congressman John Lewis (1998), as a way to introduce the concept of building in the classroom what he calls a “beloved community” (xv). Lewis’ discussion of his involvement in the civil rights movement provided a context for me to share a story about my own early schooling experiences. “Even though there were several local elementary schools close to our mostly white, middle class neighborhood,” I explained to my students, “my brothers and I boarded a school bus that took us to a predominantly working class, African-American community just outside of Washington, D.C.” At the time, we likely did not comprehend our role in busing plans aimed at desegregating the public schools in Prince George’s County, MD. I suspect that, unconsciously, our experience with “walkers” and “riders” was providing an early education about difference.

In relating this story I challenged my students to consider how they, too, are historical and cultural beings. Rather than remotely accessing “other people’s facts,” I wanted them to be personally invested in exploring the past, as well as their current

realities. On the same day, we read out loud a portion of a speech given by Jesse Jackson (in Hazen, 1992) shortly after the Los Angeles riots:

We all came on different boats. Some were captured for our labor, some were captivated by a vision of opportunity. We all have different histories, different dates to mourn and celebrate. We must have an appreciation for each other's history, and learn to live together in one big boat. (p.148)

Students then spent some time mapping out their own cultural geographies in an exercise I call "Citizen of the World" (see Appendix B).

Taken together, these opening exercises serve as an invitation to students. They also provide me with opportunities to get to know my students and help make transparent a key component of my educational philosophy, borrowed here from Freire (1998): "As a strictly human experience, I could never see education as something cold, mental, merely technical, and without soul, where feelings, sensibility, desires, and dreams had no place." He continues, "In addition, I never saw educative practice as an experience that could be considered valid if it lacked rigor and intellectual discipline" (p. 29). I am reminded here of the importance of equipping students with intellectual tools that will guide their inquiries into the past, extend their thinking beyond their immediate experience, and deepen their understandings of history and themselves.

For several years now, I have placed the above quote by Freire in my course syllabus for modern world history. I give them this charge after our initial historiography unit: "Disorderly, fragmentary, malleable, history leaves room for diverse participation. The professionals cannot do it perfectly, so all can take a turn. They must. Everyone is obliged to...act like a historian" (Glassie, 1994, p. 966). I

also view the quotation as a challenge to myself. It is relatively easy to explode students' notions about the nature of historical knowledge in an exercise devoid of rich first-order narrative knowledge. I find it much more difficult to explore second-order concepts, like continuity and change, and to discipline student thinking when investigating context-specific historical episodes.

Finally, Stenhouse (in Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985) proves to be instructive as I think about my role as a teacher-researcher and my students' roles as investigators:

In teaching there is always a retaining of power as well as a conferring of power. Research-based teaching, conceived as enquiry-based teaching, shifts the balance of power towards the student. It is his own research or enquiry which gives the teacher the strength to do this. (p. 120)

I understand that responsibly giving students the power to investigate the past and to shape its meanings requires cultivating a respect for interpretations grounded in evidence, as well as fostering an understanding of the limits of our ability to know the past, without encouraging wholly subjective views of history. As a researcher, it means disciplining my own methods, while also respecting the adaptive expertise (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999; Bransford & Darling-Hammond, 2005) required of me as a teacher. Properly employed, this stance embraces responsiveness to the emerging needs of students as they interact with an inquiry-based curriculum and to the persistent, yet evolving, demands of the local context. Teacher-research, framed in this light, recognizes the importance of student learning, as well as the ongoing learning of the teacher, himself.

Introduction

The research and theory referenced in the preceding chapter suggest that young people in diverse contexts are capable of producing, understanding, and critiquing historical knowledge when these complex acts are systematically integrated into classroom instruction. Furthermore, it identifies compelling benefits associated with inviting students to “think historically,” including increased interest and motivation, the development of deeper understandings of the past and themselves, and an enhanced capacity to engage in inquiry-based strategies. This teacher research project will make transparent the ways my instructional pedagogy coheres with the “wise practices” (Yeager & Davis, 2005) discussed in the literature and explores how my students interacted with the structures I introduced.

By conceptualizing my teacher research study in this manner, I am not suggesting there will be a neat, unidirectional relationship between the research literature, my teaching, and my students’ learning. In other words, I am not simply engineering particular forms of learning to see what works in the history classroom. This view would ignore the multiple variables that may influence teaching and learning in the classroom, as well as the power relationships embedded therein. Instead, I am envisioning this intervention as a “flexibly adaptive instructional design” (Schwartz et al., 1999). So, while I am fully invested in exploring what students learn as a result of their involvement in historical investigations and their use of domain-specific tools and practices, I will also consider the role other contextual factors play in shaping the lived curriculum and mediating the knowledge construction process.

The Place of Teacher-Research among the Broad Traditions of Research

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) have noted that the forms of documentation and analysis used in teacher research are similar to the *methods* used in academic research; yet, as a *methodology* they view teacher research as “a radical alternative to traditional epistemologies of research on teaching” (xiii). Reflecting Dewey’s (2008) notion that teachers can be “adequately moved by their own independent intelligence” (p. 257), teacher research challenges some of the basic assumptions of research within both process-product, or positivist, and interpretive paradigms. Historically, there has been some reluctance to support research which grants teachers a central role in the process of generating knowledge about teaching and learning. One of the persistent charges is that practitioner research does not measure up to the standards of university-based scholarship because it lacks theoretical soundness, generalizability, and the kind of methodological rigor that warrants truth claims (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993). While teacher research is both methodologically similar to and different than the traditional research paradigms mentioned above, in the end, it may be more productive to view teacher research as a unique form of systematic inquiry into teaching and learning (*ibid.*).

Teacher research appears to be firmly situated within the broad parameters of the interpretive tradition. Interpretive researchers most often use qualitative and, sometimes, quantitative methods to provide descriptive accounts of phenomena in naturally occurring settings. Hiebert et al. (2002) offer an analysis of practitioner knowledge that parallels the thick descriptions characteristic of interpretive inquiries. Because it is grounded in the contexts in which teachers work, professional knowledge tends to be detailed, concrete, and specific. The context-specific nature of teacher research means that

practitioners are in a unique position to describe the complexity of classroom interactions and to develop rich portraits of practice.

Stake (2000) notes that, in studying context-specific cases, “the search for particularity competes with the search for generalizability” (p. 439). Yet, on the whole, interpretive inquiry values findings that are grounded in particular settings, even if there are clear expectations for generalizability to other cases and a commitment to theory-building. The particularity of individual cases does not necessarily limit the theoretical basis of teacher research. Consider the complexity of the knowledge base for teaching as conceptualized by Shulman (1986). His categories encompass knowledge of content, pedagogy, curriculum, learners and their characteristics, educational contexts, purposes and values and their philosophical and historical grounds. It makes sense that teachers are (always already) committed to an elaborate, if not explicit, set of beliefs and theoretical frameworks which not only direct their practices, but also influence the purposes and the analytic/interpretive leverage they bring to bear on their research (see Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Grundy, 1987). Furthermore, Kemmis and McTaggart (2000) speak to the potential of action research “to transform both the practitioners’ theories and practices and the theories and practices of others” in local settings” (p. 598).

Theoretical Framework

Even though historical and sociocultural perspectives point to deep structures that support the processes involved in social and cultural reproduction (Apple & Weis, 1983; Bowles & Gintis, 1976), I do not believe schools are predetermined sites of action. I see some room for teachers and students to intervene in these processes at the level of the

classroom. This belief is rooted in neo-Marxist theories of resistance (Freire, 2001), Deweyan pragmatism (1910/1991), and more recent articulations of critical pragmatism (Cherryholmes, 1999). For the purposes of my study, I hope to work with my students to push on the structure-agency relationship and to disrupt the momentum of current accountability reforms which primarily reflect the interests of a social efficiency framework (see Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Grundy, 1987; Kliebard, 1985; Zeichner, 1993). Specifically, I plan to mediate the potential influences of content standards and high-stakes assessments by framing and enacting a pedagogy that, in many ways, challenges conventional practice concerning the teaching and learning of history in diverse contexts.

Drawing on some of the key perspectives outlined in the literature review, as well as my own experiences teaching in the district over the past six years, I hope to move beyond the “global solutions” and “monolithic strategies” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. 63) associated with the current accountability regime. This involves employing research-based practices designed to engage and support students in the investigation of modern world history, with all of the interrelated cognitive acts that entails. Within a mediated model of learning (see Bruner, 1962; Vygotsky, 1978; Wineburg, 2001) the teacher plays a critical role in assisting novices as they utilize and internalize powerful disciplinary tools (Bain, 2000). Ideally, this movement toward expertise would allow young people to understand and create historical knowledge and not simply consume and reproduce others’ facts and stories about the past.

In many respects, these goals reflect key elements of action research in its classroom and participatory forms. However, in attempting to bring together broader macro-level analysis and local-level action to improve teaching and learning, I see my

study pointing toward emancipatory and critical outcomes and not simply practical ones (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000). As Kemmis and McTaggart (2000) explain, teacher-researchers come to view their practices “as located in particular material, social, and historical circumstances that produced (and reproduced) them” (p. 596). As such, they are in a potentially powerful position to transform these circumstances.

Transforming the curriculum for modern world history is at the heart of my action plan. With domain specific ideas and strategies not fully integrated in the state (and county) standards, I must, in the words of Bain (2005), “offer the intellectual and historical content necessary to provide meaning and coherence across discrete objectives” (p. 182). This involves cultivating my role as a “curriculum-instructional gatekeeper” (see Thornton, 1991) and developing the “adaptive expertise” (Bransford & Darling-Hammond, 2005) necessary to navigate a complex educational landscape. Meeting on that contested ground are me and my diverse students, the domain of history, research-based conceptions of wise practice, and an accountability reform movement dominated by technical interests, such as coverage and control. That this meeting takes place within an institutional context resistant to change requires the kind of professional judgment that might counter those socialization agents that reinforce the conservatism of practice (see Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007).

Curriculum Framework: A Critical History Pedagogy

The *critical history program* I am envisioning represents my efforts to create a unified pedagogical theory and system of practices (see Murrell, 2001). I am reminded by Stenhouse (in Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985) of the importance of “tight specification”

literature review to find common ground between them, that tension never really went away. I learned to borrow elements of each in crafting and implementing the instructional program, which is the focus of this study. For example, while the critical theory and multicultural education literature provided a valuable historical and sociological lens with which to understand the macro-level experiences of traditionally marginalized student populations, it did not offer as much in the way of a learning theory that could be productively employed in the history classroom. That I borrowed from the accumulating research on how young people learn history, as well as foundational readings in cultural psychology (e.g., Vygotsky, 1978) and pragmatism (e.g., Dewey, 1910).

Together, they framed the core principles and practices of the critical history pedagogy: (a) exploring students' prior knowledge of history (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), their academic and cultural identities (Ladson-Billings, 1994), and our relationship as historical and cultural beings (Tatum, 2000); (b) drawing on my students' cultural "funds of knowledge" (Moll & Gonzalez, 2004), as well as their personal experiences and vernacular histories (Bodnar, 1992), in the context of our investigations of world history; (c) developing an understanding of the nature of historical knowledge (Bain, 2000) and the cognitive strategies involved in its production (VanSledright, 2004; Wineburg, 2001); (d) Engaging in historical inquiry centered on asking questions (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), examining multiple sources and perspectives (Takaki, 1993; Dimitriadis, 2000), and developing evidence-based interpretations (VanSledright, 2002); and (e) introducing intellectual rigor and support systems designed to help students meet the high expectations set for them (Britt, et al, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994). These principles and

practices (also listed in Figure 3.2 below) guided my interactions with the formal curriculum and with my students. For my purposes, the theory and research that informed this critical history pedagogy offered more collectively than any one strand could provide alone.

Figure 3.2. Principles and practices of a critical history pedagogy

Critical History Pedagogy	a. Exploring students' prior conceptions of history (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), their academic and cultural identities (Ladson-Billings, 1994), and our relationship as historical and cultural beings (Tatum, 2000)
	b. Drawing on students' cultural "funds of knowledge" (Moll & Gonzalez, 2004), as well as their personal experiences and vernacular histories (Bodnar, 1992) in the context of investigating the past
	c. Developing an understanding of the nature of historical knowledge (Bain, 2000) and practicing the cognitive strategies involved in its production (VanSledright, 2004; Wineburg, 2001)
	d. Engaging in historical inquiry centered on asking questions (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), examining multiple historical sources and perspectives (Takaki, 1993; Dimitriadis, 2000), and developing evidence-based interpretations (VanSledright, 2002)
	e. Introducing intellectual rigor and support systems designed to help students meet the high expectations set for them (Britt, et al, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994)

In an effort to sketch out the design of the study and to establish clear links between my curriculum goals, my teaching practice, student learning, data collection, and my research questions, I created a detailed matrix for each unit of study in the modern world history course. Using the general chronological and narrative structure offered by the SOL's and informed by the research-based principles and practices of the *critical history pedagogy*, I listed key elements of the curriculum I planned to teach, including disciplinary concepts and strategies, affective goals connected to motivating students and

supporting them academically, as well as more generic reading and writing skills. Each unit was framed around a set of guiding questions that would focus our investigative work and the general instructional practices of an inquiry based model were outlined. Finally, I included specific scaffolds designed to assist students in learning the concepts and strategies associated with historical thinking and writing.

Much of the curriculum-instructional component of these matrices was taken from lesson plans and unit study guides developed over six years of teaching the modern world history curriculum. However, this was the first time I systematically sketched out the disciplinary tools and concepts I had been attempting to integrate into my instruction. The lengthy process of creating these preliminary matrices raised some important instructional and methodological issues which demanded my attention. In turn, it required me to be clearer about the purpose and rationale I was attaching to particular aspects of the curriculum design. I eventually created a set of revised matrices for those units that would become key data collection points in the research project. Appendix C includes an example of one of these revised matrices for a unit on the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters, as well as a data collection table for the entire study.

One of the concerns that surfaced during my efforts at “tight specification” (Stenhouse in Rudduck & Hopkins, 1985, pp. 58-59) related to the types of questions I had developed to guide our investigations of world history. Many of them were not historical questions at all, in the sense that they did not invite students to explore context-specific episodes from the past. Instead, they revolved around controversial contemporary issues, current political debates, and broad humanistic concerns. Initiating an historical investigation with these types of questions represents my efforts to interest

and engage students at the outset. They also offer a valuable access point to students' prior knowledge and conceptions. For example, at the beginning of the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters unit I typically ask students to examine their own and others' views on Christopher Columbus as a way to explore how the legacy of this controversial historical figure is alternately celebrated, lamented, and even ignored today.

In exploring conflicting contemporary accounts which present the legendary explorer as either a hero or a villain, I am beginning to ask my students the same questions we will ask about Columbus' log and oral histories about the spread of smallpox: Who produced them and for what purposes? How did the historical context impact what was written or said? In this way, I was introducing the idea that, like the conflict between Cortes' band of conquistadores and the Aztecs of Tenochtitlan, history is a battleground of competing stories, images, and ideas (see Kelly & VanSledright, 2005). In the end, I am much more concerned that they learn how to make sense of these conflicting accounts, even if the state exam requires that they simply memorize the names of European explorers and their New World exploits.

However, Dunn (2000) warns that without connecting these topical explorations to "the thick historical context of the times the result may be interesting sociological speculation," but it not good history (p. 129). With this in mind, I would have to center our investigative work and ground student understandings around "specific, carefully delineated historical situations" and their connections to larger patterns of change (*ibid.*). For the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters unit I settled on this situated question: The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the

Eastern and Western Hemisphere. Evaluate the results of the encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative?

In reviewing subsequent unit matrices I continued to distinguish between questions developed to engage and explore students' complex positionalities, rooted in culture, politics, and prior beliefs and experiences, and historical questions designed to focus and contextualize investigative source work. In future units students would: explore their views on human nature and the “best” form of government as an entry point to comparing political philosophies arising out of the Enlightenment period; debate whether nations are “real” or “imagined” communities in order to better understand the development of nationalism; problematize the unifying concept of progress as a first step in understanding the changes brought by the Industrial Revolution; and question what it means to be “civilized” as a way to explore the motives of historical figures during the Age of Imperialism.

A critical history pedagogy recognizes that student motivation and engagement may be increased if they are first invited to explore issues of personal significance and contemporary relevance before they are asked to investigate what many of them view as a distant past, one that is disconnected from their current realities. Furthermore, it acknowledges that students' prior conceptions, lived experiences, and cultural frames of reference are some of the raw materials from which new understandings are constructed. Surfacing and engaging these thoroughly positioned identities, however, was only the first step of the investigative model I was framing. Unit investigative questions would have to point students toward the substantive knowledge learning targets in the state curriculum and subsequent teacher presentations and source readings would have to

expose them to the “essential knowledge” (Virginia Board of Education, 2001a) outlined there.

Equipping students with a disciplinary toolkit was a critical step in moving them to create and understand knowledge, rather than simply acquire a prepackaged and sanitized list of facts or develop thoroughly subjective views on the past. Introducing multiple perspectives, in particular narratives that might run counter to what they were likely to find in their textbook, would certainly create interpretive conflicts that demanded resolution; but students would have to be taught a set of disciplinary criteria for making sense of differing accounts and an incomplete documentary record (Wineburg, 2001). I planned to use conceptual models to introduce students to the structure of the history domain and to the nature of historical knowledge (see Bain, 2000). Through teacher-guided practice, I would highlight the use of historical thinking strategies (VanSledright, 2004). After giving students opportunities to do source work on their own or in groups I would process their thinking and evolving understandings, help them make sense of the evidence, and direct them to develop interpretations of the unit investigative question.

Figure 3.3 contains a summary of the stages or steps of the investigative model I planned to implement in the focus units of the study. Each step in the investigative process reflects one or more elements of the critical history pedagogy outlined above. In the figure below, the principles and practices that correspond with a particular step in the instructional model are indicated by the same identifying letter used in Figure 3.2. Together, the *critical history pedagogy* and the corresponding *instructional model for historical investigations* form a unified conceptual framework which I utilized to

organize curriculum content, plan instruction, support inquiry based learning, and facilitate the development of expertise in historical thinking and writing (Donovan & Bransford, 2005).

Figure 3.3. Instructional model for historical investigations

Engage with controversy	Engage students by exploring controversial contemporary issues or topics of personal relevance (a, b)
Focus inquiry on a question	Provoke debate by focusing unit investigation around an arguable historical question (d)
Explore prior knowledge	Explore prior knowledge and conceptions related to first- and second-order ideas (a, b)
Build historical knowledge	Build context-specific background knowledge and relevant domain ideas (c)
Teacher guided practice	Support critical reading and analysis of multiple documents and conflicting accounts (d, e)
Independent investigation	Individuals or groups engage in source work around investigative question (d)
Make sense of the evidence	Support the organization of evidence and the development of written arguments (c, d, e)
Develop interpretations	Students develop interpretive essay responses to investigative question (d)
Provide feedback	Provide feedback to students on interpretive essays and offer opportunities for self-reflection (e)



Still, I realized that if I hoped to measure the progression of student learning as a result of an investigative approach to history, I needed to be clearer about which disciplinary tools I would specifically and consistently target over the course of the study. Using the research on historical thinking (VanSledright, 2004) and writing (Voss & Wiley, 2000), as well as practical knowledge borne out of previous attempts at implementing an investigative approach, I combined the lists of domain concepts and strategies outlined in each preliminary unit matrix into a single set of disciplinary tools that might be systematically integrated into classroom instruction across the span of the

academic year (see Figure 3.4 below). These benchmarks established reasonable expectations for student learning and helped shape the instruments I would use to assess the growth of historical thinking and writing (VanSledright, 2014).

Progression models (Lee & Ashby, 2005; Lee & Shemildt, 2003) also facilitated this element of the curriculum planning process. By mapping the development of learners' thinking in relation to historical concepts like evidence and accounts, these models encouraged me to think about how I might help students acquire more powerful disciplinary ideas from one unit to the next. Targeting specific elements of historical thinking (e.g., developing evidence-based interpretations, examining multiple perspectives, and assessing source status) within particular units suggests that historical cognition can be parsed into neat building blocks and that progression occurs in a lock-step sequence. The reality, of course, is that the cognitive acts associated with historical thinking are interconnected. Isolating them as I do in Figure 3.4 (below) represents my efforts at "tight specification" and, as such, does not demonstrate how these complex thought processes actually unfold.

The disciplinary work we do in the context of each unit will prepare students to investigate a question in modern world history, 1945-present, for a culminating historical investigation project at the end of the academic year. We have seen how students may privately maintain counter narratives on the past (see Epstein, 1998) and alternative ways of reading the contemporary world (see Friere, 2001). This culminating inquiry project (see Appendix D), which has been evolving since I first implemented it with Sergio and his classmates (see Kelly, 2006), is designed to draw on the "perspective advantage" of these potentially powerful social and epistemological critiques (King, 2004, pp. 364). As

mentioned earlier, it is not simply about motivating students by allowing them to explore a topic of their choice. And, I will reinforce to students, it is more than a typical research project that asks them to repeat the authoritative findings of others in encyclopedia-like fashion. Rather, it will require them draw from their experiences within a culture of inquiry by asking questions of personal and historical significance and answering those questions utilizing disciplinary tools and strategies learned over the course of the year.

Figure 3.4. Conceptual and strategic knowledge benchmarks

Conceptual ideas about the discipline of history	Strategic practices involved in “doing” history
RENAISSANCE (1st Quarter)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History is a constructed account based on residual evidence from the past <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Difference between history and past ○ Types of evidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Physical/written/oral ○ Generalizations are drawn from evidence, but have limits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constructing evidence-based written arguments in response to historical questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Use multiple accounts ○ Develop interpretations and acknowledge their limits (as seen in counter-arguments and conditional language) ○ Demonstrate understanding in relation to question asked
AGE OF EXPLORATION & GLOBAL ENCOUNTERS (2nd Quarter)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Historical accounts are written for particular purposes, from particular perspectives, and within particular contexts <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Primary v. secondary ○ Role of sociocultural influences ○ Traditional v. revisionist accounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognizing different sources and perspectives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Identify type of account and what can be asked of it ○ Recognize authorial perspective and purpose ○ Locate context of the source
INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION (3rd Quarter)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is in the nature of accounts to vary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Sources must be understood within the context in which they were created ○ Reliability is connected to the questions asked and assessed by comparison to other sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyzing sources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Contextualize evidence ○ Judge perspective ○ Corroborate evidence claims
WORLD WAR I (4th Quarter)	THROUGHOUT THE YEAR
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Models of historical change <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Multi-causal explanations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Contributing factors and immediate events ▪ Top-down v. bottom-up ○ Questioning progress as a unifying theme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Independent research skills <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Develop historical questions ○ Locate a range of sources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Stacks and online ▪ Credible databases and websites

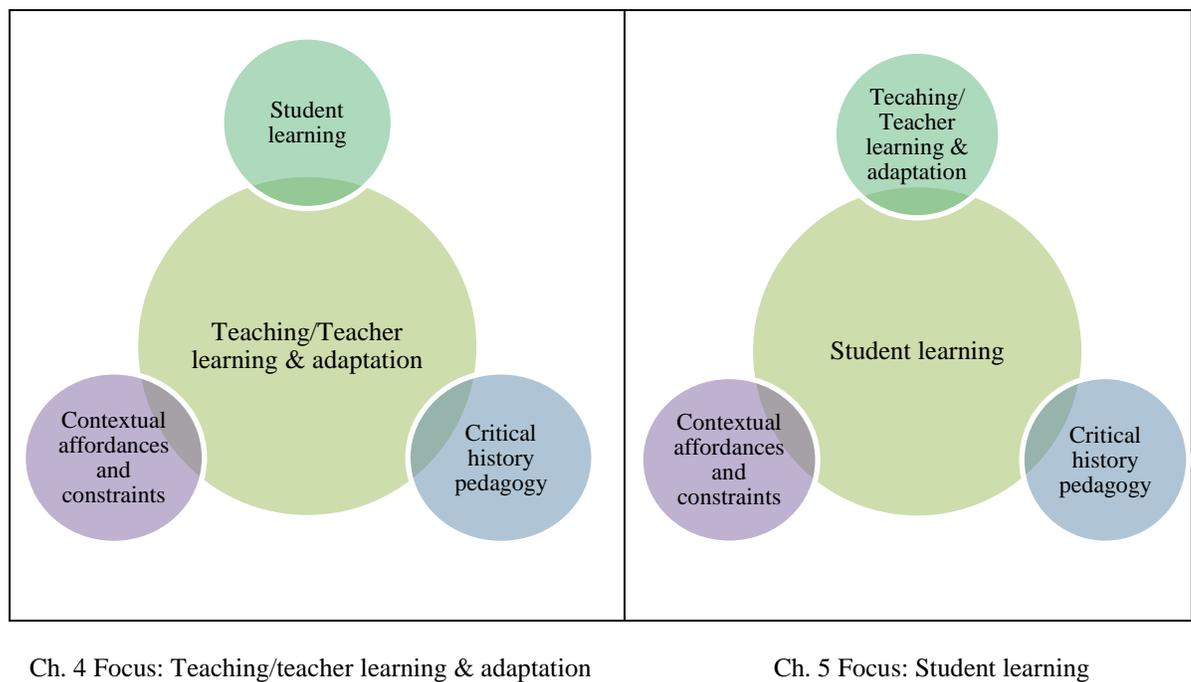
Method and Data Collection

Lincoln and Guba (2000) speak to the commensurability of particular research paradigms and the possibility of blending methodologies. I am framing my study as a teacher-research project making use of both descriptive quantitative and qualitative data. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) define teacher-research as “systematic, intentional inquiry carried out by teachers” (p. 7). My own study reflects this interest by undertaking an intentional and focused investigation of the research questions outlined in Chapter 1 and systematically analyzing the data that is generated. In their discussion educational research Cobb et al. (2003) point to the significance of studying both the process of learning *and* the means that are designed to support that learning, “including the affordances and constraints of material artifacts, teaching and learning practices, and policy levers” (p. 10). So, while I have designed the elements of a critical history pedagogy and documented its impact on student learning, I made an effort to cast my investigative net wider. In this way I was able to explore the role local contextual factors (the things I had not designed and, therefore, over which I had *less* control), especially the state curriculum and assessment, and even the student participants, play in the knowledge construction process.

My research questions were refined in order to distinguish “elements that [were] targets of investigation and those that [were] ancillary, accidental, or assumed as background conditions” (Cobb et al., 2003, p. 10). They clearly establish this as a study of *both teaching and learning*. The metaphor of “the lamp and the mirror,” provided by Johnston (2006), was influential in shaping my thinking about the figure-ground relationships that would focus data collection and shape the presentation of study findings. With “the lamp” I will shine a light on student learning. These results will be

figured in Chapter 5. “The mirror” directs my gaze inward. While I am certainly interested in exploring who I am as a teacher, I place more emphasis on examining *what I am learning* in the process of enacting an experimental curriculum and *how I adapt* to the evolving circumstances of a specific context. The pedagogical moves I make in relation to student learning outcomes and curriculum policy levers will be taken up in Chapter 4. Figure 3.5 highlights the figure-ground relationships that helped determine the format and focus of Chapters 4 and 5.

Figure 3.5. Figure-ground relationships focusing data collection/presentation of findings



Assessment Protocol

In order to “shine a light” on what students learn as a result of their interactions with the critical history pedagogy, I developed an assessment protocol that would measure the potential growth of historical thinking and understanding. Since my aim is

to create a rich “document-based learning environment” (see Brit, et al., 2000) in the history classroom, one where students work with multiple texts in order to conduct inquiries into the past, I reasoned that the assessment protocol should parallel these aims. Practically speaking, it made sense to map the primary data collection points onto the organizing structure of the course, mainly the individual units of study, and to analyze student learning trends over time. For each unit, I typically assign a cumulative test or project. These end-of-unit summative assessments became logical data points. However, I discovered that few of the assessments I had assigned in the past were exactly alike.

Some tasked students to critically read and analyze individual sources. Others asked students to make connections between primary source material and the broader themes and generalizations outlined in their textbooks and in class presentations. Still, others involved students in the production of creative, yet historically accurate and context relevant sources (for example, political cartoons or travel journals), coupled with an analysis of their own or a classmates’ creation. A few of the assessments required students to address the guiding investigative question of the unit in an evidence-based written argument.

Among these, one had students working with documents provided by the teacher (most of which were already examined during the unit under investigation). The other projects led students to locate and analyze source materials on their own with the support of the teacher. Even with these differences, there were at least two commonalities shared by the end-of-unit assessment tasks. Each involved students in source work and each required some level of analytic and/or argumentative writing as a way to extend students’ historical thinking and surface the level of their understanding.

Supporting the development of writing skills, in particular students' abilities to construct evidence-based arguments, has been an important instructional goal of mine since the early years of my teaching practice. Voss and Wiley (2000) have found that using multiple sources in combination with the writing of argumentative essays creates optimal learning conditions for maximizing cognitive processing and, thus, encouraging deeper historical understanding. Therefore, the intersection of practical, personal, and research-based considerations contributed to the creation of an interpretive essay assessment task centered on using multiple documents to answer the guiding investigative question.

In order to create parallel assessment tasks I set parameters for the number, type, and length of the documents, as well as for the nature of the question to be asked. Each interpretive essay task contained six documents, which included a combination of written texts and visual evidence. The written documents included a range of primary and secondary sources. There were two short excerpts (4-7 lines) and two longer sources (10-15 lines) in each document set. The visual evidence included period art pieces, diagrams, data tables, and maps. Of course, most of these "visual" sources contained some level of written text. In addition, each source was introduced by title, author, and date of publication. Ideally, students would use this information when citing sources and contextualizing evidence.

The question prompts, which were rooted in the historical context of the era under investigation, had enough tension in them to allow for reasonable arguments and counter-arguments. In turn, each document set contained conflicting accounts and multiple layers of evidence that tilted toward alternate explanations and, thus, demanded critical reading

and assessment. Except for the documents in the baseline assessment, most of the sources in the other interpretive essay tasks were ones we examined during the course of unit investigations. After all, I wanted to see what students could do as a result of the instructional support they were getting. However, I also wanted to include an appropriate level of challenge in the assessment task, in part to measure variability in the growth trajectories evidenced by unit-to-unit assessment scores. With this in mind, every document set included at least one source that was given only a cursory prior reading. Appendix E contains a sample interpretive essay task for the Renaissance, one of the focus units under investigation.

Interpretive essays were scored using a five category analytic rubric aligned with the conceptual and strategic knowledge benchmarks outlined in Figure 3.4. As part of my work on a research team doing evaluations of *Teaching American History* programs, I scored teacher-created essays using a similar rubric. The Historical Knowledge and Teaching Assessment (HKTA), which was central to that evaluation effort (see VanSledright, et al., 2006), informed the design of this instrument. Still, I was conscious to construct it in a way that specifically reflected my own pedagogical framework, the instructional supports I would put in place, and the language I was using to articulate student learning goals. For example, even though there is a range of helpful sourcing heuristics described in the literature, the language I use to describe the interrelated and interconnected cognitive acts involved in analyzing sources (e.g., origin, purpose, value, and limitations) was based on the International Baccalaureate Source Guide used in the advanced history classes at Hillendale.

The analytic rubric outlined in Figure 3.6 lays out several paths students may take in the process of constructing responses to any given interpretive essay task. As VanSledright (2014) notes, “scal[ing] a range of possible ways of performing in each category” and applying the rubric to student essays yields detailed evidence about student capacity to employ domain thinking and strategic practices of the kind targeted during historical investigations (p. 90). Each of the five categories is scaled with a range of 0 to 4. Individual scores within analytic categories will be added to produce a raw score out of 20 points. Average raw scores will be reported out by unit, along with average scores in relation to the 0-4 rubric. These quantitative measures should yield powerful descriptive data that evidence particular trajectories in relation to student learning.

Teacher-researcher memos written during the design phase of the study illustrate some of the methodological issues I encountered in the process of fine-tuning the analytic rubric (Journal, 7/10/10). After I developed a workable preliminary rubric, I grouped several ranges of raw scores to serve as reference points in applying a holistic reading to the essays. The parameters of these ranges are as follows: 20-17 = 4; 16-13 = 3; 2-8 = 2; 7-4 = 1; 3-0 = 0. For each score, 0 to 4, I adapted broad essay descriptions (see Appendix F) from the Historical Knowledge and Teaching Assessment (HKTA) that would guide my reading of interpretive essays from a gestalt perspective. Using a series of document-based essays completed by students in former world history classes, I tested whether the rubric could be applied consistently and the extent to which my gestalt or holistic readings of the essays were aligned with the analytic scores that were being produced.

Figure 3.6: Interpretive Essay Scoring Rubric

<p>Developing evidence-based interpretation using evidence from a range of documents provided in the assessment task and examined in class. <u>Note:</u> To score a 3 or a 4 the student must use at least one source provided in the assessment task.</p> <p>4 Student uses evidence from a range of documents (at least three sources) and cites sources consistently (at least twice) by title, author, or document number.</p> <p>3 Student uses documentary evidence (at least two sources); cites sources (at least once), but not consistently as in a 4.</p> <p>2 Student uses documentary evidence (at least two sources), but ignores sources not aligned to interpretation; does not make citations, as though generally unnecessary (authorless sources).</p> <p>1 Student uses limited evidence from the documents (at least one source); does not make citations; arrives at a narrow, simplistic interpretation.</p> <p>0 No mention of evidence as though documents were not read/did not exist; no interpretation is attempted.</p>
<p>Examining multiple perspectives in the process of developing an interpretation. <u>Note:</u> To score a 3 or a 4 direct comparison of sources must be made.</p> <p>4 Student compares/contrasts multiple sources and/or perspectives directly in the process of developing an interpretation of the historical question/prompt.</p> <p>3 Student compares/contrasts multiple sources and/or perspectives in the process of forming an interpretation, but not as consistently, clearly, or directly as in a 4.</p> <p>2 Student considers different sources/perspectives, but these comparisons are limited and indirect; some sources or perspectives are ignored.</p> <p>1 Student makes little or no attempt consider different sources/perspectives, resulting in a one-sided, simplistic interpretation.</p> <p>0 Student does not attempt to examine different sources/perspectives, as though they did not exist or because an interpretation was too difficult/not possible.</p>
<p>Analyzing sources, including assessing origin (identifying the author, type of source, and/or when/where the source was created) and evaluating purpose (why it was created, who the audience was, how the author’s position/perspective and/or the context may influence the source content), value (what the source says or shows and how it helps to answer the question), and/or limitations (what is left out of the source and/or why we may have reason to question its reliability). <u>Note:</u> A 2 score may begin to explore origin and value. To score a 3 or 4 the essay must go beyond identifying origin or value; rather it should explore how <i>who</i> they are or <i>when/why</i> they are writing might impact the content of the source.</p> <p>4 Student makes consistent assessments of source origin (at least twice), as well as direct evaluations of purpose, value, and/or limitations (at least twice) in the process of forming an interpretation.</p> <p>3 Student makes occasional assessments of source origin (1-2 times) and occasional evaluations of purpose, value, and/or limitations (1-2 times), but not as consistently or directly as in a 4.</p> <p>2 Student makes limited assessments of source origin (at least once) and/or indirect/limited evaluations of source purpose, value, and/or limitations (for source/s used in a narrow or “additive” interpretation).</p> <p>1 Student demonstrates little to no evidence of assessing source origin or evaluating purpose, value, or limitations, resulting in singular, unidirectional interpretation.</p> <p>0 Student does not question/discuss source origin, purpose, value, or limitations, as though it were unnecessary, or because interpretations based upon these evaluations were too difficult or impossible.</p>

<p><u>Demonstrating detailed and accurate content knowledge</u> (based on prior knowledge or historical accounts—e.g., textbook readings, documents, and teacher presentations—from the unit of study) to build proper historical context and structure an interpretation to the historical question/prompt.</p> <p>4 Student uses detailed and accurate content knowledge to build proper historical context (no presentism) and to structure a nuanced interpretation to the question/prompt.</p> <p>3 Student uses detailed and accurate content knowledge to build historical context (no presentism), but not as consistently as in a 4; interpretation has some depth, but lacks the contextual bounding and complexity of a 4.</p> <p>2 Student is limited in their use of detailed and accurate content knowledge (may include some inaccuracies or common lore); historical context is framed by mixing past and presentist perspectives; interpretation lacks depth and complexity.</p> <p>1 Student makes vague references that suggest very limited content knowledge and/or clear inaccuracies and use of common lore; primarily presentist (as though it happened yesterday) in its framing of historical context; narrative response is shallow and simplistic.</p> <p>0 No narrative response is attempted because interpretation is too difficult; if an attempt is made, the narrative reflects little to no knowledge of pertinent historical content and no bounding within historical context.</p>
<p><u>Organizing and presenting an argument</u> that fully addresses the question/prompt in order to communicate historical understandings that are well-developed and clear.</p> <p>4 Student establishes a clear thesis, presents evidence that supports the thesis, <i>and</i> fully addresses the question/prompt in order to communicate historical understandings that are well-developed and clear; structures writing in an organized, coherent fashion.</p> <p>3 Student establishes a thesis, presents evidence that supports thesis, and writes a well-organized and coherent essay; not as clear, consistent, or nuanced as in a 4.</p> <p>2 Student establishes a thesis and provides evidentiary supports that are fairly well-organized and consistent, but they either lack coherence or offer a limited (“listing” or “summary”) response, rather than an interpretation that fully addresses the prompt.</p> <p>1 Student attempts to structure their essay, but it lacks a clear thesis, consistent evidentiary support, and coherence.</p> <p>0 Student does not attempt to structure the essay in any meaningful way because interpretation is too difficult or impossible.</p>

Figure 3.6: Interpretive Essay Scoring Rubric (continued)

The original rubric underwent four revisions in the summer prior to the study (Journal, 7/16/10). Many of these changes were made in order to distinguish, for example, the sometimes subtle differences between two adjoining scores in an analytic category. In one particular instance, I holistically assessed two essays that were both in the middle range. Even though one of them offered a slightly more nuanced interpretation, I kept getting the same raw score for both essays when the analytic rubric

was applied. This prompted me to fine-tune the rubric to account for these slight differences (Journal, 7/11/10). In this way I hoped to better track individual student growth, as well as variation across the participant sample.

A final set of revisions was made in order to account for what seemed like inflated scores for developing an evidence-based interpretation (DEBI). In particular, some of the practice essays I scored were earning high marks for DEBI despite the fact that they did not draw from a single document in the assessment task itself. Others that borrowed testimony or evidence from two or more documents without making consistent citations were also getting 3 and 4 scores for DEBI. I tightened the parameters for DEBI in order to scale a wider range of performance paths. Students would be able to use documentary evidence not included in the assessment task, but would have to use at least one source from the task itself in order to score a 3 or a 4 in this analytic category. I also set specific numerical boundaries for what it meant to “consistently” use and cite source material. Although I was a bit uncomfortable with the increasing specificity and wordiness of category descriptions, I was confident the instrument could be applied consistently (Journal, 7/16/10).

The study design calls for a baseline assessment given in the first few weeks of the school year and four subsequent assessments given in the first, second, third, and fourth quarters, respectively. The growth trajectories of individual participants, groupings of students, and the study sample, as a whole, will be examined in Chapter 5. The changes described by both the qualitative and descriptive quantitative data will be mapped onto the teaching strategies and learning supports added, emphasized, or removed in the four focus units of the study. To this end, Chapter 4 will highlight the

pedagogical decisions I made during units on the Renaissance, Age of Exploration/Global Encounters, Industrial Revolution, and World War. Particular attention will be given to comparing scores in the first three units, which had a clear investigative focus, and the final unit on World War I. It was during this more conventional unit that most of the strategies and supports, which progressively scaffolded student learning in the investigative units, were taken away.

In addition to measuring strategic (or procedural) knowledge growth through the iterative essay tasks, assessments will also gauge student learning in relation to first-order (substantive) and second-order (conceptual) historical knowledge. I utilize what VanSledright (2014) refers to as “upside-down, weighted multiple-choice (WMC) items” designed to assess student understanding of procedural concepts and related cognitive strategies (pp. 58). I chose five conceptual knowledge items from a pool of questions created for the Historical Knowledge and Teaching Assessment (HKTA) to be included as part of the end-of unit assessments in the investigative focus units. Each was aligned with one or more of the procedural-concept benchmarks outlined in Figure 3.5.

Like the analytic rubric used to score the interpretive essay task, these items are scaled to reflect a range of possible ideas related to second-order and procedural domain knowledge. As such, they reflect an important assumption of progression models, mainly that young people at any age may exhibit a range of understandings and can be moved from weaker to stronger ideas (Lee & Shemildt, 2003). Figure 3.7 includes one of the conceptual knowledge items I included in the end-of-unit assessments. It reflects an important disciplinary concern that would resurface often during our inquiries into the past—locating historical actors (and the authors of accounts) within their historical

context. The scaled responses (a-d) are listed from the most to the least sophisticated understanding.

Figure 3.7. Sample conceptual knowledge item with scaled (0-4) responses

Think about how we have been “doing history” and complete the following prompt. The best advice you can give to someone who wants to understand the actions of a historical figure is:

- a. to understand those actions in the context of the period. (4)
- b. to consider the goals and intentions of this historical figure. (2)
- c. to become emotionally connected with the historical figure. (1)
- d. to accept the idea that doing so is impossible. (0)

According to VanSledright (2014), procedural-concept items may also assess “a type of epistemic thinking in history.” In fact, stronger domain ideas and more advanced strategic practices appear to be linked to “more powerful epistemic reasoning” (p. 64). Appropriating conceptual categories from recent studies on epistemic cognition in history (see Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004; Maggioni, VanSledright, & Alexander, 2009), the scores on the WMC’s (the remainder of which are in Appendix G) would be rationalized as follows. A 4 score reflects a criterialist position and includes a clear criterialist justification. In the sample case, below, it is a reference to the importance of contextual understanding. A 2 score may be compatible with a criterialist position, but it focuses on peripheral justifications. A 1 score is incompatible with a criterialist position and reflects a naïve realist or subjectivist stance. A 0 score reflects a response with a “common sense” or “common lore” appeal or is simply wrong. According to VanSledright (2014), “a 3-2-1-0 structure is also defensible” in designing WMC items, however, a 4-2-1-0 weighting structure establishes a sharper numerical distinction

between the most defensible response and those that do not reflect a criterialist position or justification (p. 59).

During work on the HKTA I spent some time creating scaled substantive knowledge items related to United States history; however, they lacked the global reach that would connect them to the world history curriculum. Although VanSledright's (2010) teacher protagonist, Becker, whipped up fourteen first-order WMC's in a single evening, I was hard pressed to find enough time to systematically construct and integrate such items into my end-of unit assessments. Frustrated, I primarily relied on the structure of "objective" assessments used in the past. Students answered approximately thirty standard multiple choice, matching, and true/false questions on each assessment (more or less depending on the depth of "essential knowledge" listed in the SOL's).

A comparison of the scores related to different dimensions of domain knowledge growth [see Research Question 3(b)] could provide interesting insights about student learning. However, the limited nature of the data drawn from the substantive and conceptual knowledge items made exploring the relationships between first-order results (measured as percentages), second-order results (WMC's with an individual range of 0-4 and a raw unit total of 20), and strategic knowledge scores (as evidenced by performance on the interpretive essay) a tentative process. I will discuss this limitation at more length in Chapter 6.

In addition to the proceeding data collection procedures, I planned to examine how my students did on the SOL exam relative to the students who took the modern world history course with me last year [see Research Question 3(c)]. I hoped the assessment protocol outlined above would yield data that demonstrated the *value added*

by an investigative approach. With this general comparison I aimed to show that the study participants could perform on the SOL exam *at least as well* as previous students who did not experience the inquiry-based intervention as it is outlined here. Several factors made this comparison untenable. These methodological concerns will be addressed in Chapter 6.

Even with these concerns, I recognize the value of descriptive quantitative data in providing a potentially powerful angle from which to assess and understand student learning. Considering the importance of triangulation and the more recently conceptualized criterion of crystallization (Janesick, 2000), these numerical “approximations” (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000, p. 600) of knowledge growth will be examined alongside a wide range of qualitative data. For example, classroom observer notes and interviews with primary informants may confirm or challenge emerging trends evidenced in the quantitative data. I now turn to the study participants and the procedures for collecting qualitative data.

Study Participants

I taught only one section of World History and Geography II in the year of the study. There were 28 students on my roster the first day of school, though by the end of the year 34 different students would spend at least some time in my classroom. No specific qualifications or characteristics were used to identify study participants beyond their enrollment in the class, their assent to participate, and their parent’s/guardian’s consent. In the end, twenty-five students agreed to participate in the study, with sixteen of them being present for each of the major data collection points. When doing descriptive analyses of assessment scores and evaluations of selected work samples, only

the data from these sixteen participants will be considered. However, data from the full range of study participants has been utilized for the purposes of analyzing recorded class sessions.

The cultural backgrounds of the twenty-five student participants reflect the racial and ethnic diversity of Hillendale High School. Eleven students were Latino, with five of these reporting Bolivian heritage and one each identifying as Guatemalan and Mexican. Seven students were Black, although only two described themselves as African-American. Even this descriptor does not acknowledge the mixed racial background of both of these students. Three of the Black students were East African, one was from West Africa, and one was from the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Five students were Asian, with three claiming Vietnamese origin, one acknowledging Filipino roots, and the other recently emigrating from South Korea. Finally, three students were White. Two of them were of European background and one was from the Middle East.

As has been shown in Chapter 1 and reinforced here, a statistical breakdown of ethnicity using traditional reporting categories obscures the truly international make-up of Hillendale's student population. Ten of the twenty-five study participants were born outside of the United States. Eight students said they spoke a language other than English at home and six reported using a combination of English and some other language with their families. Several students had received English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) support services from the county during their primary years and a few were currently at different levels of Hillendale's ESOL program. One of my students received Special Education services and two had 504 plans on file. Appendix H includes a matrix which identifies study participants by their pseudonym, cultural background, and

home language. The final column refers to some aspect of their self-reported academic identity, which I discuss in more depth in Ch. 4.

Six students were selected to be primary informants for the study. Selection criteria for this purposeful sample included: (1) representation of class demographics with regard to ethnicity, race, and gender; (2) representation of the range of performance and skills levels, as shown in self-reports, school records, and early work samples; and (3) willingness and availability to participate in interviews outside of class time. At times I focused data collection on the work samples of these primary informants as a way to manage the sheer volume of qualitative data I was analyzing. At other times I focused my attention on the full range of participant data in order to more accurately represent emerging trends.

I was able to conduct two semi-structured interviews (Anderson, Herr, & Nihlen, 1994) with each of the primary informants. The first round of interviews took place between December and January. During these 30-40 minute exchanges questions attempted to surface students' conceptions of history, their prior experiences with the school subject, and their initial reactions to the investigative learning experiences and assessment tasks. The second round of interviews took place between April and May and raised questions about self-assessed learning outcomes and the value of particular supports in facilitating growth. Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded and emerging themes explored in analytic memos (Bogdan & Biklin, 2003; Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Appendix I contains sample interview questions.

I spent more individual time with two of the students (Juan and Katrina) from this purposeful sample because they came to me after school to get help preparing for

interpretive essays and extended projects. The additional data gathered as a result of my interactions with all six of the principal informants allowed particular opportunities and challenges in the local context to be magnified. I allude to some of these contextual affordances and constraints (see Research Question 1) in my descriptions of the primary informants below. They are taken up in more depth in Chapter 4, where I focus on how I specifically assisted my diverse learners in their investigations of the past, how I adapted instruction to meet their evolving learning needs, and how I handled the pressures associated with a high stakes accountability climate.

Primary Informants

Juan Rios was one of these learners. He was a good natured young man and laid back in his classroom persona. He liked soccer and hoped to play on Hillendale's team the year following the study. As an older brother, he had a lot of responsibilities taking care of younger siblings when his parents were working. He admitted being inconsistent in the amount of effort he put into end-of-unit projects and interpretive essays. Juan reported similar work patterns in an adapted history class (for ESOL learners) in his freshman year. Juan had been receiving ESOL support in school since he arrived to the United States from Mexico at age nine. Read-aloud activities, done both in class and during after school help sessions, confirmed that one of Juan's biggest challenges was reading and understanding the sources I provided for the historical investigations.

Katrina Dyson was a dutiful student and, at times, a hard worker. If she found an assignment too difficult, however, she would shrink from the task. When I noticed this pattern on homework assignments I encouraged her to try and answer every question (both the recall and source analysis items) and, if stumped, to write me a note in the

margins indicating that she gave her best effort, but still was confused. I believe the closer relationship I established with Katrina as a result of being a principal informant impacted her effort and performance positively. She said in the first interview, “I think I am improving in history more than I was last year. I was struggling last year. I think I did well on the objective tests, but the essays were challenging. My writing was really off.” Katrina, whose father is African-American and mother Filipino, was a shy and tiny girl. After my second interview with her I wrote in a memo, “As she talked about her family background and connection to the Philippines, Katrina became excited. This is the most animated I’ve seen her all year.” I wondered how I could build off of this interest and excitement during the end-of-year independent historical investigation.

I met junior Abdul Matawassit at the start of his high school career when he was misplaced in my general education World History and Geography I class. This course for freshmen covers world history from prehistory to 1500. After a month he was moved to an adapted class for ESOL learners, many of whom were recent immigrants, like Abdul. He had come from the UAE a few years earlier. Although he was friendly and could be quite engaged, I occasionally had to wake him up during teacher presentations and group investigative tasks. Abdul was repeating World History and Geography II after failing the course last year (he did pass the corresponding SOL exam) and was taking a U.S. and Virginia History course concurrently.

Kyle Trung was a bright and funny young man who loved to be on stage. His favorite class was theatre arts and he had comical roles in the school’s two major productions the year of the study. Recordings of class sessions and group activities suggest that Kyle carried his acting into the history classroom. During a teacher-guided

investigation of why the Industrial Revolution began in England, I checked in with each group and then announced, “I like that you are marking up the sources. Don’t just fill this out like a worksheet.” In a sarcastic tone, Kevin quickly added, “Ladies and gentlemen, talk to the text” (Journal, 2/15/11). His “class clown” performances were usually relevant and subtle enough not to raise my ire, but I became frustrated that a student who could obviously parrot my teacher talk did not show any real change in his interpretive essay scores throughout the course of the study. He admitted putting very little effort into his core classes at home. When asked him why he does not do more homework or studying, he commented, “It’s just like procrastination or not wanting to deal with it. I like to believe that what I learned in class would be enough to help me do well on the tests, so I don’t go home and prepare.”

Veronica de la Paz was a conscientious student with a polite and respectful demeanor. She successfully completed all of her assignments and took advantage of every extra credit opportunity I offered in connection with preparing for unit interpretive essays. Even though she had a B test average, she was rewarded for her work ethic and typically had one of the highest numerical averages in the class each quarter. Born in Bolivia, Veronica received ESOL support during her primary years. In high school she began to challenge herself by taking advanced courses, one of which was Honors English. She remarked that there was some overlap in the skills she was learning there and in history class. For example, when I asked about her level of comfort reading and marking up the different texts we were examining she explained, “I’m practicing annotating in English and in [the college support program], as well.” This program is

designed to challenge and support students who are traditionally under-represented in post-secondary education and to increase their enrollment in four-year colleges.

Like her friend, Veronica, Ayana Gebremichael was also taking Honors English and participating in the college support program. Ayana was a mild-mannered young woman from Ethiopia. She was a good student, but did not have the same visible drive as some of the other high performing students in the class. When I asked her in the first interview about the workload for the course, she responded, “It’s not a lot of work, really [compared to my other classes]. I get lazy sometimes [with the homework].” When comparing the early writing she was doing for English to the interpretive essays I was assigning, she remarked, “It’s easier for me to write essays in this class than in English, because here I am learning all the stuff [that I need] and you are providing the documents. In English, we have to do our own research.” I was curious to see to what extent the progressive scaffolding I was trying to provide would actually support Ayana and her classmates when they were tasked to undertake historical research on their own.

Qualitative Data Collection Procedures

In addition to analyzing student learning data from the assessment tasks, I explored participants’ prior conceptions and developing disciplinary understandings through regular journal writing. This medium also proved to be an effective means of conducting informal student surveys and self-assessments. In reporting on their perceived strengths and weaknesses, as well providing me with feedback about how I might better support their learning, students were able to actively engage their evolving academic identities. These mechanisms helped me target the diversity of skill levels and

learning needs in the classroom. As formative assessments they were also examined in relation to other forms of data.

As a participant in the study, I carefully examined the artifacts emerging out of my own teaching practice and the local context, including lessons plans, instructional resources, assignment descriptions, disciplinary learning tools, curriculum guides, and state standards (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993). Following selected class sessions in the focus units of the study I wrote up field notes in order to document the types of learning experiences in which students were engaged. These write-ups also considered the nature of student interactions with those experiences, with me, and with each other. Field notes were coded and emerging themes explored in analytic memos (Bogdan & Biklin, 2003; Ryan & Bernard, 2000).

Being “in there with the kids” (Kobrin, 2004) on a daily basis certainly has advantages for the teacher as researcher. Closeness to the teaching and learning venture can lead to the kind of “thick descriptions” (Geertz, 1973) valued by qualitative researchers. Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) speak to this valuable aspect of insider knowledge: “Teacher researchers are uniquely positioned to provide a truly emic, or insider, perspective that makes visible the ways that students and teachers together construct knowledge and curriculum” (p. 43). Of course, teacher researchers face challenges when this perspective advantage turns myopic. We may become so immersed in the naturalistic setting we are investigating that it is difficult to “make the familiar strange” (Erikson, 1973, p. 10).

I hoped to overcome this potential challenge by video recording class sessions in order to view classroom interactions from a different vantage point. Since several parents

opted their children out of this portion of the data collection procedures, I decided to utilize audio recordings exclusively. I tape recorded both teacher guided lessons and small group investigative tasks. Recorded class sessions were transcribed and coded for analytic purposes.

I also enlisted the support of a social studies department colleague, Karen Braxton, to serve as a “critical friend” during the research process. She completed four observations, one in each of the focus units, completed field notes, and reported back her impressions during informal follow-up interviews. Appendix J includes sample interview questions, as well as a more targeted observational rubric I asked Karen to use when she observed investigative teams during the Industrial Revolution unit. This strategy was designed to provide the teacher researcher with a different perspective on the issues under investigation and to check the “trustworthiness” or “fairness” of emerging interpretations (Anderson, Herr, & Nihlen, 1994, p. 27; Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p. 180).

In preparing for the study I was conscious of the challenges associated with teacher research. Balancing the responsibilities of a full teaching load, including preparing for three separate courses in the department, with the demands of a methodologically rigorous research project proved difficult. While this inquiry lasted for an entire academic year, it was more or less focused during different units so as to make data collection and analysis manageable. Ongoing analysis and reflection, an essential part of the action research spiral, allowed me to keep track of emerging themes and questions, even during non-focus units. These developments were documented in a regularly updated research journal (Anderson, Herr, & Nihlen, 1994). When I was

pressed for time, I recorded field note-like impressions or analytic updates on a handheld device, transcribing and coding when time permitted.

Conclusion

The methods and data collection procedures discussed in this chapter represent my efforts at “systematic, intentional inquiry” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, p. 7). Teacher-research studies are not without limitations, but they do spring from the idea that teachers can be “adequately moved by their own ideas and intelligence” (Dewey, 1904, p. 16). Recognizing these limits (the details of which will be discussed in Chapter 6) and the context specific nature of qualitative research, nudges the teacher-researcher to develop findings that are tentative and humble.

And yet, I am envisioning my teacher research as pushing on the boundaries of local and public knowledge. There are ways in which it is both practical and theoretical. And I believe it has the potential to merge the personal with the political. This “call to action,” which is central to action research, separates it from a positivist orientation and more traditional conceptions of interpretivism. It is at this juncture that action research connects with critical theory (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). By affirming and raising the status of the professional knowledge generated by teachers, practitioner research has the potential to upset the comfortable notion that only outside experts can direct the improvement of practice. However, if the work of teacher-researchers is to have any currency in the wider debates about history education reform, it must attend to issues of methodological rigor.

CHAPTER 4

DOCUMENTING A CRITICAL HISTORY PEDAGOGY: AFFORDANCES, CONTSTRAINTS, TEACHER LEARNING, AND ADAPTATION

It was October 7, a Thursday, and I had been working with my 10th grade world history students for a month. The newness of the school year was fading, replaced by familiar routines in Room 214. My G9 (Green Day, Period 9) students, who I met with on alternating days, still had to be reminded to pick up the daily handouts on their way into the classroom, turn in the previous night's homework, write down the new homework assignment, and to set up their journals for the day's opening activity. Settling twenty-eight teenagers into their last period class could be a challenge on any day, but with the long Columbus Day weekend approaching the students were especially reluctant to get started. One window shade in the classroom, broken for years, was pulled all the way down. It concealed the view of the modest single-family homes that ran parallel to the west wing of the main building. From the other window you could see an autumn wind sending fall foliage sailing around the sprawling campus of Hillendale High School. I imagined my students thoughts were drifting, too, and not with the European explorers we would begin to study in our next unit (Journal, 10/7/10).

Even though we were in the midst of examining the causes and outcomes of the Protestant Reformation, I saw an opportunity to set up the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters unit and to engage my students by encouraging them to connect the current politics surrounding the Columbus Day holiday to the historical events we would study. Drawing their attention to the agenda written on the left corner of the whiteboard, I

pointed to the homework prompt that read “Columbus Watch” and announced: “Over the weekend, your homework is to keep a log of where and how you encounter Christopher Columbus. When you come in on Tuesday I’ll ask you to journal about things you saw or heard or experienced that were connected to Columbus.” After answering a few clarification questions and quelling student complaints about having to do homework over the holiday weekend, I began to review the Reformation in England, comparing the motives of Henry VIII to those of reformers, like Martin Luther and John Calvin (Journal, 10/7/13).

That afternoon I looked at my agenda book and made some slight adjustments to my lesson plans for the coming week. I was excited about Tuesday’s discussion, when students would share their log entries from the “Columbus Watch” exercise. I was also aware, though, that I still had to introduce a significant amount of content to my students in order to wrap up the Reformation unit. In fact, the remainder of this “essential knowledge” took up almost four pages in the state’s curriculum framework and included: Elizabeth I’s role in solidifying the power of the Anglican Church, while practicing tolerance; the Thirty Year’s War as an example of the deadly clashes between Protestants and Catholics; Cardinal Richelieu’s role in shifting the focus of this war from a religious to a political conflict; the changes and reforms initiated by the Catholic or Counter Reformation and, finally, the long term impact of the Reformation (VDOE, 2008a). What warranted particular attention were the highlighted changes to the standards. Although these changes were introduced in 2008, this would be the first year they would be reflected in the content of the SOL exam.

With the end of the first quarter a few weeks away, here I was facing a familiar quandary: how do I “cover” an expansive curriculum while also introducing history domain ideas and concepts and giving my students opportunities to actively investigate the past. My walk down the social studies hallway on Friday confirmed what, I anticipated at the outset of the study, would be one of the most stubborn constraints on my practice—time. As I peered into my colleagues’ classrooms to reflect on the week, I noticed from notes or agendas on their boards that many of my fellow World History and Geography II teachers were already one or two units ahead of me. It was common knowledge that I traditionally lagged behind my teammates when it came to the curriculum pacing guide. Department meetings and collaborative work sessions with my teaching peers reinforced the feeling that my students and I were falling behind.

Still, aside from this observation in my research journal (Journal, 10/8/10), coverage demands and the pressure associated with limited time do not begin to dominate the content of my journal entries until March and April (Journal, 3/10/11, 3/24/11 and 4/8/11), when the immediacy of the June SOL exam is more apparent and my concerns about it more pressing. However, early analytic memos (Journal, 11/24/10) suggest that the kind of polarized portraits detailed in the opening vignette of Chapter 1 are also surfacing in the data collected for this study. What appears to be emerging is the picture of a hybrid course—some units are purposefully investigative in nature, while others are decidedly conventional with regard to teaching methods and learning structures.

For example, my lesson plans indicate that on October 14th I gave a quick Power Point presentation on the role and impact of the Council of Trent, the Society of Jesus

(Jesuits), and the Inquisition in order to prepare students for a fill-in-the blank and short answer test on the Reformation. A week later I was introducing a source analysis guide designed to support students in critically reading the range of documents we would examine during our Columbian Exchange investigation. With seafaring on my mind, the tug of competing goals reminded me of a caravel being tossed about at sea. My students and I were on that ship and it had set sail!

Introduction

In Chapter 3, I outlined the principles and practices of what I called a critical history pedagogy (see Figure 3.2) and the component steps of an instructional model which reflected its purposes and goals (see Figure 3.3). This chapter is designed to document how that pedagogical framework was enacted in a specific school and classroom context. While opportunities presented themselves in the process of trying to do so, more often I met challenges which required reflection and adaptation. The model for historical investigations remained relatively consistent across the focus units of the study. However, as my students interacted with the learning structures and disciplinary tools designed to progressively scaffold the investigative process, we sometimes reached dead ends and often had to take detours. During these moments I carefully watched and listened to my novices (and often reflected back on the research literature) to determine what I might do next to support them in doing history's difficult analytical and interpretive work.

This process of “reaching in” and “reaching out” (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000, p. 598) characterized much of my own learning during the study. So, while the data

presented here will primarily answer the first two research questions outlined in Chapter 1, it will also target my developing understanding of a disciplinary approach to instruction, learning, and assessment:

1. What are the specific affordances and challenges for me in using an inquiry approach with diverse students in a high stakes accountability climate?

Specifically, how do I navigate the pressure to prepare diverse students for success on the SOL exam, while also using that general curriculum framework to engage them in investigations of the past?

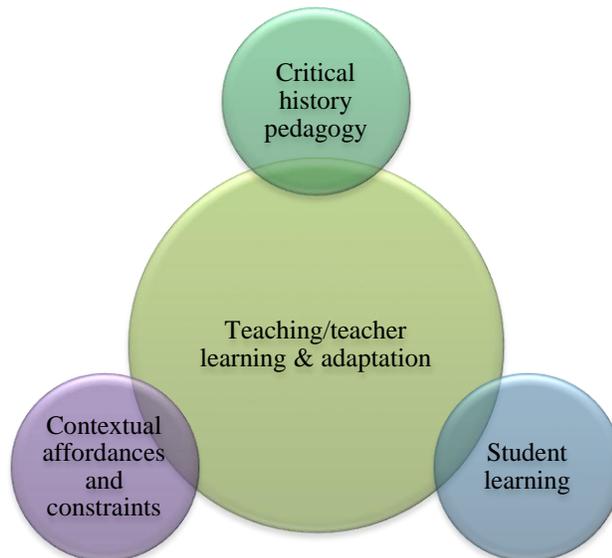
2. How will I engage and support students, especially those learners outside of the cultural mainstream, in using the cognitive tools of the discipline (defined as thinking historically and developing/demonstrating deeper historical understandings)?

To the extent that classroom discourse and illustrative examples of student thinking help to frame the teaching practices discussed below, the third research question—How will the full range of student participants interact with the instructional activities I create and what will the outcomes of these interactions be?—will also be explored here, but as a background concern. A detailed analysis of student learning data will be presented in Chapters 5.

Addressing these questions in the way that I do assumes a figure-ground relationship whereby my teaching and, by extension, my own learning are foregrounded in this chapter (see Figure 4.1). In framing and enacting the critical history pedagogy, I drew on the collective expertise of theorists and researchers in the fields of history education and critical multiculturalism, as well as years of reflective practice. Unlike a

traditional intervention study, however, my teaching did not simply unfold along the classic lines of expertise. While I certainly implemented an experimental curriculum and evaluated its impact on student learning, I also adapted my instruction to the learning that I observed and to the contextual constraints my students and I experienced. This “flexibly adaptive instructional design” (see Schwartz et al., 1999), highlights the role of the teacher-researcher in this dialectic process.

Figure 4.1. Figure-ground relationship focusing the presentation of findings in Chapter 4



Early Challenges Emerging out of the Local Context

Twenty-eight students filed into my G9 World History and Geography II class on September 7, the first day of the new school year. The course is designed for tenth-graders, but there were four students in the eleventh grade and one twelfth-grader assigned to my class. As in most years, the first two weeks was chaotic with a significant number of changes to my class roster due to leveling of class sizes, schedule adjustments,

and late enrollments. With new arrivals joining the class throughout the year, there were times when my class size exceeded the capped limit of twenty-eight. In the end, these additions were balanced by students who left before the end of the school year. The level of transience outlined above is typical at Hillendale, whose mobility rates, we have seen, are much higher than the district average.

This movement of students in and out of the classroom was compounded by a high rate of absenteeism in my G9 class, which was a reflection of school-wide attendance rates. My teacher researcher journal is littered with remarks about the difficulties associated with these classroom interruptions (Journal, February, 2011). They seemed to be particularly intense during the Industrial Revolution unit, when I had hoped to “let go” some and allow emerging class leaders to guide their peers through the investigative process. An analysis of recorded class sessions uncovered a particular moment when “[the teacher] was visibly and audibly frustrated with absences” and the negative impact they were having on building consistency and momentum during this extended historical investigation (Journal, 2/15/11). That same week I had to handle a cheating incident, a verbal confrontation between two girls in the classroom, the arrival of a new male student (who within two days I had sent to the school security team for violations of our gang attire policy), and the departure of two female students.

One of these girls was withdrawn from the school because of truancy and encouraged to pursue her Graduate Equivalency Diploma (GED). The other, Kris Murphy, had her own share of disciplinary issues at the school, but I felt I had developed a good rapport with her and had recently tapped her to lead one of the student investigative groups. I recognized that she was “a loose cannon, but [that she] adds a

dynamic that enlivens class and facilitates discussion” (Journal, 2/11/11). I was hoping to capitalize on these strengths. When I received word that she was transferring schools, I noted in a memo, “I’m disappointed about Kris...she was making great strides and developing into a real leader” (Journal, 2/15/11). During this same turbulent week, however, I was beginning to see evidence that some students were internalizing the sourcing heuristic I introduced as they critically assessed the status of sources from the industrial era. These episodes reminded me that the “high hopes of an historical investigation are necessarily impacted by the realities of teaching teenagers at a place like Hillendale” (Journal, 2/24/11).

The start of school activities that I discuss in the opening vignette of Chapter 3 (see Appendices A and B) were designed to explore with my students aspects of their personal, cultural, and academic identities. Some of their questionnaire responses are included in Appendix H. Of particular interest to me was the number of students who reported negative experiences in previous history courses or who expressed concern about doing poorly in this class. These academic concerns centered on anxieties about taking summative tests and/or writing essays. Since writing evidence-based historical essays would be a major focus of both my teaching and research, I quietly worried that some of my students lacked the basic skills to successfully complete the first document-based interpretive essay on the Renaissance.

That same week Juan, an ESOL student who was in an adapted history class the previous year, worried out loud, “What if I fail this test?” I assured him that I would continue to support him in class and after school, if necessary. In a follow-up memo, I wondered, “Am I crafting my teaching and expectations to fit the assessment protocol

rather than where my students are now?” (Journal, 9/29/10). As will be documented later, similar concerns about the appropriate level of challenge surfaced throughout the study.

For now, I hoped the gradual introduction of domain ideas and disciplinary tools would support the incremental growth of historical thinking on the part of my students and facilitate historical understanding, without causing them to shrivel in their seats in the face of conflicting evidence or to feel defeated if they struggled to develop evidence-based interpretations using multiple sources. We will see in the next chapter that some of the students, like Juan, struggled mightily. The challenges associated with teaching traditionally low performing and potentially marginalized students reminded me of the “Sergio Dilemma” discussed at length in Chapter 2.

However, one trend I recognized and made note of in an analytic memo is that the early emphasis I placed on my students’ racial and ethnic backgrounds as a potential factor shaping their experiences and interactions with the history curriculum faded as the year progressed (Journal, 4/12/11). The critical theory and multicultural education research which I wrestled with in my literature review seemed to offer less analytic leverage on the challenges my students and I were facing. What took center stage were my students’ personalities, their academic attitudes and skills, and their developing ideas about history. We have seen how these aspects of a student’s identity may intersect in clear ways with their race or ethnicity (see Epstein, 1998; Fordham, 1996; Murrell, 2001). However, because I was inviting them into a “community of practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991) centered on history’s disciplinary norms, these normative practices were privileged and elevated in the course of carrying out investigations of world history, not

my students' race or ethnicity. Yet, in accessing their existing domain ideas and engaging these preconceptions, I was merging a disciplinary focus with elements of a learner-centered classroom environment (Donavan & Bransford, 2005).

Surfacing Prior Understandings: Student Views of History

In our second class I asked students to respond in writing to the following questions in order to explore their ideas about history and their experiences with the subject in school: What is history? Why do we learn history in school? What is your attitude toward and experiences with history? How do we learn about history? This became the first entry in their journal books. Student responses were read, analyzed and coded. Analytic categories were created and responses tallied for the nineteen participants (N=19) who turned in journal books at the end of the year. The results are included in four separate charts below (see Figure 4-2a-d). If a participant clearly articulated more than one response to a single prompt, each response was tallied separately. In these cases there are more than 19 responses for the question. In the text surrounding each chart, I give particular attention to the responses of the principal informants. I also include samples from other students whose responses either follow these trend lines or stand out as exceptions. In her journal, Katrina explained that “history is the past events that [have] occurred.” Similarly, Veronica offered the idea that “history is a list of events that happened long ago.” These familiar responses echoed the refrain of young people in many history education studies (e.g., Bain, 2000; VanSledright, 2000) and served as a charge to me as I thought about my opening historiography unit. I would need to help my students differentiate between “history as a

past event and history as an interpretive account” (Bain, 2000, p. 338). However, as Lee and Ashby (2000) demonstrate, there may be significant variance in students’ domain ideas in any age group. The results from my students’ journal entries bear this out.

Table 4.2a: Student Journal Responses—What is history?

Question: What is history?	Frequency
History is the past or events that happened in the past.	12
History includes important information or the most significant events.	3
History is a tool for understanding the present.	3
History is a story.	2
History is studying past events.	2

For example, Kyle provided a slightly nuanced definition: “History is the past and studying of important defining moments of the past.” Like the majority of his classmates, Kyle, equated history and the past, but also suggested there was selection involved in determining the most significant events and an active stance (“studying”) toward those events. In her response Ayana also added a layer of complexity, noting that “history is not just the past, but it is what has led us to this point in time.” She seemed to be indicating that history was a tool for understanding the present. Patricia wrote that “history is His story. It’s God’s story of time. It is the past and how we can learn from it.” Like Ayana’s definition, Patricia’s response seemed to suggest a connection between what history is and why we learn it in schools.

In responding specifically to that question Patricia expanded on the idea that “God’s story” provides lessons in morality. “The past tends to repeat itself,” she wrote, “therefore we can learn from it.” Three other students offered Santayana’s familiar rationale (see VanSledright, 1997). However, an even larger number of students indicated that history provides a foundation for understanding the present. For example, Bryan stated concisely: “To study history is to understand how things came to be.” Another student, Alex, phrased it differently. “History is the way to know ourselves.” This knowing was framed from national and cultural perspectives. He continued: “Every nation has its own history and nations are built on their history. If we don’t know the culture, it means there is no nation [to which] we belong.” Several other students included responses that reflected the common collective memory orientation (see Seixas, 2000). A few said history was about celebrating accomplishments and showing appreciation for what others have endured. These conceptions may be linked to social studies experiences that have more to do with heritage myths and patriotism than history (see Kammen, 1997; Lowenthal, 1996; VanSledright, 1998).

Four students indicated that we need to learn history because it is important, but only one offered a rationale explaining its significance. Abdul wrote: “We learn [history] in school for information and perhaps maybe one day in your life time you will get in a discussion about back then and if you know much, you will impress, but if not, you will feel lost.” Whether it is a powerful moral tale, a collection of trivia, or a tool for understanding the present, history for many of my students was something important that had to be learned. Many of them expressed the idea that it could provide benefits if its lessons were remembered and applied or its facts retrieved at the proper time. Not

surprisingly, memorization was a common element in student descriptions of their experiences with school history courses. This likely contributed to, what Bain (2000) has labeled, a mostly “static, formulaic vision of history” (p. 337).

Table 4.2b: Student Journal Responses—Why do we learn history in school?

Why do we learn history in school?	Frequency
It provides a basis for understanding the present.	5
We can learn from past mistakes and improve/progress.	4
It helps us to know ourselves (with nation or culture as framing group).	4
It is important or necessary.	4
We can appreciate and celebrate people/nations.	3
We can learn about different people/cultures.	2
It helps us to understand change over time.	2

There was a range of responses offered concerning student attitudes toward history and their experiences with the school subject. Seven students expressed overall positive attitudes toward history and/or shared positive school experiences. Of these, three respondents referred to history as one of their favorite classes. Four students reported overall negative attitudes and/or experiences in their journal entries. Two of them, including Katrina, called history their least favorite course. Several students linked their positive or negative attitudes with past performance. For example, Jessica, noted: “My attitude toward history is not so good. I don’t hate history, but in most of my classes I’ve had bad, almost failing, grades.” In his response, Bryan coupled his positive attitude

with positive performance: “I have enjoyed history since middle school and have mostly excelled at it.”

This coupling contains a sensible logic. Students may like courses that they traditionally do well in, which may increase motivation and facilitate further success. So, one of my key challenges was to present an investigative approach in a way that did not discourage students with poor performance and low grades in the past. Donovan and Bransford (2005) suggest presenting students with “just-manageable difficulties—challenging enough to maintain engagement and yet not so challenging as to lead to discouragement” (p. 14). I struggled to find this balance in working with students, like Juan and Katrina.

Table 4.2c: Student Journal Responses—What is your attitude toward/experience with history?

What is your attitude toward and experiences with history?	Frequency
Overall positive attitude and/or experiences	7
Overall positive attitude toward the subject, but negative experiences with learning history in school.	5
Overall negative attitude and/or experience	4
Generally indifferent	3

The most interesting responses came from those students who acknowledged enjoying the subject, but followed up with negative remarks about some aspect of their past classroom experiences. Veronica explained, “I thought [my freshman year history

course] was fun and interesting. The bad thing was that there were too many things to learn.” Ayana provided a similar response: “I like history, I like learning it, but I hate having to memorize things in history. So, basically I like history, but not the class.” Cynthia commented that “history is an interesting subject, [but] sometimes it’s just so boring because it does not relate to me.” Again, I was reminded of the “Sergio Dilemma” (see Kelly, 2006) and the common view of school history as “other people’s facts” (Holt, 1990). As we will see, I did provide opportunities for students, like Cynthia, to shape the cultural content of the curriculum so as to encourage connections to their own lives. However, mindful of my social studies methods instructor’s warnings about learning activities that produce “more heat than light” (see Kobrin, 1996 & 2004), I was reluctant to seriously consider Cynthia’s request to “make [the history course] fun like my last teacher did.”

Of the primary informants who responded to the final journal question (How do we learn history?), both Katrina and Ayana mention the central role played by teacher and textbook. Past teachers predictably used power point supported lectures as a primary method for delivering content. Interviews with participants echoed conventional classroom structures whereby students were seat bound listeners. Both Ayana and Veronica highlighted the role of archaeologists in gathering evidence, perhaps a reflection of the heavy focus on human remains and artifacts in the standards for the freshman world history course (prehistory to 1500). Few directly acknowledged the central role they could play in actively knowing history. The locus of knowledge production and the authority that legitimizes it, they seemed to be saying, was external to themselves.

This view did not prevent them from offering value judgments about these authorities of knowledge. For example, Patricia, like many of her classmates equated learning with faithful attention to her history teachers. “We listen to [them],” she wrote. “[But] I haven’t had interesting [classroom experiences], so it is hard for me to concentrate.” Jessica noted the role of textbooks deadening what otherwise might be a vibrant study: “We learn history like stories. Each epic battle, each mighty win and tragic fail[ure] told to us in some of the most boring ways. History is interesting, but the way the textbooks tell the story kills the beauty of history.”

Table 4.2d: Student Journal Responses—How do we learn history?

Conception: How do we learn history?	Tally
Teachers and/or teacher created materials (like power point presentations, class notes, etc.)	9
Textbooks	5
Documentaries and other history related shows (like <i>History Channel</i>)	5
Reading (with no specification as to the type of source)	3
Talking about the past (with no identification as to who is doing the talking).	3
Listening to people who experienced it.	2
Study it.	2
Archaeological findings	2

The opening journal activity exposed some of what my students already knew and thought about history. It reminded me that internal knowledge-based constraints,

reflected in the epistemic views of my novices and their conditioning in previous history courses, might prove more difficult to mediate than the external forces (Cornbleth, 2002; VanSledright & James, 2002) at work in the local context. Progression models (Lee & Ashby, 2005) and studies of epistemic cognition in history helped me situate my students' naïve realist beliefs (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004). Viewed through the lens of research on how young people learn history, I learned to view the data produced in these meta-cognitive exercises, not as roadblocks, but powerful road markers. They demonstrated to me the ideas, knowledge, skills, and attitudes from which new learning would have to be built (Donavan & Bransford, 2005).

Helping the students to (re)construct a new framework of domain ideas from that foundation, however, was not without its own challenges. I now turn to my attempts to scaffold student learning in the process of engaging them in investigations of the past. This means shifting the focus of the chapter to the particular supports I put in place to facilitate the growth of historical thinking and understanding. As such, this discussion fits within the purview of the second research question outlined above.

An Investigative Model, a Hybrid Course

Below I offer a sketch of my teaching practices during four major units of study. On the one hand, this broad sweep is intended to highlight what I have described as the hybrid nature of the course, whereby instruction seemed to vacillate between inquiry-based and more conventional approaches to teaching history. Additionally, though, it is designed to parallel the four post-baseline data collection points outlined in the study protocol. This generalized portrait will allow me to map student learning outcomes,

especially the end-of-unit interpretive essay results presented in Chapter 5, onto particular classroom learning structures and experiences. Data collection was most focused during the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters and the Industrial Revolution largely because the level of guidance and support provided to students by the teacher was most intense during these inquiry-based units of study. Classroom discourse from these units will frame many of the particular “stories” presented here. I do not outline every stage of the investigative model for each of the investigative focus units. However, where particular strategies or supports were elevated or minimized in a unit, I note that below.

An Introduction to Historiography...and the Pendulum Swings

My first attempt to extend my students’ domain understandings came in the opening week of school when I introduced to them a four step model of history and to the host of problems related to (re)constructing the past based on an evidence trail that is incomplete and on accounts that are fully partial (see Appendix K). Nested within the Renaissance unit, this brief introduction to historiography was designed to explode the comfortable notion that history, especially the seemingly unidirectional story told by authoritative sources, like their world history textbook, was equivalent to the actual past. Students took turns reading the outline I provided and I followed up with examples to illustrate the model’s main points, its pitfalls, and some methods for overcoming its inherent problems.

I had refined my handout and discussion points over the years in response to the pendulum swing in students’ domain reasoning I had observed in the past. Despite my attempts to debunk the simplistic notion that bias is a bad thing and to introduce, instead, the idea that it is in the nature of source accounts to vary, many of my students

constructed what VanSledright (2004) refers to as a “truth-lie dichotomy” (p. 232). They saw the job of the historical investigator as distinguishing between accounts that are telling the truth and those that have clearly been distorted. For example, in a follow-up exercise Kyle illustrated “The Nature of History” by drawing two people arguing over the veracity of a “history” book. One says demonstrably, “It’s fact.” The other figure responds, “Fake or bias!”

As I processed their reactions to the disciplinary model, I noted the coherence of their views with two representative ideas about accounts on the progression model offered by Lee and Ashby (2000): “the past as determining stories” and “the past as reported in a more or less biased way” (p. 212). In other words, many students were clinging to the idea that history and the past are the same thing, while others were embracing more a subjective view of historical knowledge. In a follow-up exercise, I tried to reveal further how they were making sense of the four-step model by asking them to connect it to John Henry Newman’s fable of the Man and the Lion (in Cahill, 1995). In explaining the moral of the fable, many of them appeared to be grappling with the implications of the two conceptual positions above. For Ayana “the lesson [was] not to be opinionated or biased.” She noted the potential problems associated with “mak[ing] conclusions based on one perspective.” The moral that Veronica gleaned: “History may not always be true. Even though the right steps may be followed, mistakes can be made.” Differences in accounts, according to these primary informants, were either the product of biased reporting or mistakes made during the investigative process.

Problematizing the nature of history in a deeply conceptual exercise devoid of first-order narrative knowledge may have raised more questions for my novices than it

answered. For some of my students, I believe the initial historiography lessons actually added momentum to the pendulum swing toward more relativist views. For those who felt compelled to excise bias, I wondered if they were seeking better correspondence between the past as it happened and the (hi)stories that are told about. Earlier in my professional career (see Kelly & VanSledright, 2005), I recognized my tendency to explore multiple perspectives and critique common narratives without offering the means to address the questions raised by such an approach (see Lee & Ashby, 2000). I wondered if my conceptualization of the discipline, as seen through the historiography lessons, reflected such an interest.

There was another group of students for whom understanding the literal meaning of the fable, not to mention decoding its subtext, proved challenging. Juan was one these students. He appeared more comfortable creating a visual representation of the different types of evidence (fossils, art, and written documents) “that historians look over now.” Giving him this creative outlet to make his understandings transparent and to reinforce domain ideas (and, we will see later, first-order knowledge) was important. These observations reinforced for me the importance of using of visual evidence with ESOL learners and other readers who have difficulty understanding difficult written documents. Of course, the lure of historical images, from portraits and engravings, to photographs and movies, presents its own set of problems. Part of the lure is the relative comfort with which students engage in image focused analytical work (Stout, 2004). Because of the perceived ease of access to the “truths” contained within, students sometimes view these types of sources as transparent windows on the past (see Seixas, 1994).

Katrina did not attempt the initial historiography assignment, indicating privately to me that she did not understand it. As noted in the previous chapter, this became a common theme. There were other students who also avoided the task. It took me time to accept the idea that some of the things I was asking them to do may have been outside the scope of “just manageable difficulties” (see Donovan & Bransford, 2005, p. 14). Given their performance on this task I wondered what would happen when I presented them with conflicting evidence. Would they throw their hands up and pronounce that we can’t know anything with certainty because accessing and understanding the past is too difficult? This shift from “the past as given” to “the past as inaccessible” is another example of the progression of students’ ideas described in the literature (see Ashby & Lee, 2000, p. 212).

I hoped these meta-cognitive learning activities would begin a conversation about domain ideas that would carry over into our investigation and more substantive study of the Renaissance. But it took time. As the opening vignette in this chapter demonstrates the perceived pressure associated with teaching to content based standards never really went away. Like the “essential knowledge” for the Protestant Reformation, the factual knowledge detailed in the state curriculum framework for the four focus units of the study is equally expansive (VDOE, 2008). And yet, we have seen how too much emphasis on this type of first-order knowledge, leaves little room to introduce a conceptual framework and strategic practices that might allow students to encounter, make sense of, and use historical content in more meaningful ways. And because it assumes that all students will digest these discrete objectives in the same way, it ignores what students already think and know.

Using Cultural Artifacts as Evidence: An Investigation of the Renaissance

I started the Renaissance unit by giving students a mock survey that asked them to explore how cultural artifacts from their life, specifically music, art, and literature, reflected their values and beliefs (see Appendix L.) After introducing the assignment, I distributed and discussed the unit guide, a tool I created to structure and support student learning throughout the unit. A similar guide is provided to students for each unit of study. They typically contain: (1) guiding questions, which frame the investigative focus for the entire unit and usually become the end-of-unit interpretive essay prompt; (2) essential questions/ideas, which link up to first-order curricular content; (3) a list of sources and historical evidence we will examine and which they will be expected to use in constructing their essay arguments; (d) key terms and concepts from the state curriculum guide, as well as additional 1st and 2nd order knowledge items I have selected; and (e) a list of textbook-based homework assignments for the unit. Figure 4.3 includes a facsimile of the Historiography and Renaissance unit guide.

I spent most of the remainder of the first day placing the Renaissance in its proper historical context in order to prepare students for the group investigations to come. Students viewed images and listened to me explain bulleted notes on a set of Power Point slides I created. They copied key ideas from the presentation on a premade outline. Students then created “playing cards,” each of which included a broad theme or generalization related to the Middle Ages or Renaissance. They decorated their cards with colors and images to match the generalizations from each time period. While they worked I alternately played medieval monastic chants and more secular lute music from the Renaissance, asking students “what feeling or mood is created by each piece of

music” and whether they thought it “fit” with the themes of the Middle Ages or with those of the Renaissance (Journal, 9/13/10).

With double-block classes (86 minutes), I purposely include a variety of learning activities and try not to spend more than thirty minutes on any one. Sensing that I had some time left for the next activity, I rushed into an evidence identification exercise designed to model what I hoped they would do in their investigative groups over the next two days. My primary goal was not to make the class “fun” or to tell better stories, though I observed early how direct teacher presentations and “games” were an important part of my toolkit, even during units centered on student investigations.

Students paired up with their playing cards and listened to me read aloud a set of primary source poems and songs from the Middle Ages and Renaissance. “Listen to the phrases and lyrics,” I explained. “Even if you don’t understand every word, try to get a feeling for what it’s saying...Choose the time period when you think the source was created, then chose the matching theme” (Journal, 9/13/10). After I finished reading an excerpt, students raced to put the appropriate card on the desk before their classmate. “Fair is youth and void of sorrow, yet hourly it flies away,” I read dramatically from the *Song of Lorenzo the Magnificent*. “Youths and maids enjoy today, naught ye know about tomorrow!” Many of the students correctly chose the Renaissance card marked, “Live fully in this world.” Others were still shuffling through their stack as I explained the meaning of the phrase, *carpe diem*. I then began to read a translated version of *De Contemptu Mundi (Contempt for the World)*, a Medieval Latin students’ song when the bell rang.

Figure 4.3. *Historiography and Renaissance Unit Guide*

<p><u>Unit Guiding Questions:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do we know about the Renaissance <u>and</u> how do we know what we know? Answering these questions ultimately involves asking: what is history, how do we investigate the past, and how do we make sense of evidence from the past? • How do art and literature from the Renaissance reflect the values and attitudes (e.g. humanism) of the time period? How do these values and attitudes compare to those of the Middle Ages? • To what extent was the Renaissance a “golden age” that ushered in new ideas and values to European society? 		
<p><u>Essential Questions/Ideas:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is history? How do historians study the past? What problems do we encounter when investigating the past? How do we attempt to overcome these problems? 2. Why do we study the past? What are our reasons for doing history? 3. What was the Renaissance? Where did it begin? Why did it begin there? How did it spread? 4. What were some significant artistic and literary works from the European Renaissance? 5. How did these works reflect changing ideas and values? 6. What was the role of the printing press during the Renaissance and Reformation? 		
<p><u>Sources and Historical Evidence:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ch. 17, Sections 1 and 2 • <i>The Fable of the Man and the Lion</i> • Quotes and packet: What is history? • All poems, songs, and works of literature in Renaissance packet • Notes on art and literature presentations by groups • Power point outline notes for Renaissance 		
<p><u>Geography:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Map of the Italian Renaissance (p. 405, old textbook) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Italian city-state & spread into northern Europe 		
<p><u>Key Terms and Concepts:</u></p>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Renaissance • humanism • secular • patron • Lorenzo de' Medici and Medici family • Renaissance Man (and Woman) • Francesco Petrarch • Niccolo Machievelli, <u>The Prince</u> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Baldassare Castiglione, <u>The Book of the Courtier</u> • Miguel de Cervantes, <u>Don Quixote</u>; Sancho Panza • William Shakespeare (plays and sonnets) • Erasmus, <u>The Praise of Folly</u> • Sir Thomas Moore, <u>Utopia</u> • Johann Gutenberg <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ moveable type • Leonardo da Vinci <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ <i>Mona Lisa</i> ◦ <i>Last Supper</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raphael <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ <i>School of Athens</i> • Michelangelo <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ <i>David</i> ◦ <i>Pieta</i> ◦ <i>Sistine Chapel</i> • Historiography • Types of evidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Written ◦ Physical ◦ oral history • Types of sources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • primary • secondary <p><u>Additional terms & concepts:</u></p>

Figure 4.3. *Historiography & Renaissance Unit Guide (continued)*

Unit Textbook Readings and Homework Questions:

A. Read: Ch. 17-1 (pp. 468-473). Answer the following questions/prompts in complete sentences:

1. Identify Renaissance: What does the word mean? Describe the movement and its focus.
2. Where did the Renaissance begin and why did it begin there?
3. Discuss three specific ways Renaissance scholars tried to revive the learning/culture of ancient Greece and Rome.
4. What was the significance of humanism?
5. What do we mean when we say that Renaissance society was secular? Did religion disappear? Explain!
6. How did patrons contribute to the growth of Renaissance culture? Who were some of the most influential patrons during the period?
7. Analyzing Art: Examine the *The Madonna of Chancellor Rolin* by Jan Van Eyck and the list of characteristics on the right. How does this artwork demonstrate that the Renaissance was a period of new ideas, but also a continuation of older ideas and practices?

B. Read: Ch. 17-1 (pp. 473-475; stop at *Renaissance Writers Change Literature*) and pp. 478-479 (on *History through Art*). Answer the following questions/prompts in complete sentences:

1. Source analysis: Read the background to and excerpt from Baldassare Castiglione's *Book of the Courtier*. What kind of source is this? How does Castiglione specifically describe the "Renaissance man" as a "universal man"?
2. Source analysis: Read the excerpt from Isabella D'Este's *Letters*. What kind of source is this? To whom is she writing? What is the purpose of her letter? Is she a typical woman from the Renaissance? Explain!
3. Analyzing art: How does Raphael use perspective in *Marriage of the Virgin* (1504) on p. 474? What is the effect of this artistic technique?
4. Analyzing art: View Leonardo's *Mona Lisa*, Michelangelo's *David*, and Raphael's *School of Athens* on pp. 478-479. Discuss one way that each of these works of art depicts (shows) the attitudes and beliefs of the Renaissance (for example, realism, humanism, and/or a focus on ancient Greece and Rome)?
5. Who was *Mona Lisa*? How does her identity connect to the idea of patronage?

C. Read: Ch. 17-1 (pp. 475-477) and Ch. 17-2 (pp. 480-483): Answer the following questions/prompts in complete sentences:

1. Define vernacular? Identify some of the vernacular languages that began to replace Latin? What was the impact of more written work being produced in vernacular languages?
2. Who was the "father of Renaissance humanism"? What was the subject of his sonnets?
3. Why did Machiavelli write *The Prince*? What is the purpose of the book?
4. Source analysis: Read the excerpt from *The Prince* on p. 476. What kind of source is this? Why does Machiavelli think it is better for a prince to be feared than to be loved by his people?
5. Where did Renaissance ideas spread by the late 1400's? How did these ideas spread?
6. What was the goal of Christian humanism?
7. Who were two well-known Christian humanists, what did they write, and what were these literary works about?
8. Source analysis: Read the excerpt from Shakespeare's *Hamlet*. Compare his view of man to Machiavelli's view of people.

D. Read: Ch. 17-2 (pp. 484-485) and pp 486-487 (on *City Life*). Answer the following questions/prompts in complete sentences:

1. Who was Johann Gutenberg and what did he accomplish?
2. Look at the changes in the arts and society on p. 485. In your view, which is most significant and why?
3. View the images and captions on *City Life in Renaissance Europe* (pp. 486-487).
 - (a) Which piece of information made the most sense given what you already knew about the Renaissance?
 - (b) Which piece of information was most surprising? Explain!

In the next class, we did a few more rounds of the evidence identification “game” before students were divided into six groups, each tasked to research a different work of art. I hoped they would learn curriculum content in the process of searching for evidence connected to the Renaissance themes we began to explore in the previous class. They would perform a similar investigation focused on Renaissance literature the following week. What artistic and literary works would I have students explore? I would have to include Michaelangelo’s *David*, Leonardo’s *Mona Lisa*, and a Shakespearean sonnet because these historical figures and their works were explicit in the state standards for World History and Geography II.

I chose excerpts from a number of sources from an overlapping strand in the World History and Geography I standards (e.g., *The Prince*, *In Praise of Folly*, and *Utopia*) because I figured students would have some background knowledge about them. Another source, *Don Quixote*, was a favorite of mine and, even though it more properly fit in the Spanish Golden Age, I felt the windmill scene would help reinforce the idea that medieval chivalry was outdated and that a new age of reason was being ushered in. Also, I could use the text to reinforce the growth and impact of vernacular languages, like Spanish, a concept that was implicit in the standards. Finally, some of my choices were designed to introduce conflicting evidence, for example, Michelangelo’s Sistine Chapel ceiling and *Pietà*, as way to introduce enduring religious outlooks in Christian Europe, as well as the patronage and increasing secularism of the Catholic Church.

So, I was making clear choices here about which sources to include and my rationale extended beyond the assumed pressure of the state standards. In fact, as a result of creating a more text-rich learning environment (see Brit et al., 2000), we ended up

exploring more disciplinary ideas and “uncovered” more substantive knowledge than was listed in the SOL’s. While this approach took more time than “covering” the discrete objectives listed in the standards, I hoped it would lead to deeper understandings. Students spent the remainder of the period working in groups. The investigative questions were simplified versions of the essay prompt they would see at the end of the unit: Why is this considered Renaissance art? What new artistic techniques are being used? What Renaissance themes are present or expressed in the work? Checking-in with student groups and alternately cajoling and coercing them to stay on task took patience.

The following day students presented their findings to the class (see Appendix M for work samples). They also brought in their personal “survey[s] of generational beliefs, attitudes, and values as represented in music, art, and literature.” Most students who completed the assignment took advantage of the opportunity to locate song lyrics, copies of artwork, and/or literary excerpts as evidence to support their claims. I made a two column chart on the whiteboard and students took turns filling in the rows with information about their cultural artifacts. As a class we tallied the results and worked inductively to create categories and evaluate trends among the class as a whole. The most frequently mentioned values centered on family. Eleven students alluded to the significant role of family in their lives and a few brought in a family photo as visual evidence. Five students presented cultural artifacts that related to their religious beliefs and identities.

Cynthia chose “California Girls” as one of her cultural artifacts. When I pressed her to consider what values were present in the song, she suggested it portrayed California, where her family first arrived after emigrating from Vietnam, as a “fun,

carefree place.” When I read the lyrics to Kate Perry’s 2010 hit, which Cynthia had stapled to the assignment, I wrote, “Racy lyrics, but Cali shines through, for sure!” The song helped me place Cynthia’s tattoos and piercings in context. About the Chinese scroll painting of running horses, which she selected for her visual artwork, Cynthia wrote, “My grandma gave one of these to each of her kids, which is my dad and my uncle. There’s a belief that if you hang it in front of a shop, there’s going to be a lot of [business]. It’s true! I believe in luck.” This early exercise reminded me of the complexities of cultural identity and provided insight into the lived realities of my students (Grant, Elsbree, & Fondrie, 2004; Heath, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 2004).

Juan expressed an interest in graffiti art, noting, “It allows me to express myself as big as I can.” He showed less confidence in expressing himself in the baseline assessment, barely attempting to the task. Alicia chose the Venus de Milo because it “depicted the beauty of a woman and glorified the human body.” Several other students mentioned beliefs or values that connected to themes or cultural artifacts which emerged during the group presentations. As we processed the activity, I noted these links and explained how we are, in many respects, descendants of what many historians refer to as “the birth of a new modern age.” I also explained that what they were doing here, analyzing accounts and using evidence to support a claim, they would also do in their first interpretive essay.

Up to this point introducing controversy around conflicting evidence was not central to exploration of art and literature. One group did propose that “[*The Prince* is] NOT considered Renaissance literature” because Machiavelli’s view of human beings seemed to conflict with the generalization that “man and his world are good” (see

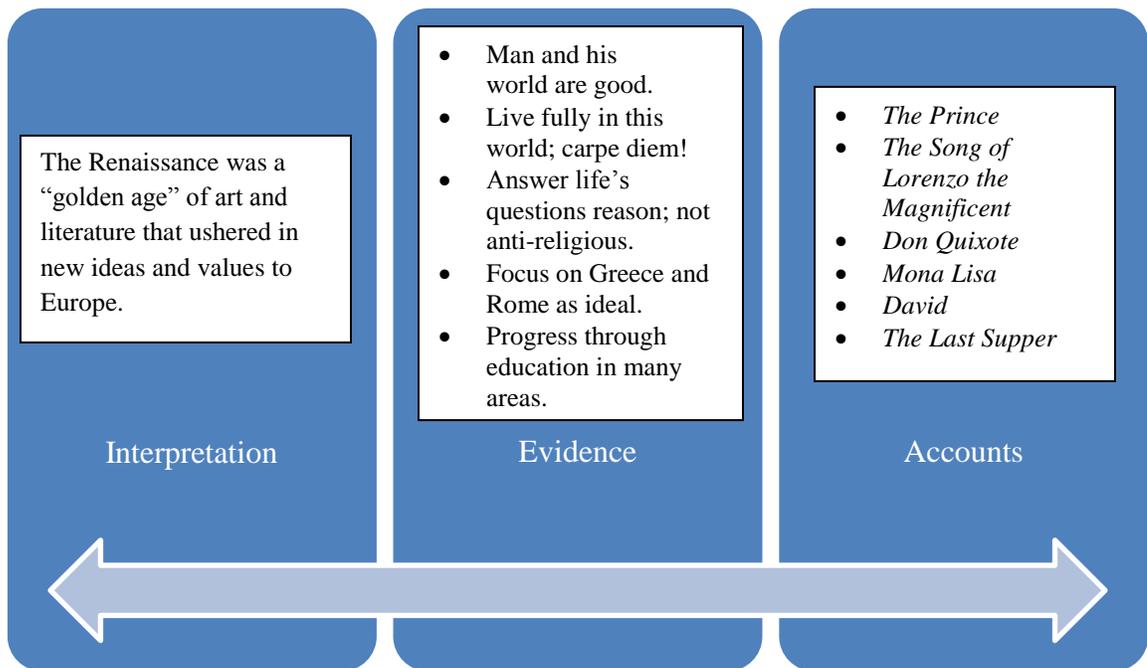
Appendix M for work sample). In viewing works of art with biblical themes (e.g., Michaelangelo's *Creation of Adam*), other investigative teams suggested that enduring religious traditions remained alongside of new secular trends. In the end, though, our comparisons were fairly decontextualized and the contradicting evidence minimized. For example, we determined, as a class, that *The Prince* and the Sistine Chapel paintings were still Renaissance works (Journal, 9/27/11).

Minimizing the level of source conflict was intentional. In the first unit I was attempting to present a simplified model (see Figure 4.4) of how our investigations would unfold and how we could arrive at reasonable evidence-based interpretations. In this case, students searched selected cultural artifacts (ACCOUNTS) for predetermined themes (EVIDENCE) to be used as warrants to make a claim (INTERPRETATION). In fact, in years past I used an essay prompt that suggested a one-to-one correspondence between the available evidence and what we could say about it: How do the art and literature of the Renaissance reflect the values and attitudes of the time period? In the year of the study, however, I crafted a new essay question that demanded a more nuanced interpretation: To what extent was the Renaissance a “golden age” that ushered in new ideas and values to European society?

At the end of the unit, when I figured they had learned the dominant narrative about this period of “rebirth,” I introduced more obvious examples of conflicting evidence related to the updated focus question. After students examined a two page social history feature in their textbook (see Beck et al., 2005), I asked: Which evidence “makes sense” or “fits” given what we have already learned about the Renaissance? Which evidence is surprising, shocking, or does not seem to “fit” given how we have

already characterized the Renaissance? Most students said that the picture of a performance “at playhouses like the Globe” made the most sense. This choice of confirming evidence was understandable given that we watched a brief clip from the movie, *Shakespeare in Love* in the previous class. They pointed to joblessness, poor sanitation, and disparities in income as evidence that did not “fit.” For example, in her journal entry, Veronica appeared to be making sense of this new evidence in light of the focus question. “I thought that everyone would have a job during the golden age” (Journal, 9/23/10).

Figure 4.4. Simplified model for developing evidence-based interpretations



On the final day of the unit I had students copy and consider three points about “doing history” that surfaced in the course of our simplified investigation. Figure 4.5 is a facsimile of that day’s journal entry, which was posted on a Power Point slide (Journal, 9/29/10):

Figure 4.5. Facsimile of journal entry in last day of Renaissance unit

Journal # 5: In doing history....

1. We need to generalize and find central themes/ideas in order to make sense of the past.
 2. We develop these generalizations based on the evidence we find.
 3. These generalizations have their limits and we know this because some of the evidence does not fit.
-

“Remember our surveys?” I asked the class. “How many of you had values or beliefs that didn’t make our top three?” A handful of students raised their hands. “Does that mean you are lying? Does that mean we are lying to say a dominant theme among teenagers today is x?” (Journal, 9/29/10). I had them consider the class across the hall (it was an advanced Geography class made up mostly of seniors). Could our generalizations “fit” that group of teenagers at Hillendale? What about teens across the U.S.? I was pushing them to consider how we could make a reasonable evidence-based argument and still account for conflicting evidence.

I used the three propositions above as a way to review unit content, prepare for the essay, and to set up an exercise in organizing evidence. We continued this process of organizing evidence with a set of six new documents I had students read and annotate for homework. At least two of them I planned to use on the assessment task. They were included in a collection of *Document-Based Assessment Activities for Global History Classes* (Noonan, 1999) suggested by one of my colleagues who teaches an advanced version of the World History and Geography II course. Three of the documents were excerpts from secondary source histories which, when read together, contextualized some of the historiographic debate concerning the Renaissance. I remember reading Burckhardt's (1860) nineteenth century classic in a graduate level historiography course.

On my copy of the documents I penned and circled this question: "How do I prevent cognitive overload?" Still, I was excited to work with the sources, some of which were new to me. Only eighteen students admitted spending time with the documents at home and half of those did not complete the accompanying follow-up questions. This level of homework completion confirmed my original plan to focus on a limited number of domain ideas in each unit and to nudge, not shove, my novices toward expertise in using disciplinary strategies. In the final portion of the unit review we discussed the six documents and "bucketed" them (a term I borrowed from a county supported document-based question workshop) into one of two categories: "evidence that fits" and "evidence that does not fit."

Even if students did not grasp who historian W.T. Waugh was (in Noonan, 1999) was, the context in which he was writing, or why he might argue that the idea of a renaissance was an exaggeration, I think they at least benefited (as we will see in their

essay scores) from the teacher-guided exercise in organizing evidence. In my field notes I wrote, “This extended process took 45 minutes and students were visibly tired. When I asked if they thought they could write a five- paragraph essay with all of the evidence, their looks were not in the affirmative” (Journal, 9/29/11). I held off on the essay portion of the test until I finished creating a graphic organizer that would model organizational and interpretive strategies. I gave students the opportunity to use a version of this tool for each of the assessments in the time series design (see Figure 4.6).

By providing these layers of “social assistance” (Vygotsky, 1978) I was attempting to build success and confidence in writing evidence-based interpretations. In particular, the scripted thesis sentences I modeled laid out a set of interpretive paths for students to follow. But still, I felt mired in a teacher-researcher dilemma. By allowing students to use this scripted tool for the interpretive essay, I felt like I was engineering assessment scores. If there did turn out to be historical knowledge growth as measured by the assessment protocol, how much of this was a product of the interpretations we were developing as a class or the script I was providing. Would the supports I put in place become crutches, which when pulled away, would cause students to falter? Or would they begin to internalize the assumptions of the tools I was providing? I will return to these questions and to my efforts at negotiating what felt like my conflicting roles as teacher and researcher. At this point in the study, I arbitrated this dispute by carefully documenting the supports that were added or removed in order to map changes in assessment scores onto learning experiences (Journal, 9/29/10).

Figure 4.6. Interpretive Essay Organizer and Modeling Tool (Renaissance)

<p>Question—To what extent was the Renaissance a “golden age” that ushered in (brought) new ideas and values to European society?</p>					
<p><u>Possible Thesis Sentences:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Renaissance was a “golden age” that brought new ideas and values to Europe, however not everything was golden. • The Renaissance was a rebirth in art and learning focusing on Greece and Rome as its model of greatness. Even though European society was at a highpoint during the Renaissance, it is an exaggeration to call it a <i>new</i> “golden age.” • The art and literature of the European Renaissance reflect the new ideas and values emerging during this period of rebirth. Still, there are some things from the Middle Ages that did not change dramatically. • Others? 					
<p><u>What else to include in the introduction paragraph:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of Renaissance and background/context (where? when? connection to Middle Ages?) • Brief list of Renaissance themes, values, and/or ideas (e.g., Man and his world are good, etc.) • Brief “road map” of what will be discussed in your three supporting paragraphs 					
<p><u>Three supporting paragraphs—possible organization:</u></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 33%; padding: 5px;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art • Literature • Secondary sources </td> <td style="width: 33%; padding: 5px;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence that “fits” • Evidence that does NOT “fit” • Evidence that both “fits” and does not “fit” </td> <td style="width: 33%; padding: 5px;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New ideas/values in art • New ideas/values in lit. • Enduring values/traditions </td> </tr> </table>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art • Literature • Secondary sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence that “fits” • Evidence that does NOT “fit” • Evidence that both “fits” and does not “fit” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New ideas/values in art • New ideas/values in lit. • Enduring values/traditions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Art • Literature • Secondary sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evidence that “fits” • Evidence that does NOT “fit” • Evidence that both “fits” and does not “fit” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New ideas/values in art • New ideas/values in lit. • Enduring values/traditions 			
<p>*Remember, use background knowledge and specific evidence and details to support your argument.</p>					
<p><u>Conclusion: Restate your thesis and connect ideas discussed in your supporting paragraphs.</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Much of the evidence examined above demonstrates that Renaissance society was thriving in the areas of art, literature, and learning. It is clear, however, that not everyone was experiencing this “golden age” of rebirth. • European society was at a highpoint during the Renaissance, but it was not a sudden awakening. The rebirth of new ideas was gradual and stretches back to the Middle Ages. • The art and literature from the Renaissance shows that there were great changes in the way people saw themselves and their world. Other evidence shows that some things stayed the same. 					

The Columbian Encounter: Multiple Perspectives or “Just the Facts”

Modeling source work and examining multiple perspectives became the central focus of the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters. In addition, I hoped to invite controversy in the front-end of the unit and not as an afterthought. When students returned from the Columbus Day weekend, I questioned them about their observations during the “Columbus Watch” exercise. Next, I gave students a few minutes to brainstorm what they already knew about Columbus. Many offered common lore responses about his three ships and recited the familiar grade school treacle: “In fourteen hundred ninety two Columbus sailed the ocean blue.” Ayana was pretty sure “there were pilgrims involved.” A few students countered, claiming that he did *not* discover America and, that if he did, it was an accidental discovery. David recalled a *History Channel* special he watched making a case for earlier arrivals by Vikings and, perhaps, the Chinese. Kris said with some emphasis that he “killed Indians” and “forced religion” on them.

When I asked them to briefly jot down how they felt about Columbus or Columbus Day, many acknowledged that they did not feel strongly one way or the other. Alex made a connection in his journal that he felt “nothing, because I don’t really know about him.” Other students made more demonstrative statements in favor of Columbus’ past accomplishments, while a few condemned what Kyle called his “darker deeds.” One of the most interesting responses was by Patricia. As with Alex, the prompt appears not to have elicited a strong emotional response from her. However, she does channel popular sentiment that reflects a more traditional outlook on the 15th century explorer. She wrote: “I don’t really have strong feelings towards Columbus Day. If I did, they

would be good feelings.” When asked how others might feel about Columbus, her earlier response came into sharper focus. “Others may feel he is a hero,” she noted. “I’ve heard people that really look up to him. I’ve never heard someone talk bad about Christopher Columbus.”

Cynthia, drawing from the range of responses offered by her peers and perhaps growing tired of my efforts to build controversy, put it succinctly: “Some like him, others dislike him, and some don’t care.” Other responses also referenced the existence of both positive and negative views on Columbus, but contained more value-laden language. For example, Andrew wrote in his journal, “Some might see him as a hero, others may despise him.” Perhaps the most balanced and sophisticated response came from Geoffrey, who explained, “Some may love him for discovering America and allowing the Europeans to settle there. Some may hate him for the same reason and because of the injustices the Native Americans faced because of him.”

Students exhibited a range of prior knowledge and views related to Columbus. Still, I wanted to politicize the debate even more in order to demonstrate how we often read the past through the lens of the present. Aside from Jessica’s rather detached exercise in baking a “Columbus Day cake,” none of the students claimed to have celebrated or lamented the passing of Columbus Day. I announced, “Let me show you what other people were doing while you were sleeping in or shopping yesterday.” I showed Power Point images of Cleveland restaurant patrons waving Italian flags during a Columbus Day Parade, a Niña replica sailing in San Francisco Bay, members of the Knights of Columbus assembled in front of the Columbus Fountain during a ceremony at Union Station in Washington, D.C., and protesters at that same event, one holding a sign

reading, “Columbus Was A Murderer...Happy Genocide Awareness Day!” (Journal, 10/12/10).

In a follow-up class I prepared to introduce two different accounts on Columbus by reviewing the four-step model of history and having them think about some of their preconceptions. “Remember on the first day of school when I asked you to define history? Many of you said it was....” I paused and a handful of students called out in response to my cue, “the past.” “Right,” I say. Appearing confused, Osman Arikan said, “I don’t get it.” This senior, who had recently transferred to Hillendale, missed the historiography lessons. “When you were not here [at the start of the year] we looked at the idea that history is not the past but a...” Kris jumped in, “a recreation.” I added, “OK, a recreation or reconstruction of what?” Osman, looking puzzled, answered, “The facts?” “Where do we get those facts?” I asked. A few students responded, “Evidence.” “I still don’t get it,” said Osman. I used Columbus’ voyages and then the terrorist attacks of 9/11 as historical examples and ran through the four-step model of history again, asking students if we could return to these events. “Right, they are forever lost to us,” I say, “except that there is evidence left over from the time period and evidence created after the fact about the events and we try to reconstruct a picture of what happened and why” (Journal, 10/18/10).

The next day during “Viking Time” (a set of 45 minute blocks named after the school mascot and embedded in Hillendale’s “White Day” for additional instruction, enrichment, or remediation) I returned briefly to the Columbus Watch exercise to convey the puzzlement I was feeling after listening to their conflicting ideas and viewing images

both celebrating and condemning Columbus. I directed students to write down these three propositions in their journal books:

1. History is not a single story about what happened.
2. There are multiple stories that emphasize different things. These different stories are called “accounts.”
3. These accounts are told from different perspectives or viewpoints.

After students took turns reading the numbered points, I offered an example. “How many of you have been involved with a disciplinary incident where you have had to give your account to an administrator?” A handful of students raised their hands. “Are you the only person they talked to?” “No,” they responded. “Why not?” I interjected. Osman, who had been listening intently, explained that they probably want to get stories from the different people involved in order to tell what happened. I push on the truth-lie dichotomy. “So, some people lie and that’s why we have to get different accounts.” Kris was emphatic, “Yes, people lie to save their butts!” Connecting back to Osman’s remarks, Andrew suggested that “some people know different parts of the story, so [if you put them all together] you can get to the truth of what happened” (Journal, 10/19/10)

I reminded them that historians (and teachers and students) who make sense of different accounts have their own perspectives, too, some of which are shaped by *when* they are writing. I held up two sources related to Columbus, one a late elementary level trade book called *Meet Christopher Columbus* (DeKay, 1968), the other, *Rethinking Columbus* (Bigelow, 1992), a teaching guide published during the quincentenary. After examining the conflicting views of Columbus in these two texts, I explained: “Remember how we learned to identify primary and secondary sources in our historiography unit,” I

started off. “Here is another way you can identify different kinds of sources.” Students copied definitions for traditional and revisionist accounts which I had placed on power point slides. After reading the two definitions, I asked them to identify the two accounts we just examined as traditional or revisionist. Omar called out, “I think we should just give the facts” (Journal, 10/19/10).

That evening I read about the practices of “Mr. Lyle,” one of Monte-Sano’s (2008) case studies, who regularly guided his students’ annotations of historical texts by encouraging them to be active readers. This influenced my decision to structure my students’ reading of an article that announced a university’s decision to change the name of Columbus Day Weekend to Fall Weekend (see Goodman, 2009). To get them in the habit of marking up the text, I asked them to indicate with a “T” any evidence or position presented that was associated with a traditional account of Columbus. An “R” would designate that the evidence was more likely to be found in a revisionist interpretation. Finally, in an effort to engage Osman’s conception of history, students were instructed to put “F” next to passages where the author appeared to be reporting facts. As we read the article aloud I instructed students to underline particular words and phrases. “Underline genocide and slavery,” I said. “What would we label this sentence?” “R,” the class shouted. “How about Italian Americans in Rhode Island upset with the university’s decision?” There was agreement that this position reflected a traditional view. We briefly discussed how even certain “facts,” substantive knowledge on which there is agreement, may be emphasized or minimized in a way that alters the meaning of a text (Journal, 10/20/10).

Students continued this exercise in labeling the text in groups of 2-3. In processing the remainder of the text I asked, “How does the author let you know he is reporting as evidence someone else’s views and not his own.” Ayana pointed to the use of quotations. “I encourage you to use quotes when you present evidence, too,” I added. One of the unintended discussions that ensued related to the importance of considering context. “What’s happening in the U.S. in 1937?” I asked after we learned from the article that this is when Columbus Day became a federal holiday. Andrew answered, “The Great Depression.” I inquired about this effort to create a new holiday when the U.S. was in the midst of an economic crisis. “[The holiday was founded] to get people’s minds off the depression,” remarked Osman. “Good hunch,” I say. “We’d have to do some more research.” I ask the class what groups might have pushed Congress to mandate this holiday. One student suggests Italian Americans likely played a role. Making a connection to the “Columbus Watch” exercise, another student stated that businesses had an interest in promoting spending. One girl asked: “Is that why my cousin who lives in [a neighboring county] had to go to school [on Columbus Day], because they are revisionists?” (Journal, 10/20/10).

With most of our early attention placed on a single historical figure, Columbus, I opened up our investigative focus in order to consider a wider range of perspectives (and curricular content) during this period of global encounters. I instructed Alicia, who was distinguishing herself as a visible classroom leader, to write the unit guiding question on a sheet of newsprint: The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere. Evaluate the results of the

encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative? With the help of a classmate she posted it on the side wall next to the four-step model of history I had outlined on construction paper (see Figure 4.7). During our investigations, I would occasionally start or end class by asking students to situate our work for the day within the disciplinary framework posted in public view. This “graphic record,” as Bain (2000) calls it, was conceived, “to constantly remind them that historical texts...are products of a cognitive process involving investigation, selection, evaluation, interpretation, and thought” (pp. 339-340).

Figure 4.7. Photograph of investigative model and unit question posted in the classroom



Over the next four days, the controversy and investigative focus I introduced was mostly sidelined. Part of this was due to the limits of my own substantive knowledge related to several strands in the standards. My undergraduate and graduate history courses that focused on the global interactions in the “World after 1500,” as this period is referred to in the state curriculum framework (VDOE, 2008a), centered largely on the

vertices of the Atlantic world, Europe, Africa, and the Americas. My background knowledge on Asia “after 1500,” including the Ottoman and Mughal Empires and East Asia, all of which are detailed in the standards), was not as strong. This impacted my decision to assign an SOL review reading on these geographic areas, reinforce key curriculum content with a Power Point presentation, and illustrate cultural artifacts and conflicts with colorful images and primary source excerpts.

Students did spend two days researching their textbook and a few other secondary sources I provided in order to learn some basic historical content and geographical knowledge related to the European explorers listed in the state standards. As they presented their findings I emphasized the motivations of these explorers and the multiple factors that spurred overseas expeditions. I figured that these first-order ideas would provide some substantive knowledge that would facilitate understanding of the European perspective in the “encounter of three worlds” and help frame the historical context on which to build our investigation.

Even though we were not tackling the investigation head-on yet, students were getting their first independent practice at detailed source analysis. For homework, they were tasked to annotate and analyze a secondary account about Ottoman sultan, Suleyman the Magnificent, and a primary source description of Mughal ruler, Akbar, written by a Catholic missionary. Students were also assigned a reading from Columbus’ log and asked to utilize the source analysis guide I was developing (see Appendix N). These initial sources were included in the ancillary materials provided by the textbook publisher (see Beck et al., 2005). I eventually created a source analysis chart” (see Figure 4.8), which listed each of the sixteen sources I planned to examine with the students, as

well as a set of analytical questions which I hoped would assist them in learning and internalizing the cognitive skills and strategic practices connected to source work. The interconnected and interrelated sourcing strategies that were to be utilized during the analytic process were bolded in the chart's top row: assessing *origin* (including situating the source in a particular *historical context* and *identifying* the type of source that it is), evaluating *purpose* (including the *perspective* the author brings to bear on the text), determining the *value* of the source, and considering its potential *limitations* (Journal, 11/3/10).

Reading Bain (2005) confirmed my use of “history-specific tools” designed to offer assistance to the learners in my G9 class. He mentions: “visual prompts, linguistic devices, discourse, and conceptual strategies that help students learn content, analyze sources, frame historical problems, corroborate evidence, determine significance, or build historical arguments” (pp. 202-203). And yet, as I analyzed recorded class sessions during the investigative portion of the unit, I was uncomfortable by the amount of “teacher talk” that dominated classroom discourse. In an analytic memo written the summer following the study, I explored why “I [could not] seem to let go.” I reasoned, “Maybe it’s about the kind of [closed] questions I was asking students [as we analyzed the sources].” I also considered my concern with “the amount of unit time used to model source work” and my parallel worry over “losing time” that could be used to cover SOL content. Finally, I noted that perhaps “students were not ready” for me to let go and that I should “not view this as a failure, but as a step in the process [of moving them toward more sophisticated historical thinking]” (Journal, 7/20/11).

Figure 4.8. Source Analysis Chart—Age of Exploration and Global Encounters (p. 1 of 4)

Investigative Question: The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere. Evaluate the results of the encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative?

Source Title and Background	Origin — <i>Who</i> created the source and <i>who are they</i> ? Historical Context — <i>When</i> and <i>where</i> was the source created? Identification — <i>What</i> kind of source is it?	Purpose and Perspective — <i>Why</i> was the source created? <i>What</i> is the author’s perspective? <i>How</i> might their perspective impact the content of the source?	Value — <i>What</i> does the source say or show? Is it an accurate or fair portrayal of historical figures or events? How does it help answer the investigative question?	Limitations — <i>What</i> about this source needs to be questioned? Why should we use caution when using this source as potential evidence?
“Goodbye, Columbus”				
<i>Columbus’ Log</i>				
<i>Broken Spears</i>				
“Life on Board a Slave Ship”				

Classroom discourse shows that we were making progress and that (un)covering content and telling riveting stories was not necessarily at odds with teaching disciplinary thinking. In fact, they often needed each other. During a teacher-guided lesson on the Spanish conquest of Mexico, I guided students in analyzing accounts from both the conquistador and Aztec perspective, alternately stopping to reinforce strategic practices and first-order knowledge. We used an account written by Bernal Diaz (Monk & Sass, 1994) to reenact an encounter between Cortes and Montezuma on top of the main temple in Tenochtitlan. Pressing students to ask, “Who created the source?” had to go beyond finding Diaz’ name at the top of the paper. It also meant asking, “Who are the conquistadors and what are their goals in the Americas?” This led to a brief presentation where I reviewed substantive knowledge introduced in a homework reading, as well as provided new background knowledge that might give them greater access to the sources we were examining.

As we read *The Broken Spears* (Portilla, 1992), an Aztec account of the conquest, and explored the context in which the source was created, I offered to the class some of the same feedback I provided in writing to individual students on their source analysis homework exercises: “Many of you when you are doing source analyses are not considering the historical context. Don’t be afraid of that word. It simply means where and when was the source created” (Journal, 11/3/10). Again, I felt it necessary to provide some of that context. Using a premade outline, I detailed the similarities between the Spanish and the Aztec empires. “Both are warlike,” I explained, offering details on the wars of the Reconquista, as well as the flowery wars waged by the Aztecs in central Mexico to obtain sacrificial victims to sustain their gods. “Creepy,” one of the girls calls

out. “According to whom,” I asked, modeling a kind of self-conscious reading stance (Journal, 11/3/10).

In the end, I hoped this extended lesson would help students to construct new understandings of the conquest period. After all, grounding students in domain ideas and strategic practices because I want them to be amateur historians has never been my goal. Ideally, disciplinary concepts and tools are used to deepen understanding about the past (Donovan & Bransford, 2005). A follow-up homework assignment demonstrated that most students were able to mention the role of Spanish technology, diseases, and allies in the conquest of Tenochtitlan, but not a single student alluded to the idea that the evidence they were presenting came from Diaz’ account or *Broken Spears*, or even their textbook. Was the structure of the course sending mixed messages? Perhaps, in their minds, the course really was a hybrid mix. There is that extra stuff Mr. Kelly has us do with sources and then there’s the real content we have to actually learn for the SOL exam, I imagined them thinking. I return to this discussion at the end of the chapter.

I hoped that the epistemic and metacognitive acts I was demonstrating—asking questions of the source, observing how I was thinking about and reacting to what was written, and making links to background knowledge or other sources—would eventually be internalized by students and that when left alone in groups, classroom leaders might encourage the kind of self-monitoring I was modeling (see Bransford & Donovan, 2005). In the year’s first journal entry most of them expressed the idea that historical knowledge was produced outside of the classroom and presented (by the teacher and textbook) within it. I was trying to shift their beliefs away from thinking that “other people’s facts”

(Holt, 1990) held sway over them. Instead, I wanted them to see that they could have power over the objects of historical study and share in the production of new knowledge.

However, when my colleague, Karen, observed an investigative activity (see Appendix O) designed to have students explore a new set of sources related to the “encounter between three worlds,” she wrote in her notes, “Some of the groups are not getting it.” When I followed-up with her that afternoon, she indicated that four of the six groups seemed to be “reading the sources and working on answering the [follow-up] questions.” She noted that I was “circulating from table to table” and asking groups “leading questions and prompts,” but this did not appear to focus the efforts of two groups, who were “off task” (Observer Field Notes, 11/5/10). Her biggest concern, though, was the lack of understanding that some students demonstrated about key first-order terms and concepts, like the *encomienda* system.

Processing the investigation over the next two days confirmed some of what Karen was seeing. Many students, when called on to report group findings, could repeat the answer they had written, but could not explain their thinking or the group’s reasoning. With additional guidance and support, students were taken through the process of analyzing the sources and thinking about evidence in more sophisticated ways. For example, most students could tell me that four different sources at one center either alluded to or spoke directly about the role of European diseases during the encounter. However, explaining the significance of this preponderance of evidence was more difficult. “Why is it important to find many sources of evidence about a particular development?” I asked Veronica. “You can get both sides of the story,” she responded, noting that both written accounts by Europeans and oral narratives passed down among

Native American tribes mention the devastating impact of disease on indigenous populations. I tried to push Veronica's thinking. "And if both sides are saying the same thing?" She responded, "Then it's probably true." I added, "It's a way of corroborating the evidence. That means comparing sources to determine their [relative] reliability" (Journal, 11/9/10).

I was learning in a practical sense what I knew intellectually—the learning progression takes time, students at any age may have different ideas, and, with persistence, I could nudge my novices toward greater expertise (Lee & Ashby, 2000). I also was reminded in this unit that particular episodes of world history demand more than a detached analytical reading of sources. I modeled a deeply moral response (see Barton & Levstick, 2004) to the horrors of the trans-Atlantic slave trade, even while I reiterated the importance of corroboration and judging perspective. In my view, both stances are important. However, exploring the human side of the trade's brutality without understanding the "grossly economic perspective" of those who profited from it denies students' opportunities to seriously consider the complex motivations that drive human action. And encouraging students to uncritically condemn (or celebrate) past actors and events, without viewing them in their proper historical context, conflates 21st century values with the mores of the time period under investigation.

The SOL test would not require students to engage deeply in analytical thinking, nor would it encourage them to respond morally to the "essential knowledge" outlined in the curriculum standards. However, both of these stances, according to Barton & Levstick (2004), might be directed toward the "common good." Because they had the potential to awaken students' intellectual and moral capacities, I hoped these modes of instruction

might also heighten students' interest and facilitate learning historical content (see Alexander, 2006). So, the middle passage was not simply treated as a factoid to be stored in memory and then recalled on the SOL exam. Instead, students encountered it while they read and analyzed the account of a former slave. Then they applied that understanding when they were asked to corroborate it with an iconic diagram of a slave ship. This exercise was far more valuable than memorizing a decontextualized definition of the middle passage and, for most students, applying this content within a broader conceptual framework and directing it toward a more meaningful purpose facilitated both interest and understanding.

Most students were able to draw parallels between the horrid conditions described in the autobiographical narrative of Olaudah Equiano and the cramped human cargo displayed in the visual image of the *Brookes* (Beck et al., 2005). What we failed to seriously consider was the role that each of these propaganda pieces played in the 18th and 19th century abolitionist movement. I shared that Equiano's account was influential in this regard, but, at the time, I was unaware that the cross-section of the *Brookes* was first published by a British abolitionist group after the passage of Slave Trade Act of 1788. And because I felt pressed for time during the investigative activity and the subsequent processing of the source work, I urged students to focus on the follow-up questions (primarily designed to foster general reading comprehension and link to SOL content) and to "skip the source analysis chart for now" (Journal, 11/9/10 and 11/11/10). Very few of the follow-up items required students to probe the specific historical context in which the sources were created. Researching source origin in more depth would have required additional investigative legwork. I thought to myself, we do not have time for

this and, besides, my students do not have to know Olaudah Equiano, the *Brookes*, or the context in which they were created to pass the SOL exam.

While I observed that many of my students were making incremental progress in relation to history's strategic processes and deepening their knowledge of the "encounter of three worlds," the time it took to reap these benefits meant time away from the breadth of coverage required by the state standards. Frustrated by this dilemma, I sometimes cut short the analysis of sources, which in turn caused me to question whether my novices were actually "getting it." While my colleague, Karen, appeared to be more concerned with the first-order content they were glossing over, I was discouraged by what felt like our cursory examination of the sources.

For most students the source analysis chart was used sparingly. It seemed that the detailed and layered analysis involved with source assessment would have to wait until our next major investigative unit.

Does Change Mean Progress? Assessing the Status of Industrial Era Sources

Feedback from primary informants, evaluations of student work from the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters unit, and the practical dimensions of teacher practice influenced some of my instructional decision-making as we started our investigation of the Industrial Revolution. First, I decided to use a series of pre-made document-based assessment activities, or DBQ's, (Noonan, 1999) to structure the investigations for the unit. In a memo, I discuss some of the thinking that went into this decision: "The sources are shorter and more accessible [than many of the ones I provided during the Global Encounters unit] and students have the entire packet in front of them. It seems like it might be more manageable for them and less intimidating" (Journal, 2/22/11).

For me it was also a very practical decision. I simply did not have the time to dig up and prepare another round of documents. I was originally conflicted about this decision, but came to see that the potential benefits outweighed any perceived drawbacks: “I felt so personally invested in the Exploration/Encounters unit because the sources were handpicked by me,” I wrote in a memo. “I knew exactly why I was using particular sources. I feel less ownership over the canned DBQ’s, but they have advantages. Because they are newer to me, I am approaching them with a freshness, like the students” (Journal, 2/22/11). In a unit where I hoped to facilitate more detailed analyses of source origin, context, purpose, and perspective, I figured my own research, made transparent for the students, could serve as a model for the strategic practices I hoped they would employ and a pathway toward deeper understandings of the past.

Most of my planning time went toward fine-tuning the unit project, a version of an historical investigation I first used with Sergio (see Kelly, 2006) and his classmates. After assessing students’ prior knowledge on the Industrial Revolution and forcing them to “take a stand” on the positive and negative effects of both modern and industrial era developments, I introduced the project/unit guide (see Appendix Q). I read the introduction with the class:

Each of you will choose a topic related to the Industrial Revolution. These represent the pieces of a puzzle which we are, in a sense, trying to solve. Two of the key concepts for this unit are change and progress. We will explore the nature of the changes brought by the Industrial Revolution and discuss why it marks a turning point in history. We will also investigate the notion of progress. This will involve analyzing a variety of perspectives on the Industrial Revolution, its

historical impact, and its contemporary legacy. Ultimately, we will ask whether the historical developments of the Industrial Revolution amount to progress, progress for whom, and at what cost.

Connecting to the “take a stand” activity, where students had to defend their claims that a particular development, for example, child labor or social networking, was more positive or negative, I explained that their project findings would have to push past simple yes or no answers. I also reminded them that as in previous investigative units, we would be examining multiple sources and perspectives in the process of developing our interpretations.

To assist them in this process I retooled both the sourcing heuristic and interpretive essay model used during the Global Encounters unit. Some of the high performing students who attempted to use the Source Analysis Chart found that it was cumbersome and rigid as a note-taking tool and suggested a more streamlined format (Journal, 2/24/11). I replaced the chart with a Source Analysis Guide (see Appendix R) that could be used to support the in-class document-based questions and the investigative work they would do for the extended unit project. Because many students struggled to integrate multiple perspectives into their Global Encounters essays when the model thesis sentences were removed, I added a modified version of the essay argument starters I provided in the Renaissance writing tool. Students were given thesis sentence options, but they were incomplete (see Appendix S). Choices still had to be made regarding the interpretive direction of their argument. I realized that these tools, by themselves, could not foster deeper explorations of authorial perspective or more nuanced interpretations. I would have to continue to coach my students through the investigative process, but I

could also draw on the expanding strategic skills of my emerging high performers and class leaders.

I tapped Veronica, Ayana, Alicia, Patricia, Kris, and Geoffrey to serve as group facilitators during our investigative work sessions. Veronica and Patricia seemed reluctant to take on this role, but I believed they were up to the task. I urged Geoffrey to “be nice to his classmates.” Private conversations with Geoffrey confirmed my reading of his classroom behaviors. He could easily become frustrated by the survey nature of the course and what he perceived to be the slow pace of the class and the lack of intellectual engagement by many of the students in it. I was careful to place mild-mannered and especially mature students in Geoffrey’s group. They would need to show patience and understanding in light of his socially awkward behaviors. I divided the struggling readers and low performing students between the different groups in the hopes that they might benefit from the support of their peers.

Before beginning our first investigation or DBQ (as we came to call them) on the Industrial Revolution, I opened the unit with a modern debate that was indirectly connected to state standards on globalization, economic interdependence, multinational corporations, and the role of trade agreements, like NAFTA (VDOE, 2008). The controversy I was hoping to introduce was not simply about the positive or negative effects of *maquiladoras*, rather it centered on how to make sense of conflicting sources. It was my first time using this exercise, which I picked up at a professional development workshop a few years ago. “I’m not that familiar with this topic,” I told the class, “so I had to do a little bit of research on it last night.” After I read a brief introduction on the growth of twin plants or in-bond industries, as *maquilas* are sometimes called, I asked

Alicia to read the definition of *maquiladora*. I then projected a Power Point slide that listed about fifty companies that operated maquilas on the United States/Mexico border. “If you or your parents have ever bought from one of these companies, then you, my friends, are benefitting from the cheap labor and duty-free status of these factories,” I announced (Journal, 2/13/11).

Moving to the next slide, I continued, “This company, Border Assembly, Inc., will get you a manufacturing facility set up in less than thirty days.” “That’s so cool,” said Geoffrey. “That’s messed up!” responded Kris. “Why is it messed up?” I asked. Kris explained, “Because we are having this big controversy about protecting our borders and we don’t allow Mexicans into the United States....” I responded. “Even better for those who don’t want Mexicans here! Please understand that I’m playing devil’s advocate. We don’t have to have illegal immigrants working in *our* factories. We can set them up in these legal factories and keep them out of our country.” Alicia jumped in, “That’s still messed up.” I echoed that sentiment, “Of course, it is, but it depends on who you talk to, right?” There was some back and forth between students taking sides as I showed an unflattering photograph of Ciudad Juarez, just across the El Paso border. I quickly flashed a political cartoon depicting a *maquiladora* as a meat grinder churning out the minced flesh of plant workers, then briefly mentioned the role of organizations like CorpWatch, whose goal it is to hold corporations accountable by keeping them in the public eye. The bell rang to end the class, but I left feeling confident that I could easily stoke the embers of this debate.

In the next class students were tasked to read the two short article excerpts about maquiladoras included on the workshop handout, one from *Atlantic Monthly* (*AM*) and

one from *Society Magazine (SM)*. After checking in with student understanding of the evidence provided by each periodical, I asked them to discuss in their journals which article they believed to be more accurate. I also wanted them to consider what influenced their choice. Melissa found the *AM* article more believable because it was “most like the pictures [the teacher] showed last class.” Responding with emphasis, I proclaimed, “YES!” I noted that what influenced Melissa’s decision was some background knowledge she got from the potentially biased images I presented. “Maybe I stacked the cards a bit,” I admitted. Jennifer chose *AM* “because the workers don’t get treated well.” “How do you know that?” I ask, pushing her to cite evidence from the text. “Do you like just choosing the cause of oppressed peoples?” Laughter ensued, but I interrupted, “I’m not joking. How many of you if given the chance would choose the cause of potentially oppressed peoples.” Pointing at Kris and smiling I add, “We know this one will every time.” On cue she exclaims, “Well, it’s just wrong!”

Veronica chose *AM* because “it is more realistic” in its description of the makeshift settlements springing up near twin plants. Andrew appreciated its attention to details, especially the discussion of unsafe working conditions. I added to this developing characterization noting that the pictures created by the *AM* piece are “certainly gritty and emotionally appealing.” “I chose the first one [*AM*], too,” said Oscar in one of his last classes before withdrawing from Hillendale to pursue his GED. “Growing up in L.A. there’s a large population of Mexicans. They used to tell me stories of when they lived in Mexico. They [said they] worked in these sweatshops in harsh conditions and lived in poor neighborhoods.” I follow-up, “Ok, so personal experience, is that a valid form of knowledge?” “Yes,” someone responds. “Certainly, it is. Oscar’s

input reflects this.” I wanted to acknowledge the cultural “funds of knowledge” (see Moll & Gonzalez, 2004) my students brought to bear on our explorations of past and contemporary issues, as well as their personal experiences and vernacular histories (Bodnar, 1992).

At this point in the activity, though, I expected them to extend their understandings beyond their immediate experience and draw from specific evidence in the texts they just read, a critical component of developing warrants for interpretive claims. Equally important was the careful lens I wanted them to apply to the documents’ subtext and its specific historical context. We skirted this level of critical reading in the last unit and, through formative assessments, I sensed students had some distance to go with regards to analyzing sources. I picked up my line of questioning, “Did anyone say the *Society* piece was more accurate?” Alicia explained her reasoning for siding with *SM*. “For the first one [*AM*] we don’t really know the source. We don’t know whose writing it. But here [in the *SM* excerpt] it says a study was conducted.” In trying to clarify her comment, I asked, “So you chose the second one because it was backed by a study from the University of California, Berkeley School of Public Health?” “Yeah,” said Alicia.

“Did anyone else choose the second one for that reason?” Geoffrey remarked, “I thought the first one sounded too anecdotal.” “What do you mean by that?” “It was an emotional appeal, rather than hard evidence proof. The second is backed by a reputable university.” Similarly, Alex indicated that the *Society* piece was more accurate because “it is proven by a university.” No one specifically said they chose one or the other because of who they are, as in socialized and politicized beings. However, when I asked

the class if there was something about this group that influenced their validation of *Society*, Kris turned around and scanned the room. “Well, they’re all smart,” she said in a matter of fact tone.

When I asked, “What else do we need to make an assessment of accuracy here?” many of the students demonstrated that they could identify some of the strategic practices we’d been employing on and off throughout the first semester. Some could even explain the value of these cognitive acts in the context of doing source work. Abdul suggested we “compare the documents,” especially the evidence shown. Kyle called out, “Consider the time it is written.” “Why would that be important?” I reply. “It’s only one year, 1992 versus 1993.” Alex highlighted the importance of “ask[ing] what could have changed in a year.” Students also indicated that in that time a study could have been done, laws could have changed, and that the relationship between the U.S. and Mexico could have changed. I alluded to 1994 NAFTA legislation, but was not prepared to discuss it in any detail. “Great job,” I remark exclaim, “This is all important background knowledge and context that we should consider!”

Even though the discussion seemed fluid and many of the students engaged, I implored at least three times: “I need some other folks involved here.” “Juan, what else do we need to do to figure out which source is more accurate?” He offered no response. “So, Veronica, once we go through this evaluative process we can say this article is right and this one is wrong?” Geoffrey jumped in, “Even though the documents contradict each other, we could see if they could kind of like fit.” I add to this insight, “Right, because all we have is six or seven lines from each. What does the rest of each article say? They may actually have some points of agreement. And in fact it might not be so

much a matter of saying which one is right or wrong but....” Geoffrey finishes my thought, “they’re different opinions or beliefs.” “Bias,” adds Kris. This comment led to a brief discussion of the political leanings of particular news sources. “There was a noticeable lull in the classroom [at this point],” I wrote in my field notes. In an analytic memo I noted, “Perhaps a nod to the mental endurance necessary for these cognitive acts or simply a nod to teenage attention spans” (Journal, 2/15/11).

Even though my students were visibly tired, I hoped that the momentum I was feeling after this exercise in dealing with contradicting sources would carry over into our first DBQ on why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain (Noonan, 1999). Much of the content contained in the sources could be linked up to the “essential knowledge” in the standards. I directed them to read the sources and annotate the nine documents the way they had the *Atlantic Monthly* and *Society* excerpts. Unfortunately, the sources and the question seemed to lack bite and controversy. Frustrated by what I perceived to be a lack of interest and engagement, I moved from group to group attempting to refocus them. It was not until I asked students to categorize the evidence in order to develop an interpretation of the investigative question that we experienced the controversy I was hoping would emerge.

One group suggested that Documents 2 and 8 “go together,” but they struggled to develop a heading for this category. I processed their response. “Document 8 alludes to the enclosure movement and suggests that farmers are forced out. Document 2 does not mention that. It says farmers left [rural areas for cities] for higher wages. We have our first real bit of controversy!” I exclaim. “Documents 2 and 8 go together and, yet, they conflict. Could rural inhabitants be forced off of their land by agribusinesses and

enclosures, while at the same time being enticed by the prospect of better pay in factory jobs?”

I attempted to make a connection to the *maquiladora* discussion. There you also had farmers moving to burgeoning industrial centers, but the causes of that move and their relative status before and after were in question. “We only know if these workers lives improved or deteriorated if we know how they are doing now and where they came from. If they were coming from poor rural communities in southern Mexico and their standard of living actually improved, we have to account for this. The same goes with the workers during the industrial revolution. We have to consider the....” I pause. “Context,” a handful of students calls out. “There are women writing home to their parents from the Lowell, Massachusetts mills saying, ‘This is the best time of my life.’” Andrew playfully interrogated, “Is it?” “Good question. If you listen to some reports, child labor is the worst thing ever. Yet, you have some girls saying things are fine here at the mill. I get to live in dorm rooms with other girls, we have enough to eat, and we get paid.” This was a reference to the Mary Paul letters (Beck et al., 2005, p. 741) we would examine in another activity.

Besides offering another lesson on the importance of considering context, I was able to model the evaluation of source perspective and bias. We examined the perspective of a nationalist historian (Noonan, 1999, p. 66) writing in the heyday of the British Empire and considered that Adam Smith’s (Noonan, 1999, p. 66) interest in the standardization of parts and specialization of tasks sprung from his position as an advocate of early capitalism. Again, I was conscious of the amount of teacher talk that

was necessary to propel the investigation forward. There was enough involvement, for example by Alicia and Geoffrey, to make it feel like I wasn't simply lecturing.

Alicia's engagement was connected to her increasing frustration. She wanted a definitive answer about how we were organizing the evidence: "So, what's it going to be under?" "I don't know," I said, "I'm really struggling with my categorizations." I wanted them to see that just because groups developed different organizational schemes or emphasized different sources did not mean the past was changing, but it might amount to slightly different interpretations. Granted, there had to be some agreement. For example, five of the nine documents "fit" under the category we constructed for inventions and innovations. We could not ignore that. Still, the messiness of history without firm answers appeared to be a struggle for both high and low performing students.

In my view, DBQ 12 was a rehearsal for the more important investigation to come. As I will detail in the opening vignette of Chapter 5, the practice, modeling, and feedback provided in the context of DBQ 12 supported the strategic moves made by many students in DBQ 13. The focus of this three-day investigation paralleled the question they would answer in the end-of-the unit assessment: Evaluate the positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution. To facilitate the careful assessments associated with judging the author's historically contextualized perspective, I equipped each group with a laptop computer, so that they could do some quick searches in order to discover the author's social location or position. My casual approach to these searches may have contributed to some of the research-related problems that surfaced during the unit project, but at this point I didn't care if they used, for example, Wikipedia.

The discussion and processing of source contradictions and biases still involved a very active role for me. There were moments during the investigation when the groups hummed with activity. Closer attention to and analysis of recorded group work sessions showed mixed results. There were days when I halted the investigation mid-stream as a result of student feedback and my own frustration that students were not as visibly engaged as I (and the research literature) suggested they might be. It is worth examining my thinking in an extended set of field notes and a subsequent memo written up after one of these experiences:

Today, I had planned to continue DBQ 13 and our discussion of source bias and contradictions, but in the end I went with a gut feeling that [the students] needed a break from source work. Part of that feeling was confirmed when students picked up another set of sources [for a different source-based activity] on their way in to class today and mumbled to each other about having to do another document-based investigation. This came from some of my most polite and conscientious students (e.g., Patricia and Ayana, who were often the first to arrive each day). Alicia chimed in and when asked what was wrong said, “Uh, we’ve already done like three of these.” I think this goes back to the mental endurance issue for analyzing sources, for connecting kids to the big purposes for why we’re doing what we are doing, and also just for shaking things up, even in the midst of an historical investigation (Journal, 2/28/11).

I had students participate in an economic simulation that would highlight the differences between capitalism and socialism. There was a level of noise during this exercise which I

had not heard during the source analysis activities, but it was not evident that any deep learning was going on.

Another strategy employed during the Industrial Revolution unit was checking in with students to assess and review the surface-level substantive knowledge. Every few days student groups would “race” to fill-in items on a worksheet that detailed each unit term and concept outlined in the state standards. I learned to view these “interruptions” as an important contribution to the developing classroom dynamic. As I questioned their value in my field notes, I noted: “Here I saw more students participating, offering answers, and even challenging their ‘smarter’ classmates. [For example,] Cynthia offered an answer on population growth that challenged and surprised Alicia. Does this mean that some students need more basic exercises to help build knowledge and also esteem about their ability to contribute positively to the class dynamic?”

Sometimes the content learned via our investigations did not cover particular strands in the standards. Direct teacher presentations, film excerpts, and illustrative sources filled in these gaps. For example, on one of the last days of the Industrial Revolution unit I gave an overview of major reform movements, showed a scene from *Iron Jawed Angels*, and quickly examined two primary sources with the students, a program from a women’s suffrage march in Washington, D.C. and a children’s book which protested the brutality of the slave trade.

After we finished discussing “this flurry of reforms,” I instructed the class to complete the fill-in review sheet they started with their groups. In going over the answers, I was mindful to target “students who have been quiet.” Melissa missed *bourgeoisie* and Abdul did not have *proletariat* filled in. Both terms we discussed during

the reading of an excerpt from the *Communist Manifesto*. “You might be asking me, ‘Mr. Kelly, why do we have to use these fancy words?’” One student remarked, “Because we need them for the SOL [exam].” I reply, “No, these are the terms Marx and Engels used!” But the SOL was very much on my mind. When we got to the fill-ins on art during the Industrial era, I realized that I still had to offer quick definitions of realism and impressionism and contrast these stylistic movements to the romantic art we explored in a previous unit.

I scrambled to locate my Power Point with art by Courbet and Monet. And although students had done a homework reading on advances in science and medicine during this period, we had not discussed Edward Jenner or Louis Pasteur, both of whom were in the standards. “Let’s ask our friends who have been doing research on this,” I commented, alluding to the unit project. Geoffrey introduced germ theory, the pasteurization process, and began to launch into a discussion, whose scope was beyond the surface level understanding needed for the SOL exam. I stopped him and said, “For now, give an SOL-type answer, so we can finish filling in the answers.” Even in units with a clear investigative focus, the evidence shows that more conventional approaches competed with inquiry modes of learning.

Surveying World War I: Multi-Causal Explanations, Singular Focus

During a mini-unit on the development of nationalist movements in Italy and Germany, I wrote the following memo: “[This unit] has reinforced for me the disconnected nature of historical events and people when introduced or studied in a context-void and text-impooverished environment” (Journal, 2/14/11). My analysis of the teaching and learning that took place during the World War I unit did not reflect this

same concern. However, I did detect clear differences in the contours of this unit as compared to the investigative approaches outlined above. Rather than invite students in with controversy around conflicting sources or competing interpretations, I asked them broad humanistic questions about war and why we fight (Journal, 4/14/11). There was no unit guiding question to focus our efforts, only a list of very targeted substantive knowledge questions that students answered for homework (see Appendix T). These questions helped to structure the curricular content we explored each day. While the Global Encounters and Industrial Revolution units each lasted close to fifteen class periods, we covered the Great War in five days.

It was not a text-impoverished environment, but we were never deep in the throes of source work. Instead, sources were primarily used to pique student interest, situate them in a particular cultural milieu, illustrate an important figure or historical development, or to help dramatize events or human interest stories. In this vein, we examined recruitment posters and listened to popular songs heard on the home fronts of England and the United States. We contrasted images of the enemy portrayed in government sponsored propaganda with narrative descriptions in *All Quiet on the Western Front* (Journal, 4/14/11). Documentary excerpts and a scene from the original movie based on Remarque's anti-war novel were used to emphasize the human element of the war. Finally, we made a chart that compared Wilson's *Fourteen Points*, the causes of World War I, and the results of the *Treaty of Versailles* (Journal, 4/27/11). I expected students to apply some analytic leverage to the documents we were accessing, but the main goal was to extract broad themes and reinforce historical content.

On the first day of the unit we reviewed the underlying factors that caused the war using a premade outline and students took notes as I presented a brief chronology leading up to Austria-Hungary's declaration of war on Serbia on July 28, 1914. The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand (which I referred to as "the spark" that ignited the powder keg of larger causes) was dramatized in storytelling fashion and carefully constructed Power Point slides were packed with diagrams, photographs, and statistics to highlight key battles and the changing nature of warfare. Even though our study of World War I did not include group investigative work, the shape of the unit reminded me of our exploration of the Renaissance. Broad themes were established up front, we accessed those themes using a variety of sources, mainly cultural artifacts from the time period, and controversy around conflicting interpretations was introduced at the very end of the unit.

There were significant differences, however, in the scaffolding and supports I provided in each unit. Although the guiding question was revised at the end of the Renaissance unit, there was a central purpose that guided and structured student investigative work. I did not provide students with an interpretive essay question for WWI until the day before the test. It read: German chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, predicted that "some damn foolish thing in the Balkans" would plunge Europe into a large-scale war. Evaluate the accuracy of Bismarck's statement by examining who and/or what caused World War I. As in the Renaissance unit, I provided the students with a sample of additional sources they might see on the assessment (see Noonan, 1999, pp. 101-105), however, we spent almost no time reading them in class. When we reviewed the causes of the conflict, both underlying and immediate, and the results of the

Versailles Treaty, I did have students glance at the evidence in particular sources. For example, I asked, “Which source could you use if you want to make an argument about militarism as a significant larger cause?” After a cursory look at the documents several students pointed to the chart showing “Per Capita Expenditures of the Great Powers on Armaments” (Journal, 4/27/11).

I finished the unit review, by emphasizing the importance of multi-causal explanations. Offering myself as an example, I listed a range of reasons why I chose a career in teaching. “I am a complex person,” I explained. “The causes of history are complex, too. If you were only to look at the Treaty of Versailles....Which document is that?” “Two,” several students call out. I continue, “...it would appear that there was only one country at fault, one country to blame for the war.” Developing a nuanced interpretation would involve more than listing several causes and finding documents that matched, although we will see in Chapter 5 that many students became skillful at this practice. Many of them also learned to lean heavily on the essay organizing tool I created for each interpretive essay. The model I gave them for World War I was a stripped down version of earlier installments (see Appendix U). I gave them no help in developing thesis statements and little guidance in structuring their supporting paragraphs, where they would have to bolster their claims with evidentiary warrants. This “trailing off of scaffolding,” as I referred to it in a memo, (Journal, 3/24/11) was an important part of the study design. How would students perform on the interpretive essay in a unit without an investigative focus and without the level of support provided in the previous focus units? This question will be addressed in the next chapter.

A Race to the Finish: Evidence of a Hybrid Course

Toward the end of the World War I unit, I created an end of year calendar to diffuse some of the pressure I felt to cover all of the content in the standards. It contained a carefully scripted schedule leading up to the SOL exam on June 8 (see Appendix V). Viking Time would largely be set aside for SOL review and regular class periods would be centered on delivering the minimum content necessary for success on the exam. I would have students bypass lengthy textbook readings, replacing them, instead, with short summaries that focused on key SOL content. This race to the finish was also impacting a curriculum component of the study I discussed in Chapter 3. The culminating historical investigation was pushed aside and, instead, I assigned an SOL and final exam review project which asked students to connect broad unit themes with specific terms and concepts from each unit. After one particularly banal Viking Time SOL review I wrote in my field notes, “I was transparent with [the students] about what we were doing today, why we were doing it, AND how it was markedly different from the investigative source work” (Journal, 4/26/11).

A day earlier, my classroom observer, Karen, sat in on a portion of the final World War I lesson. She noted that it was “very teacher-centered,” as compared to the investigative group work she observed during the Global Encounters and Industrial Revolution units. Her remarks reinforced the emerging picture of dueling purposes and practices in a hybridized course. Earlier in the study, I surveyed the students to determine if they sensed any dramatic shifts as we moved from investigative to more conventional units. While I cannot put too much emphasis on the data collected from these informal surveys, the responses suggest some patterns in the way students were

experiencing the course. Osman’s remarks reflect the comments of several other participants: “We did more student-based work, working in groups, and trying to figure it out ourselves [in the study focus unit]. Now we are listening to you teach us.”

A Summary of Emerging Themes

Data analysis suggests that the teacher researcher faced considerable challenges in implementing an investigative approach to learning about the past. The sheer breadth of the state standards meant that in-depth learning activities centered on the analysis of conflicting sources and the interpretation of competing perspectives necessarily contended with the coverage of discrete objectives and the recall of disparate facts. In the end, the students experienced a hybridized course—some units of study were decidedly investigative in nature, while others depended more heavily on conventional approaches to teaching and learning history. Coverage demands and the pressure to prepare students for a state mandated exam seemed to increase as this test approached at the end of the school year.

Further data analysis has shown that the hybridized course I was seeing in the data was more complex than alternating between an inquiry approach in one unit and more conventional approaches in another. Instead, I was beginning to see that direct teacher presentation, for example, was a valuable strategy used to introduce second-order domain ideas and to contextualize investigations and the source materials student would encounter. In other words, what the literature typically refers to as “conventional” approaches were an essential part of the investigations that were unfolding in my world

history classroom. The difference was the purposes toward which I was directing these teaching practices and the degree to which they shaped the overall learning experience.

In the same vein, the critical history pedagogy I describe above was ultimately about having students develop deeper understandings of the past and themselves. The path we took to get there involved questioning the idea of ready-made interpretations presumably dropped from the sky, but these explorations into the nature of historical knowledge were never an end in and of themselves. They did, however, offer students an organizing apparatus on which to hang their strategic toolkit as they attempted to assemble evidence-based interpretations layered with rich first-order knowledge. So, the investigations, themselves, could be used to “uncover” deep historical knowledge. But this approach took time and competed with the SOL interest in efficiency and breadth of coverage.

Another significant challenge facing the teacher researcher was the lack of experience students had with the kind of thinking involved in analyzing historical sources, exploring multiple perspectives, and writing evidence-based arguments. None of the six primary informants described these strategies as being central to the work they did in previous high school history classes. Compounding this general lack of exposure to historical thinking was the wide range of more general reading and writing skills evident among students involved in the study. Attending to the cultural, linguistic, and academic diversity of the learners in my classroom proved difficult. Teacher researcher memos speak to the persistent challenges and pedagogical dilemmas I faced in this regard.

My own knowledge deficits, in relation to particular curriculum content or historical sources, set limits on the pedagogical moves I could make within certain units.

As I attempt to view my practice with “other eyes” or, rather, to make the familiar strange, I am left feeling like I could have been more judicious about the number of sources utilized and the scope of particular investigations. Additionally, the accountability program pushed by school, district, and state-level organizations helped to create a culture of teaching and learning that should be considered as a significant socialization agent.

Data sources confirm the use of the following structures designed to engage and support my diverse learners in utilizing domain specific tools and strategies:

1. Teacher-guided practice—careful and explicit modeling by the teacher researcher—was essential in leading students to critically question the authorship, purpose, perspective, value, and limitations of a historical source. Source analysis guides and exercises in annotating documents also supported student source work.
2. Scaffolding student-centered investigations—breaking down investigative tasks into doable pieces—was designed to prevent cognitive overloads and build the mental endurance necessary for historical thinking. Targeting specific elements of historical thinking within each unit (e.g., developing evidence-based interpretations, examining multiple perspectives, and assessing source status) and adding to these building blocks in subsequent units was part of this bit-by-bit process. The reality, of course, is that the cognitive acts associated with historical thinking are interconnected and parsing them to make them more digestible is not necessarily consistent with how these thought processes actually unfold.
3. Meta-cognitive learning activities—informal written reflections or discussions—provided students opportunities to think about and articulate their own thought

processes and developing interpretations. These exercises also allowed the teacher researcher to regularly check-in with individuals, groups, or the class as a whole to assess progress.

4. Graphic organizers—visual models of the history domain and the steps involved in classroom investigations—were presented in course materials and posted in public view. They provided students with visible and consistent reference points for the disciplinary tools and strategies they were using. In particular, an evidence-based writing rubric was designed to assist students in developing content-rich and coherent written arguments. In addition, most investigations ended with an exercise that structured the interpretive process for students through the use of mental models and charts. These visual cognitive aids were designed to assist them in organizing evidence to support their claims and considering reasonable limits or counter-arguments.

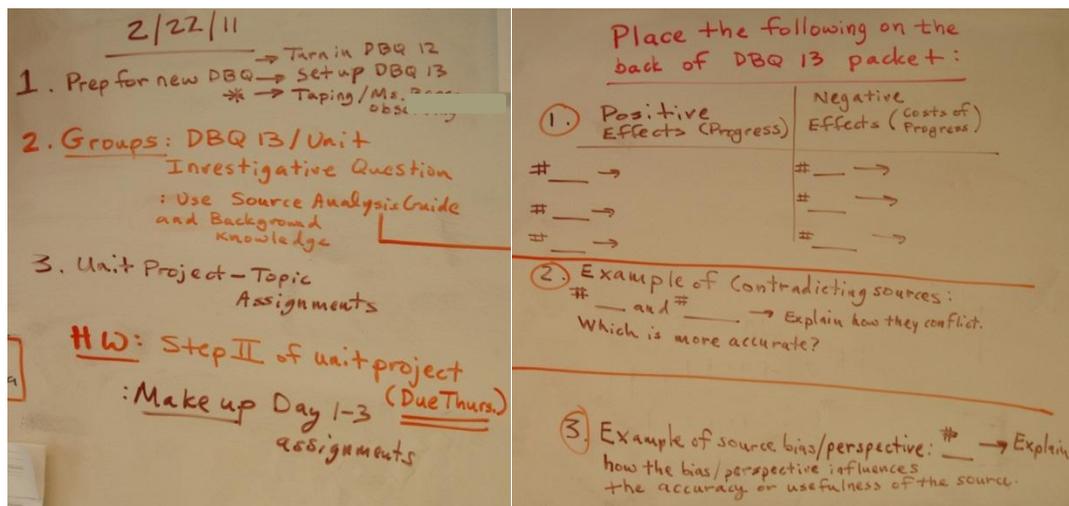
The extent to which these strategies and supports actually facilitated the growth of historical thinking and understanding will be taken up in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CHARTING THE GROWTH OF HISTORICAL THINKING AND UNDERSTANDING: AN ANALYSIS OF STUDENT LEARNING

Figure 5.1 shows the agenda my G9 World History and Geography II students viewed as they walked into class on Tuesday, February 22. It was day five of the Industrial Revolution unit and our first day working on DBQ 13. The focus question for the historical investigation was centered on page one of the document packet I had photocopied for each student: “Evaluate the positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution.” After they picked up their handouts students made their way to the cluster of desks where their group had been working for the previous investigation. A few groups were reorganized because of absences, but for the most part there was consistency in the make-up of these investigative teams. In the front center of the classroom sat Katrina, Cynthia, Jonathan, Juan, and Alicia.

Figure 5.1. Photograph of class agenda for Tuesday, February 22, 2010



After I introduced the extended investigation, students copied the three targeted source analysis tasks (see Figure 5.1) onto the back of the document packet. I reminded the students that Ms. Braxton (Karen) would be observing today and that I would be recording different groups as they did their source work. Alicia's group was the first to be recorded. As facilitator of the group, she is heard explaining source content to her peers and making connections to background knowledge for the group. Jonathon is particularly involved in interrogating the documents. After reading Document 3, an excerpt from The Philosophy of Manufactures (1835) by Andrew Ure (in Noonan, 1999, p. 72), he remarks, "Maybe he is biased toward the factory. Maybe he is a factory owner."

Across the room, I hear Abdul comment on the same source, "Who describes kids working in factories as cheerful?" When I look up to engage him, he offers a wry smile. A few minutes later Juan seeks confirmation from Alicia, "So, Ure describes the kids as unhappy?" She shoots him a disapproving look and barks, "No!" Juan leans over to Alicia's desk to see what she has written under the follow-up question for Document 3. She slides her paper over for him to copy, as if to atone for her abrupt response. "My work is your work," she says. Meanwhile, Cynthia is responding to Alicia's suggestion that the group use the Source Analysis Guide to help them annotate the documents. She utters in an exasperated tone, "I don't feel like writing all that!" Katrina appears to be listening patiently and taking it all in.

I stop the class a few minutes later and observe out loud that in some groups several people are talking, while in other groups only one or two people are involved. "Don't just copy the answers from your classmates," I add. I take a moment to repeat

the comments made by Jonathan and Abdul. "These are the kinds of questions you should be asking. If it raises an eyebrow, circle it and make a note." Alicia returns her group to the task of organizing the evidence from the Ure excerpt. "Well, we're going to say positive effect because to him it was positive." Jonathon misunderstands the thrust of Alicia's remark. Thinking she is offering a broader interpretation of the investigative question, rather than a simple assessment of the evidence in Document 3, he asks, "Do we have to say it was positive?" Once he clarifies Alicia's comment he says, "I guess we can put it in the positive column of the chart." Alicia pushes the point, "What is it showing us? The working conditions for children were not really that harsh." While Alicia is interested in reporting the evidence in the text, Jonathan is ready to probe the subtext. "Totally biased perspective," he emphasizes. "Well, yeah!" she tacks on in a tone that suggests his evaluation is obvious.

Jonathan continues the conversation and it becomes clear that all along he has been assessing the source's reliability in relation to the previous two documents. They contain testimony from child laborers. "In order to take Ure seriously, you would have to read it before you read [the Sadler Commission reports] or were aware of the actual conditions in factories." Alicia confirms this point, "I know what you're saying." Overhearing the group, I jump in, "So, you think he's lying, Jonathan?" Pointing at the testimony in Documents 1 and 2, he responds, "Automatically, yeah, especially after I read these." I counter, "Is it that easy to determine reliability?" Alicia adds, "Well, so far, there's no source that has both perspectives." Looking at the clock, she quickly pages through the remaining documents and announces, "We still have a lot of sources to go." The drone of afternoon announcements interrupts this fruitful exchange and when

the bell rings at 2:00 p.m. a sea of teenagers swells the corridors of Hillendale. As I step outside of Room 214 and into the hallway I am nearly swept away by the current and am reminded of the momentum associated with the “grammar of schooling.”

Introduction

Classroom discourse, like the kind that shaped the vignette above, provides one layer of data that will be used to assess student learning. Dialogue among students, as well as interactions between students and the teacher-researcher, were background elements of the unit by unit sketches detailed in Chapter 4. Examining snapshots of these exchanges should provide insight into students’ familiarity with domain ideas and strategic practices and their comfort level articulating history-specific thinking. The qualitative data from these classroom interactions will be introduced as part of a generalized portrait of student learning at the front end of the chapter. This overview will be framed by a series of tables which highlight the growth of historical thinking and writing from the baseline assessment across the four major data collection points. Student interpretive essay scores and, to a lesser degree, performance on first- and second-order multiple choice items will be analyzed in order to make sense of the broad patterns of change experienced by the class as a whole.

Attention will be given to changes in scores within the five analytic categories outlined in the interpretive essay scoring rubric (see Figure 3.6). These categories are listed below with abbreviations that will be used in presenting student learning data:

1. Developing evidence-based interpretations (DEBI)
2. Examining multiple perspectives (EMP)

3. Analyzing sources—assessing origin, purpose, value, and limitations (OPVL)
4. Demonstrating detailed and accurate content knowledge (DACK)
5. Organizing and presenting an argument (OPA)

Each of the five categories is scaled with a range of 0 to 4. Individual scores within analytic categories were added to produce a raw score out of 20 points for each interpretive essay in the assessment series.

In discussing assessment results I refer to raw scores (0-20) and, at times, to the category ranges applied to holistic readings of the essays (see Ch. 3, p. 93). The parameters of these ranges are as follows: 20-17 = 4; 16-13 = 3; 12-8 = 2; 7-4 = 1; 3-0 = 0. For example, a raw score of 13/20 would be in the 3 range. However, in reporting out unit-to-unit scores in the data tables, I discovered that I needed to see a more precise trajectory than the general category ranges could offer. In the tables, then, I use both average raw scores and average scores in relation to the 0-4 rubric. A 13 raw score ($13/20 = .65$ or 65%) would translate into a rubric average of 2.6 (.65 of 4 or $.65 \times 4 = 2.6$). To the extent possible, I will also explore the relationships between the first-order item results (measured as percentages), the second-order results (weighted multiple choice items measured individually, with a range of 0 to 4, and by unit total, range 0 to 20), and the strategic knowledge scores (as evidenced by performance on the interpretive essay).

The changes described by both the qualitative and quantitative data will be mapped onto the teaching strategies and learning supports added, emphasized, or removed in the four focus units described in Chapter 4. Particular attention will be given to a comparison of scores within inquiry-based units (Points 1-3) and Point 4 scores, the

latter collected as part of the World War I assessment. It was during this more conventional unit that most of the strategies and supports which progressively scaffolded and assisted student learning in the investigative units, were taken away. Interviews with the primary informants raised questions about self-assessed learning outcomes and the value of particular supports in facilitating growth. This data, along with classroom observer notes and samples of student writing will be used to crystallize (Janesick, 2000) emerging trends in student learning.

After discussing general patterns of change for the study sample as a whole, I will group participants according to shared trajectories across the four major data points. These groupings will be examined alongside of other forms of data in order to determine if the experiences of grouped participants align or cohere in other ways, as well. This level of analysis will allow me to speak about the learning experiences of particular kinds of students as they interacted with the critical history pedagogy and the hybrid nature of the course. Trend lines evidenced in the group trajectories will eventually be explored at the level of individual students, primarily the principal informants.

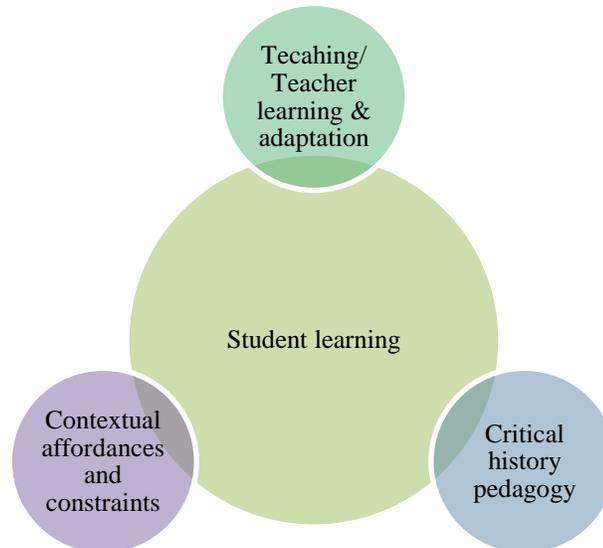
These individual cases of change will be illustrated using representative samples of student writing from the interpretive essay tasks and interview data. In an effort to faithfully represent student work and to show the range of writing levels in the class, I have not amended student writing. As a general rule, spelling, grammatical, and sentence structure errors have been left alone. Although the analysis will focus on the writing of the principal informants and their use of instructional supports, exceptions will be examined where relevant. The role of teacher feedback will also be explored, especially its capacity to facilitate progression (Brit et al., 2000).

With student learning foregrounded (see Figure 5.2) in the three-tiered analysis described above, the third research question outlined in Chapter 1 will be the focus of the chapter:

- How will the full range of student participants interact with the instructional activities I create and what will the outcomes of these interactions be?
 - a. To what extent do students grow in their ability to think historically and develop deep(er) historical understandings?
 - b. What are the relationships between the different types of domain knowledge (for example, first order, second order, and strategic knowledge—see typology in Chapter 1) evidenced in student learning/assessment tasks?
 - c. How do students who experience this course do on the SOL exam relative to the students who took this same course with me last year?

Because of problems associated with the instruments used to assess student learning related to first- and second-order knowledge, subset question (b) above will receive less attention here. However, this concern will be taken up in Chapter 6 where I consider the limits of the study. Subset question (c) will also be addressed more directly in Chapter 6 in a discussion of implications related to assessment practices. Before providing an overview of student learning as evidenced by assessment scores in the time series, I lay out a normative framework for how students might perform on the baseline measure.

Figure 5.2. Figure-ground relationship focusing the presentation of findings in Chapter 5



Using Progression Models to Project Baseline Results

In Chapter 4 I utilized a researched-based model of progression (Lee & Ashby, 2000) to analyze and understand my students' initial conceptions of history and their developing ideas after the introductory historiography lessons. A copy of that progression model is included in Figure 5.3. It specifically outlines how students' ideas about accounts and their relationship to the past progress. Similar models have been used to map students' developing understandings between the ages of seven and fourteen years in relation to other second-order concepts, like causation and evidence (Lee & Shemildt, 2003). These models, along with a series of studies discussed in the literature review, were influential in shaping a set of reasonable expectations about how my students might perform on the baseline assessment. In addition, recent studies focused on epistemic

cognition in history (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004; Maggioni, VanSledright, & Alexander, 2009) and books on assessment practices aligned with a disciplinary learning model (VanSledright, 2011, Ch. 6 and 2014), have theorized epistemic stances or positions which offer analytic leverage when applied to student interpretive essays.

Project Chata study data for school-age children, seven to fourteen years-old, have shown that learners at the lower end of that age spectrum tend to view history as isomorphic to the past (Lee & Ashby, 2000). The role they ascribe to the historian is that of a faithful reporter, copying or compiling information. The result for them is a direct correspondence between what happened in the past and the stories that are told about it. This conception of history aligns with a set of epistemic beliefs that has been referred to as the *copier* stance (Maggioni, VanSledright, & Alexander, 2009). It is analogous to the *naïve realist* position (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004) and reflects the assumptions of a *passive-knower* (VanSledright, 2014).

VanSledright (2002) initially observed a level of “naïve trust” exhibited by the fifth-graders in his teacher-researcher study (p. 249). However, teacher-research studies at the middle school (see Stout, 2004) and high school (see Bain, 2000) levels suggest that older students may also hold on to beliefs born out of an epistemological fundamentalism. This makes sense given the degree of individual variability within particular age groups (Lee & Ashby, 2000) and the minimal attention typically given to disciplinary learning in U.S. primary and secondary schools.

Figure 5.3. Progression models used to project baseline scores and analyze student

writing

Progression in Students' Ideas About Accounts and Their Relation to the Past (from Lee & Ashby, 2000, p. 212)	Students' Use of Multiple Accounts in Constructing Arguments*
<p>The past as given. Stories are about the same thing. The story is equivalent to something “out there.”</p> <p>The past as inaccessible. We can't know—we weren't there. Nothing can be known. Differences in accounts are a result of lack of direct access to the past.</p> <p>The past as determining stories. Stories are fixed by the information available; there is a one-to-one correspondence. Differences in accounts are a result of gaps in information and mistakes.</p> <p>The past as reported in a more or less biased way. Shift of focus from the story and reports to the author as active contributor. Differences in accounts are a result of distortion (in the form of lies, bias, exaggeration, dogmatism); the problem is not just lack of information.</p> <p>The past as selected and organized from a viewpoint. Stories are written (perhaps necessarily) from a legitimate position held by the author. Differences in accounts are a result of selection. Stories are not copies of the past.</p> <p>The past as (re-)constructed in answer to questions in accordance with criteria. Shift of focus from the author's position and choice, to the nature of accounts as such. It is in the nature of accounts to differ.</p>	<p>Avoider: barely attempts the task either because working with so many documents is too confusing/difficult and/or because “we can't know” a past that is inaccessible.</p> <p>Copier: may indiscriminately “copy” from documents since history is equivalent to the past and there is a direct correspondence between what happened and the stories that are told about it. The result is a short, terse essay that is one sided, unidirectional, and simplistic.</p> <p>Borrower: may “borrow” from various documents in order to make up for mistakes, gaps, or biased reporting. This “additive” approach often amounts to a compiling of information/testimony from different sources or a rationalized subjectivity/relativism because all authors have the capacity to distort and history is a matter of opinion.</p> <p>Criterialist: uses disciplinary criteria in handling evidence from multiple accounts in order to answer specific historical questions. The result is a finely textured and nuanced interpretation carefully bound by the historical context under consideration.</p> <p>*Adapted from the epistemic stances theorized by Maggioni, VanSledright, and Alexander (2009), pp. 195-196.</p>

Given that my students were novices who reported little to no experience engaging in the “unnatural acts” (Wineburg, 1991) associated with historical thinking, I reasonably expected some of them to perform on the baseline assessment in ways that reflected a belief structure associated with the *copier* stance. Their journal responses to my initial “What is history?” query also pointed in this direction. On the interpretive essay task, the *copier* might indiscriminately copy from one or more documents as a way to capture what they perceive as the reality of the past contained in the texts. They would likely produce a raw score in the 4-7 range. I anticipated that a few of my students, including some of those in the ESOL program and others reading below grade level, would find the interpretive essay task so confusing or difficult that they would avoid it altogether, resulting in a raw score between 0 and 3. These *avoiders*, as I have referred to them in Figure 5.3, might give up after writing a few sentences or, because they lacked a framework for dealing with multiple (and conflicting) accounts, might not even attempt the task.

Lee and Ashby (2000) point to a major shift that occurred for many of the older students in their study. These students began to acknowledge the active role played by historians and other authors of accounts. With a nod toward partisanship, these students view differences in accounts not simply as a product of gaps in the record or mistakes in reporting, but also as the result of authorial bias. When presented with multiple accounts that differ, these *borrowers* would likely employ an additive approach, compiling information and testimony from different sources in order to create the “best” possible story about the past (Maggioni, VanSledright, and Alexander, 2009, p. 195).

This stance may be the product of dichotomous thinking, “where beliefs in the unmediated nature of historical knowledge accompany a view of history as prevalently subjective” (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004, p. 188), however, *borrowers* who put more emphasis on the subjective nature of historical knowledge may stake out a relativist or overactive-knower (VanSledright, 2014) position. In other words, they believe history is essentially a matter of opinion. The borrower who selects bits and pieces of information or testimony from different sources would likely produce a raw score in the range of 8 to 12. I expected many of my students to perform in this range, especially considering the pendulum swing in their thinking after the initial historiography unit.

Given that most of my students had studied the causes of the “fall” of Rome (the focus of the baseline interpretive essay) in the previous year and a handful were “A” students who reported doing well in their freshman history course and in honors English classes, I expected a few of them to cut and paste more selectively, resulting in a raw score between 13 and 16. Even though they might not be consciously applying disciplinary criteria, their writing might, nonetheless, reflect elements of a *criterialist* position (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004). I did not expect any of them to be deeply familiar with the constructed nature of historical knowledge or the development of reasonable interpretations in the face of conflicting evidence, both of which are criteria-structured beliefs (VanSledright, 2014). Therefore, a raw score of 17-20 on the baseline interpretive essay task was unlikely given who my students were and what the research literature demonstrates about the progression of adolescents’ domain ideas and faculties.

An important clarification needs to be made as to how I am using the terminology (e.g., *copier, borrower, and criterialist*) from earlier studies of epistemic cognition in history. I am not applying these classifications to students' interpretive essays as a way to measure the epistemic beliefs of the study participants. The rubric instrument I have constructed is not specifically designed to do that. Rather, I am suggesting that my students' written arguments (or portions, thereof) and corresponding scores, may reflect the kind of second-order and strategic knowledge associated with one or more of the epistemic stances described in the literature.

Baseline Assessment Results

On September 21, in the third week of school, students completed the baseline assessment on Ancient Rome and Christianity. I chose this era because it figures prominently in the standards for World History and Geography I, which most of my students took in the academic year prior to the study. I reasoned that if they had some foundation of substantive knowledge, they could more easily demonstrate (and I more easily gauge) what, if any, strategic moves they could make in the process of constructing a written argument. For purposes of the study design, I would like to have assigned the task earlier, especially before the lessons on historiography. A few factors prompted me to delay.

First, there were so many changes to my class roster in the first two weeks that it seemed prudent to wait until the flow of students in and out of the classroom subsided. Additionally, it was important for me to establish a relationship with the students before I gave them a potentially difficult "test," one that I hoped they would take seriously.

Finally, there was the issue of momentum and time. Even in the first few weeks of school, I was acutely attuned to the curriculum clepsydra (see Chritchley, 2010). The baseline assessment would take almost an entire class period. Would this be time taken from Renaissance curriculum content or the introduction to historiography, or, even, the more affective exercises in getting to know the students? At the time, I felt tension between my roles as teacher and researcher. From my vantage point as a researcher, I expected to collect baseline data before the intervention started. As a teacher I seemed to be privileging instruction and viewing it as something separate from assessment. Eventually I learned to blend these roles more effectively and, now, I more fully appreciate the importance of assessment as a powerful diagnostic tool for teachers and researchers, alike (see VanSledright, 2011).

Students responded to the following question: What caused the fall of the Western Roman Empire? This document-based question was adapted from one included in the *Document-Based Assessment Activities for Global History* (Noonan, 1999, pp. 6-9). Demonstrating an appreciation for multi-causal explanations, a criterialist response would likely consider how long-term contributing factors worked in combination with more immediate causes to cement the collapse of a gradually and steadily declining empire. This would involve an assessment of those documents dealing with issues of internal decay (Documents 1-5), as well as the map showing invasions by Germanic tribes and Huns (Document 6). Since the geographical and historical context (Western Roman Empire) was narrowed by the question under consideration and none of the documents offered evidence about the survival of the eastern half of the empire or the

development of a new medieval culture with roots in Roman tradition, I considered these reasonable counterarguments beyond the scope of this particular question.

Table 5.4 shows participant (N = 16) interpretive essay scores for the baseline assessment. The majority of raw scores (ten students in all) were in the 8-12 range, four students scored in the 4-7 range, and one student each produced raw scores of 1 and 13. The average raw score was 8.75 (and a 1.75 average based on the 0-4 rubric). This distribution made sense given what the research literature says about the progression of adolescents' domain ideas and school related history experiences. Student baseline assessment scores on the five second-order weighted multiple-choice items (WMC's) ranged from 6 (out of 20) to 14. The raw average was 9.94 (or 1.99 on the 0-4 range) for the conceptual knowledge items, demonstrating closeness to the strategic knowledge measure.

Juan's performance fit the profile of the *avoider* (see Figure 5.3) and resulted in the only score within the 0-3 range. He wrote a single sentence that took up five lines of the loose leaf paper. He essentially copied the first sentence of the first document then stopped writing. Katrina and Abdul were two of the four students who produced raw scores in the 4-7 range. Here is a portion of Katrina's half-page response: "The fall of Rome started when too many of the Germanic tribes invaded Rome. The fall of Rome also had an influence on Christianity. Tribes like the Huns, Franks, Northmen, invaded Rome and led them to the downfall of Rome." Katrina attempts to make sense of some of the documents which allude to Rome's internal problems, but this part of her essay is jumbled and confused. For her, it was the invasions of the Germanic tribes that led to the downfall of the empire. This may have been a practical decision. Whereas the written

texts (Documents 1-5) may have impeded her understanding, she appears to have greater cognitive access to the map of the Germanic invasions (Document 6), elevating its status for the purpose of writing the interpretive essay. In later interviews, Katrina confirmed that she often struggled to read and understand the written sources in the time allotted to complete the assessment.

For Abdul, “common sense” appears to play a role in his assessment and helps explain his raw score of 7. Downplaying Edward Gibbon’s well-known interpretation (in Document 2), he wrote, “Religion can’t be the fall of a country or establishment.” Instead, he placed singular emphasis on the economic crisis. “I don’t think anything else was the reason for the fall of Rome except for [economic problems].” Katrina’s essay clearly fits within the parameters of the *copier* position, while Abdul’s brief, unidirectional response appears to reflect both unmediated and subjective views of history (Maggioni, Alexander, & VanSledright, 2004).

Veronica produces a well-structured essay and, although she does not cite particular sources, she mentions evidence from four different documents. She tries to connect the sources with this additive approach, piecing together a narrative about internal problems compounded by outside pressure: “Do to the lack of solder [evidence from Document 5] much of this empire was conquered. Huns, Visigoths, Franks.....were some of the Empires to conquer” [evidence from Document 6]. She even takes a stand (“the main reason why the empire fell was because of the invasions”) and acknowledges her subjective role in the selection process (“in my opinion” and “the first cause I chose”). Her choices do not appear to be criteria-structured; rather she compiles (or *borrow*s) bits of information from different sources, resulting in a raw score of 10. Like

many of her classmates, she mixes past and presentist perspectives. For example, in her closing sentence she writes, “People were ready for change, to stop living in the past.”

Table 5.4. Historical knowledge scores for Ancient Rome/Christianity (Baseline)

Students (N = 16)	DEBI	EMP	OPVL	DACK	OPA	Raw Scores (R = 0-20) Rubric Avg. (R = 0-4)	1 st order % correct (R=0-100)	2 nd order WMC's (R=0-20)
1. Ayana	4	2	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	100	9
2. Kyle	2	3	2	2	3	12 (2.4)	60	14
3. David	2	2	2	2	3	11 (2.2)	100	8
4. Patricia	2	2	2	2	3	11 (2.2)	87	6
5. Jennifer	3	2	2	2	2	11 (2.2)	80	8
6. Jonathon	3	2	2	1	2	10 (2.0)	60	12
7. Alicia	2	2	2	2	2	10 (2.0)	47	10
8. Veronica	2	2	2	2	2	10 (2.0)	80	14
9. Jessica	2	2	2	2	2	10 (2.0)	87	8
10. Bryan	2	2	1	1	2	8 (1.6)	73	7
11. Alex	2	2	1	1	2	8 (1.6)	67	14
12. Abdul	2	1	2	1	1	7 (1.4)	33	7
13. Cynthia	2	2	1	1	1	7 (1.4)	53	8
14. Andrew	1	1	1	1	2	6 (1.2)	80	12
15. Katrina	1	1	1	1	1	5 (1.0)	80	10
16. Juan	1	0	0	0	0	1 (0.2)	40	12
Avg. by analytic category (R = 0-4)	2.06	1.75	1.56	1.44	1.94	8.75 (1.75)	67.5	9.94 (1.99)

Participants listed in descending order by score on baseline.
Range (R) for DEBI, EMP, OPVL, DACK, and OPA = 0-4

In many ways, Kyle had the most sophisticated response. He is the only one to explicitly assess the value of the documents, as a whole, offering evidence of “internal and external problems” and stating as much in his thesis. He also links up the sources he uses with the argument he is making, rather than simply letting the documents speak for themselves. After briefly discussing four “internal conflicts” in his introduction, he explains: “Finally the Germanic tribes came in and conquered a weakened state of Rome.” The brevity of his written response and an overly-simplified closing (“but in the end it was inevitable”) detracts from the complexity of his argument. He earned a raw score of 12 and I figured he could easily be moved into the higher category ranges in subsequent unit assessments.

Ayana tallied 13 points, the highest score on the baseline assessment. In many ways her essay follows the contours of the borrower approach described above. She mentions “religious issues, economic crisis, and military problems” as “main reasons why the empire crashed.” She quotes from the documents and cites them, something none of her classmates did, and uses evidence from five sources to construct an argument. After she compiles and compares the evidence she has marshaled, Ayana writes in her last sentence, “The biggest issue was the money problem. All the issues [described in the sources] eventually led to the lack of money & the economic crisis.” Her score fell within the low-end of the 3 range (13) because she ignores the immediate impact of the Germanic invasions. Some of the elements in the writing of Kyle and Ayana suggest criteria-structured beliefs. However, as a whole, student writing on the baseline interpretive essay seems to reflect naïve-realist and subjective views of history and the

range of scores for both the conceptual and strategic knowledge measures demonstrate the kind of variability the literature says can exist at any age level (Lee & Ashby, 2000).

Mapping Assessment Results onto Instructional Supports:

An Overview of Student Learning

In this section I examine participant assessment scores across the four major data collection points in order to illustrate a general picture of student learning. This trajectory will be mapped onto the specific instructional supports utilized during the four focus units of the study and the overall shape and function of those units. Tables 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7 allow a comparison of unit-to-unit assessment scores for strategic, conceptual, and substantive knowledge measures, respectively. Appendix W provides a more detailed breakdown of unit interpretive essay scores by analytic category. In addition, the tables presented there allow for a side by side comparison of performance on items measuring different types of historical knowledge—first-order, second-order, and strategic—within a particular unit. While representative writing samples will be presented in the last section of the chapter, I do examine a handful of excerpts here where they specifically support developing interpretations related to the class as a whole.

Data Point 1: Historiography and Renaissance Assessment

The Renaissance assessment was given in the first week of October. Students were asked to answer the following question: To what extent was the Renaissance a “golden age” that ushered in (brought) new ideas and values to European society? I did not expect my students to be familiar with the long and complex historiography connected to the Renaissance. However, we did discuss the skepticism by which some

investigators view the periodization scheme popularized by 19th century historians, like Jacob Burchhardt (Document 5 in Noonan, 1999). In addition, students had access to evidence (e.g., the social history feature from their textbook and the Waugh source, Document 6 in Noonan, 1999) that ran counter to the dominant themes we explored during the unit. A criteria-structured response would likely make an argument about the new ideas and values reflected in the cultural artifacts of the time period. After all, these trends were a major curricular and instructional focus. Still, the language used to present this case would be conditional, so as to account for counter-arguments that question the timing and scope of this so-called intellectual and artistic “rebirth.”

Table 5.5 shows participant (N = 16) raw scores for the Renaissance interpretive essay. Every participant, minus one, showed growth in one or more of the analytic categories from the baseline assessment to the first data collection point (see Appendix W for a breakdown of unit scores by analytic category). Those experiencing gains demonstrated a range of increases in their raw scores (from 1 to 7 points), with the average increase being 3.88 points. This change represents the largest movement up or down from one point to the next in the assessment series. Qualitative data suggests that the specific supports and scaffolding provided by the teacher during the Renaissance unit likely accounted for some of these gains. This initial post-intervention surge was accompanied by a 1.13 increase in the raw second-order knowledge score (see Table 5.6 for a comparison of conceptual knowledge scores). However, it was too early to confirm real conceptual knowledge growth versus improved proficiency in employing history-specific “skills” (see Lee & Ashby, 2000, p. 14).

Table 5.5. Participant interpretive essay scores and sample averages for each data point

Participants (N =16)	Fall of Rome (Baseline)	Renaissance (Point 1)	Global Encounters (Point 2)	Industrial Revolution (Point 3)	World War I (Point 4)
1. Ayana	13 (2.6)	19 (3.8)	18 (3.6)	16 (3.2)	18 (3.6)
2. Kyle	12 (2.4)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)	15 (3.0)	11 (2.2)
3. David	11 (2.2)	13 (2.6)	11 (2.2)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)
4. Patricia	11 (2.2)	15 (3.0)	18 (3.6)	17 (3.4)	17 (3.4)
5. Jennifer	11 (2.2)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	14 (2.8)
6. Jonathon	10 (2.0)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)	15 (3.0)	13 (2.6)
7. Alicia	10 (2.0)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)	17 (3.4)	18 (3.6)
8. Veronica	10 (2.0)	15 (3.0)	15 (3.0)	16 (3.2)	15 (3.0)
9. Jessica	10 (2.0)	13 (2.6)	13 (2.6)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)
10. Bryan	8 (1.6)	13 (2.6)	8 (1.6)	14 (2.8)	14 (2.8)
11. Alex	8 (1.6)	13 (2.6)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)
12. Abdul	7 (1.4)	12 (2.4)	9 (1.8)	12 (2.4)	7 (1.4)
13. Cynthia	7 (1.4)	11 (2.2)	9 (1.8)	14 (2.8)	8 (1.6)
14. Andrew	6 (1.2)	11 (2.2)	8 (1.6)	10 (2.0)	8 (1.6)
15. Katrina	5 (1.0)	9 (1.8)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	12 (2.4)
16. Juan	1 (0.2)	8 (1.6)	8 (1.6)	12 (2.4)	6 (1.2)
Raw avg. by unit (R = 0-20):	8.75	12.63	12.19	14.13	12.50
Rubric avg. by unit (R = 0-4):	(1.75)	(2.53)	(2.44)	(2.82)	(2.50)

Participants listed in descending order by score on baseline; R = Range.
For raw scores, R = 0-20; for rubric averages, R = 0-4

There was a 0.94 increase in the average DEBI score, the biggest surge from one point to the next in any category. The instructional focus on developing evidence-based interpretations using a simplified conceptual model likely impacted the positive performance in this analytic category. Average EMP and DACK scores also evidenced relatively sharp increases, each showing a +0.81 difference in relation to the baseline. The 0.63 increase in the source analysis (OPVL) category was not because of any detailed source work we did in the unit. Instead, our surface level exploration of source origin and value gave students practice in identifying an account's author by name and the relationship of the evidence to established historical trends and generalizations. Average OPA scores experienced a +0.69 change. In fact, this represented the highest score in that category for any of the focus units, suggesting that the extra guidance in organizing evidence and writing thesis sentences offered at the end of the unit helped students structure their arguments (see Appendix W for a breakdown of scores by analytic category).

Although it was not the least investigative focus unit (World War I was) it was a scaled down or simplified version of later investigations. Adding the controversy after establishing broad trends or themes may have been a contributing factor in helping students to make sense of conflicting evidence. In other words, the interpretive process was more layered and, thus, easier to digest. The mean percentage score for first-order knowledge in this unit was also higher than any other unit (see Table 5.7). This makes sense given that the amount of first-order curriculum content associated with the Renaissance was thin compared to later focus units and many of the ideas overlapped

strands in the World History and Geography I curriculum which most students had studied at the end of their freshman year.

Table 5.6. Raw scores (R = 0-20), rubric averages (R = 0-4,) and unit averages for conceptual knowledge items (WMC's)

Students (N = 16)	Fall of Rome (Baseline)	Renaissance (Point 1)	Industrial Revolution (Point 3)	World War I (Point 4)
1. Kyle	14 (2.8)	10 (2.0)	11 (2.2)	12 (2.4)
2. Veronica	14 (2.8)	9 (1.8)	13 (2.6)	12 (2.4)
3. Alex	14 (2.8)	11 (2.2)	12 (2.4)	10 (2.0)
4. Juan	12 (2.4)	10 (2.0)	20 (4.0)	17 (3.4)
5. Jonathon	12 (2.4)	10 (2.0)	11 (2.2)	16 (3.2)
6. Andrew	12 (2.4)	14 (2.8)	-	14 (2.8)
7. Alicia	10 (2.0)	12 (2.4)	12 (2.4)	12 (2.4)
8. Katrina	10 (2.0)	-	14 (2.8)	11 (2.2)
9. Ayana	9 (1.8)	9 (1.8)	9 (1.8)	12 (2.4)
10. Cynthia	8 (1.6)	14 (2.8)	15 (3.0)	16 (3.2)
11. Jennifer	8 (1.6)	13 (2.6)	15 (3.0)	14 (2.8)
12. David	8 (1.6)	10 (2.0)	8 (1.6)	12 (2.4)
13. Jessica	8 (1.6)	15 (3.0)	10 (2.0)	10 (2.0)
14. Abdul	7 (1.4)	-	10 (2.0)	12 (2.4)
15. Bryan	7 (1.4)	9 (1.8)	7 (1.4)	9 (1.8)
16. Patricia	6 (1.2)	9 (1.8)	9 (1.8)	8 (1.6)
Raw avg. by unit (R = 0-20):	9.94	11.07	11.73	12.31
Rubric avg. by unit (R = 0-4):	(1.99)	(2.21)	(2.35)	(2.46)

Participants listed in descending order by score on baseline; R = Range
For raw scores, R = 0-20; for rubric averages, R = 0-4

Data Point 2: Age of Exploration and Global Encounters Assessment

Students took the Age of Exploration and Global Encounters Assessment on November 17. The following prompt guided our unit investigation: “The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. Evaluate the results of the encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative?” This question required students to consider three different perspectives on the Columbian encounter and to integrate these perspectives in the process of developing an evidence-based interpretation rooted in the specific historical episodes that were the focus of unit lessons. The challenge of constructing a criterialist response lay in articulating the interconnectedness of the experiences of say, European colonial administrators, Native American survivors of Spanish conquest, and newly arrived chattel from the Trans-Atlantic slave trade (not to mention the diversity of experiences within a particular cultural group or geographic locale).

As Table 5.5 demonstrates, there was no net gain in participant raw scores from the first to the second data collection point. In fact, a comparison of mean scores shows a 0.44 decrease. While some students demonstrated modest increases in their raw scores (five students), the majority of participants either experienced slight decreases (seven students) or no change (four students). The fact that some initial supports were taken away during the second unit under investigation may account for these results. For example, although students brainstormed possible thesis statements during our unit review session, I did not provide scripted argument starters as I did during the

Renaissance unit. This may partially account for the 0.13 decrease in the OPA mean score. Still, not all of the supports were taken away.

Table 5.7. Percentage scores for substantive knowledge items

Students (N = 16) % correct	Fall of Rome (Baseline)	Renaissance (Point 1)	Global Encounters (Point 2)	Industrial Revolution (Point 3)	World War I (Point 4)	Avg. scores by student (R = 0-100)
1. David	100	90	91	90	92	92.6
2. Andrew	80	93	97	90	95	91.0
3. Ayana	100	97	77	93	88	91.0
4. Bryan	73	93	91	90	85	86.4
5. Jonathon	60	97	97	83	85	84.4
6. Veronica	80	87	74	93	83	83.4
7. Alicia	47	83	94	97	93	82.8
8. Jessica	87	87	74	83	70	80.2
9. Patricia	87	87	69	93	53	77.8
10. Alex	67	90	74	70	88	77.8
11. Jennifer	80	73	77	83	70	76.6
12. Cynthia	53	100	89	77	43	72.4
13. Katrina	80	73	69	57	55	66.8
14. Kyle	60	87	66	60	65	67.6
15. Juan	40	57	63	50	48	51.6
16. Abdul	33	73	40	63	40	49.8
Average scores by unit (R = 0-100)	67.5	85.4	77.6	79.5	72.1	77.0

Participants listed in descending order by average score; Range (R) = 0-100

Results within other analytic categories, interviews with primary informants, as well as teacher-researcher memos and classroom observer notes suggest that there were other factors at work. Of all the units with an investigative focus, this unit had the lowest

percentage score (77.6%) for first-order items (see Table 5.7). In a progress check in the middle of the Global Encounters unit, several students expressed frustration with the amount of first-order knowledge in this unit as compared to the Renaissance. In their journals (on 11/5/10) both Katrina and Ayana allude to the dense and confusing curricular content related to European exploration and the world after 1500. In a follow-up interview with Katrina, I asked her about this comment in her journal. She remarked, “I just didn’t understand the different explorers and the routes [they travelled].” Katrina was referring to a geographical mapping exercise I had students complete for the seven explorers and conquistadores listed in the standards. Ayana had more difficulty with the Muslim and East Asian empires we briefly examined in an SOL summary reading and Power Point presentation (Interviews, 12/1/10).

Both content areas mentioned by these principle informants were treated during instruction largely as they were represented in the standards, as discrete objectives. In other words, they were mostly peripheral to the unit investigation. On the whole, students performed better on the first-order items related to content standards which were more central to the unit investigation, including the triangular trade, the middle passage, and the Columbian exchange. Still, other data points to the struggles students faced with regard to understanding substantive knowledge connected to the Columbian encounter, even when those terms and concepts were introduced in the immediate context of our investigation.

It was during her observation of student source work in this unit that Karen, the classroom observer, voiced concern with the level of historical understanding being demonstrated by some of the investigative teams. Karen specifically mentioned students’

shallow comprehension of the *encomienda* system. Acting upon this perceived knowledge deficit, Karen stepped out of her role as classroom observer and began to fill in for the students what she saw as substantive knowledge gaps. A sample of interpretive essays suggests that, by the end of the unit, most students were still not comfortable employing this terminology. All of the primary informants referred to Indian slavery in their responses. However, none of them, except Ayana, mentioned the *encomienda* system by name. Even Ayana failed to accurately discuss its significance.

There were signs, however, that Ayana and some of her classmates were using readings and evidence-based paragraph responses done for homework to build basic content knowledge. In discussing the transition from Indian to African labor in the colonies, Ayana wrote in her essay:

Although disease brought by the Europeans did not affect Africans they were still negatively affected. There was [a] major slave trade through the Trans-Atlantic slave trade. West Africans were taken by force to work on farms and plantations. They were mainly chosen because they had been exposed to European diseases, they were familiar with plantation labor, and they were less likely to run away since they were unfamiliar with the land in the Americas.

Although she does not mention the economic and race-based motives of European traders (and the merchants and rulers who were their African counterparts) she is applying substantive content learned in the unit. In particular, she is paraphrasing a paragraph in the textbook, which she read as part of a homework assignment. Since homework completion was not stellar for the class as a whole, I found that most first-order terms and concepts had to be reinforced both within the context of the investigative work we were

doing and during more rudimentary review exercises. Teacher researcher memos point to the importance of reinforcing substantive knowledge using a variety of learning experiences.

The Global Encounters rubric averages for DEBI (2.69) and EMP (2.50) were the lowest of any of the focus units, and showed a decrease of 0.31 and 0.06, respectively, in relation to Point 1 (Renaissance) scores (see Appendix W). Even though some supports were taken away, other types of scaffolding were added, suggesting that students were no less supported as compared to the initial investigative unit. In addition to the density of curricular content in this unit, the complexity of the interpretive process (as compared to the simplified model—see Figure 4.4—presented during the Renaissance unit) may have impeded the integration of diverse perspectives. In the Renaissance unit students were exposed to a number of sources which seemed to manifest similar themes. It was not until these historical generalizations were firmly entrenched that I introduced evidence that did not “fit.” Integrating two conflicting “perspectives” seemed more manageable for most students.

In contrast, the Global Encounters unit required students to sift through a multitude of accounts, which seemed to be saying slightly, if not radically, different things about a range of experiences related to three cultural groups. During a review session, we did go through a detailed exercise in organizing evidence from the unit investigation by region (Europe, Africa, and the Americas) and by effect (positive, negative, or both). All of the primary informants, minus Juan and Kyle, copied this organizational model and included it with their assessment materials. It is not clear that those who included it actually internalized its assumptions or were equipped with the

background knowledge or strategic skills necessary to translate it into a nuanced interpretation. Integrating the three regional perspectives or points of view was understandably challenging for my novices.

The sheer number of sources examined in the Global Encounters unit might have added to a history that was more jumbled. The introduction of additional domain ideas and practices new to most students, while designed to help them organize and make sense of these documents, might have been difficult to assimilate. The OPVL mean score did creep up slightly (+0.12) from Point 1 (Renaissance) to Point 2 (Global Encounters) and the initial exercises in detailed source analysis showed that, with the support of a source analysis guide, students were getting practice engaging in history-specific analytical thinking. They appeared to give more time and space to source analysis when they could focus on one source at a time, like they did for two separate homework assignments in the unit. And despite my initial disappointment with the sparse use of the Source Analysis Chart, an analysis of student work after the processing of the Centers Activity and interview data from primary informants showed that they utilized it more than I had imagined.

All of the primary informants, except Kyle, included it in their end-of-unit assessment materials. Ayana, Veronica, and Katrina each filled out the chart for the *Broken Spears* and Gustavas Vasa accounts. Veronica also analyzed excerpts from Columbus' log and did a cursory analysis of a fourth source. Figure 5.8 shows Ayana's attempt to use the mnemonic device (OHIPPVL) in filling out her chart for the Aztec account of the Spanish conquest. On a separate sheet of paper she rewrote her analysis with minor changes as a single list without the complicated linguistic "helpers." She did

something similar with the Vasa account. This level of preparation likely aided her as she responded to the interpretive essay prompt. Her 4 OPVL score confirms improved strategic practices related to source analysis.

Figure 5.8. Portion of Ayana’s source chart used during Global Encounters assessment

Source Title and Background	Origin —Who is the author(s) and who are they? Historical Context —When and where was the source created? Identification —What kind of source is it?	Purpose and Perspective —Why was the source created? What is the author’s perspective? How might their perspective impact the content of the source?	Value —What does the source say or show? Is it an accurate or fair portrayal of historical figures or events? How does it help us answer the investigative question?	Limitations —What about this source needs to be questioned? Why should we use caution when using this source as potential evidence?
Broken Spears	O—surviving Aztecs working with Spanish priests. When?—>early to mid 1500’s Where?—>Americas (Mexico) I—>Primary	P—>to get the perspective of the Aztecs P—>1 st person perspective How? ->might have been exaggerated since it was them being conquered	V—>shows the account of the Aztecs good evidence on religion, disease, and comparing technology	L = pictures role of Spanish priests

Katrina also appeared to be gaining valuable practice using the sourcing heuristic. Figure 5.9 shows “her” analysis of the Vasa account, a narrative description of the middle passage written by a former slave. These work products were the result of “extra” class time given to transfer notes from the Group Centers Activity handout to the Source Analysis Chart. In isolation, both high and low performing students demonstrated that they could plug in an algorithm for source analysis (OHIPPVL). However, assessment results show that they needed a lot of background knowledge and structured guidance to put it to use in the process of developing an interpretation (see Lee & Ashby, 2000).

Figure 5.9. Portion of Katrina’s source chart used during Global Encounters assessment

Source Title and Background	Origin —Who is the author(s) and who are they? Historical Context —When and where was the source created? Identification —What kind of source is it?	Purpose and Perspective —Why was the source created? What is the author’s perspective? How might their perspective impact the content of the source?	Value —What does the source say or show? Is it an accurate or fair portrayal of historical figures or events? How does it help us answer the investigative question?	Limitations —What about this source needs to be questioned? Why should we use caution when using this source as potential evidence?
“Life on Board a Slave Ship”	Olaudah Equiano Benin, W. Africa Enslaved → VA Gains freedom (Gustavus Vasa)	Propaganda London in 1793 → 1840’s Abolitionist	He says the middle passage was horrible Shows horrors of the slave trade.	He wrote it after these events happened.

For many students, I suspect these initial efforts at source analysis were simply an exercise in note taking or copying, even though I hoped they were internalizing the conceptual underpinnings of the cognitive acts they were simulating. The literature supports this line of analysis. On the one hand, decomposing expert heuristics, as I attempted to do with the Source Analysis Chart, is an essential step in the development of strategic knowledge (see Britt et al., 2000). On the other hand, students may improve their “skills” without any parallel conceptual development.

As I was reading the Columbian Exchange essays, I was reminded of a question by Jennifer at the start of the unit just after I had introduced the investigative focus question. I told the class: “So, when you write your essays for this unit and as we proceed with this investigation, I want you to be thinking about these different perspectives and the positive and negative effects.” Jennifer asked, “Does it have to be

one or the other?” Cognizant of the dangers of subjectivist stances and worse, the kind of cynical relativism that pervades political discourse in a postmodern age, I responded, “I hope you would take a stand, but remember, your response has to be grounded in the evidence and you have to address competing interpretations.”

I attempted to historicize changing interpretations of Columbus when I introduced the concept of traditional and revisionist accounts and the “Goodbye, Columbus” article we read closed with a brief historiographic survey showing how historians today tend to focus on a “mixed legacy.” “The past events of the Columbian exchange have not changed,” I told the class, “but our interpretations sometimes shift because of currents in our own society.” Still, I wondered how my attempts to connect historical figures and events with current political debates would play out. Would it encourage students to be self-conscious about invoking 21st century politics or was I inviting them to impose their thoroughly positioned identities on their reading of the past?

Patricia, who earned a raw score of 18 on her Global Encounters essay did not appear to be swayed heavily by her traditionalist leanings and conservative politics. In fact, she was challenged in her original conception of Columbus. She started the unit with this admission: “I don’t really have strong feelings towards Columbus Day. If I did, they would be good feelings...I’ve heard people that really look up to him. I’ve never heard someone talk bad about Christopher Columbus.” In her end-of-unit essay she appears to push her own thinking as she assesses Columbus’ motives using excerpts from the explorer’s log: “He is not just looking for wealth, but to convert Natives.” Later she makes references to Columbus’ apparent interest in Indian laborers: “This set up of slavery led to the encomienda system, which was another benefit for the Europeans.” In

her conclusion she wrote, “The Europeans did benefit in wealth and trade... Through this, the Africans and Natives were affected in a negative way.” Patricia is forwarding the idea that the positive and negative results are not simply apples and oranges to be placed in separate “buckets,” rather the gains of some were directly related to the loss of others. By integrating these perspectives, she goes a step further than her peers, giving her the only 4 EMP score for this assessment.

What is surprising is that Patricia, who had one of the highest analytic essay scores also answered 69% of the first-order items correctly (one of the lower scores). This suggests that students did not necessarily need the full range of unit curriculum content to do well on the interpretive essay. Data like this could be misconstrued by those who criticize the investigative approach because it focuses on skills over content. A closer inspection of Patricia’s performance shows that over half of the first-order items she got wrong were not part of the immediate historical context framed by the essay prompt. Like Katrina and Ayana, she mixed up the European explorers and the world’s empires and trading states at 1500, two curriculum strands that were outside the scope of the unit investigation. Lee and Ashby (2000) explain that a disciplinary approach to learning history does not necessarily result in a retreat from knowledge. Instead, “knowledge [is] treated seriously, as something that ha[s] to be understood and grounded” (p. 200). Patricia’s exercise in developing an evidence-based interpretation (she explicitly uses six different sources), supports this idea.

Even though her essay lacks the contextual bounding of a highly nuanced narrative and she generalizes in places (giving her a 3 score for DACK), her attempts to substantiate her claims with evidence, suggest Patricia is practicing, if not beginning to

internalize, domain-specific procedures and standards. Here is a portion of one of her supporting paragraphs:

The exploration of the Europeans made the Africans suffer. The Trans Atlantic slave trade and middle passage were two contributing factors. A piece of evidence that supports this is the Diagram of a Slave Ship (p. 569). This is from the records of the British Parliament. It shows how the middle passage packed in slaves. The slaves shown were tightly packed together with no space. Another source is “Life on Board a Slave Ship”. This source is written by a slave named Olaudah Equiano, who later changes his name to Gustavus Vasa. This is a good description of the middle passage, even though he wrote it after the event. This describes the horror of the Middle Passage. He was tossed around, put under decks and mistreated. Not only did the stench of unbathed bodies and waste fill his nose, but he was beaten. At the time, he didn’t know what was going to happen, and they replied “to be carried to these white people’s country to work for them.” Both of these evidences support the argument that African slaves were affected in a negative way....”

So, not only is she developing an evidence-based interpretation, she begins to analyze the sources, considering origin and value, and appears to be conscious of the fact that she is developing an argument about the past and not serving as a simple conduit or reporter of stories.

Data Point 3: Industrial Revolution Assessment

Students took the Industrial Revolution assessment on March 9, almost four months after the Global Encounters unit ended. The interpretive essay prompt, which

had been posted on the classroom wall and referred to frequently during the unit investigation, directed students to: “Evaluate the positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution.” In particular, they were asked to “examine the major changes brought by the Industrial Revolution and explore whether these developments amounted to progress.” I expected a criterialist response to discuss the revolution in technological advancements, geographic arrangements, and economic developments, with specific attention to the mass production of goods and greater efficiency that characterized industrial capitalism. After all, these changes made up an important part of the story of “progress” we focused on in class. In addition, students were expected to consider the costs of these advances and the social and political reactions to the rapid changes of a burgeoning industrial society. Here they could draw on a wealth of evidence related to the plight of factory workers and reform minded protest movements and laws.

A nuanced interpretation, one demonstrating deep historical understanding, might also explore a common thread that linked the practices of factory managers, reformers, and workers’ aid organizations—the use of science to bring order to the emerging industrial economy in Europe and the United States (see Wiebe, 1967). Many of the sources we examined showed an interest in the application of science in achieving some end, whether it is was the scientific management of factory production, urban planning, or improving the lot of the industrial worker. We returned to this theme on more than one occasion during the course of the unit investigation.

As shown in Table 5.5, most students experienced modest gains from the second to the third data collection point. The average raw score increased by 1.5 points and the rubric average showed a +0.38 difference. Except for OPA, average rubric scores for

individual categories were higher on this assessment than any of the focus units (see Appendix V). At 14.13 and 2.82, respectively, the raw average and rubric average for the Industrial Revolution were also higher than any of the study's focus units. This level of performance can be reasonably traced to the timing and focus of the unit, as well as to instructional modifications made in light of the drop in scores on the Global Encounters assessment.

As the third investigative unit in the assessment series and the most inquiry-based in its approach, the Industrial Revolution assessment reflected the critical role of practice and persistence in the learning progression. I believe that the practice students were getting utilizing domain tools and instructional supports (e.g., the source analysis guide) was paying dividends. And, rather than cut short source analysis as I did in the Global Encounters unit, I intentionally elevated its importance in this unit and stuck with it. Although the unit to unit increases in scores for source analysis are slight, this is the only category that shows steady upward movement from baseline to the third data collection point. This makes sense given the progressive instructional focus on source analysis, which reached a crescendo in the Industrial Revolution unit, then tapered off during the World War I unit. Still, except for Ayana in her Global Encounters essay, no student earned a 4 score for OPVL, suggesting this was the most difficult set of history-specific strategic practices to teach and learn.

In her visit to the classroom during the Industrial Revolution investigation of DBQ 13, Karen explained in her write-up, "Overall, students appear more engaged in the [investigative] process than during my last observation [of the Global Encounters Centers Activity]." In particular, she noted: "The students appear to have a better understanding

of document analysis, for example, checking to see if sources were primary or secondary and considering the implications.” In the process of doing source work, she observed students “working with the documents, marking them up, and making annotations.” According to Karen, some but not all groups referenced the source analysis guide when doing the source work. All groups were observed attending to the focus tasks. For example, Karen observed students “noting the positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution” and “discussing the question of bias,” but, again, she saw results that were uneven.

Karen observed several groups “noting contradictions between sources,” especially between Document 3 (the Ure account) and the Documents 1 and 2 (the testimonies before the Sadler Commission). Recall that this debate framed the exchange between Jonathan and Alicia in the opening vignette of this chapter. Karen’s observations concerning overall improvements in group processing and strategic practices are reflected in the increased interpretive essay scores for almost every analytic category. Even though the mean percentage score for first-order knowledge items increased slightly (77.6 % to 79.5%) from the last assessment, Karen noted that deeper historical understanding was “not observed” during the source work activity (Classroom Observer Notes, 2/22/11).

Karen’s observations confirmed much of what I was seeing in my own visits to the group investigative teams. Even the groups that were making steady progress as evidence by a productive group dynamic and consistent practice employing the sourcing heuristic, were coming to conclusions reminiscent of the subjective or overactive-knower positions. While Jonathan actively worked to compare sources, his knee-jerk reaction

was to discount the source (Andrew Ure) that did not align with his initial understanding, rather than considering that both the Sadler Committee and Ure may have interests and agendas that shaped their accounts. Alicia's comments in the vignette suggest she would be more likely to trust a balanced account, which is a fair assessment. However, she may also have been indicating that the "right" account would have "both" perspectives. I was interested to see how Jonathan and Alicia handled these conflicting perspectives in the interpretive essay assessment.

The "fruitful exchange" I described in the vignette was not the norm for all of the groups. Karen observed uneven effort and engagement and recordings of the source work sessions of other groups confirmed that taking the investigative task seriously was an important prerequisite to productive dialogue. Although Veronica tried to keep her group on task, Kyle's consistent playfulness and Andrew's complicity distracted the other group members who needed the benefit of careful modeling. There are pages of transcribed conversation that speak to the inane exchanges in that group. Much of Kyle's shtick centered on the fact that the group was being tape recorded:

Kyle [in a sarcastic tone]: Let's get to work on these documents.

Veronica: Who's going to do the computer search? We have Document 5 [a pamphlet published by the Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comfort of the Poor (1797)], right?

Kyle: MQ [a reference to Melissa Qunitanilla] is here. Your code name is Prom Queen.

Andrew: Come on, Prom Queeno, pay attention.

Kyle: [Referring to the follow-up question included in the DBQ packet for Document 5] Let me just tell you what the benefits were, ok?

Veronica: No, we have to read it! [Kevin reads it, again in a sarcastic tone.]

Veronica: So, who is Mr. Dale [referred to in the document]?

Kyle: That's good. Who is Mr. Dale? Did you get that Prom Queeno? Write it down. Shhhh....don't give away her identity. Who is Mr. Dale? Mr. Dale....we have no idea who Mr. Dale is, but we will after we have analyzed the text.

After several more minutes of foolish banter, Document 5 is dropped. The last four lines of the account, which were deeply connected to the unit investigative question and the evidence presented in previous sources, are ignored. Veronica moved the group to an examination of Document 6 and, after several more attempts to focus their efforts, raises her voice in an exasperated tone, "Yo!" (Journal, 2/24/11).

When I inquired about the group's progress, I discovered that they had not completed the online search for their assigned author and, so, had not accessed the necessary background information that might have helped them in assessing source origin, purpose, and perspective. After I leave, Kyle is heard on the tape noting the similarity between the follow-up questions for Documents 6 and 7 (contradicting accounts of the state of industrial cities, in this case, Manchester, England). When he begins reading an excerpt from Engels' *Conditions of the Working Class in England* (Document 7), Veronica stops him. "Wait," she says, "we have to read the introduction."

After the group finishes their cursory examination of each document, Andrew asks, "What were the positives and negatives for the chart on the back?" Despite their attention to this portion of the investigative task, on the tape there is little discussion of contradicting sources and no attempt to explore source perspective or bias in any depth. Despite Veronica's efforts to keep her team focused, it became apparent that group time for Kyle and his cronies was play time. It was episodes like this one that reminded me that my efforts to "let go" came with mixed results.

Even if the effort and results within investigative teams were uneven, I hoped the processing of source work activities would extend the learning of the class, as a whole, and expose student thinking that might not have surfaced in recorded class sessions. As we processed DBQ 13, I asked about the contradiction between the Faucher (Document 6) and Engels (Document 7) accounts. I note, “Same city, same year and, yet, markedly different descriptions of Manchester....What’s going on here?” Bryan replied, “We just don’t know!” In an analytic memo, I responded to Bryan’s comment:

That’s one of my big fears. Statements like these are one step closer to “we’ll never know” or “who cares” or “whatever we want it to be.” That’s my big worry: I’ve unraveled these previous beliefs about history and, when we start to unpack them, students are left with all of this evidence, each account with its own spin or bias or perspective, and they are led to believe that you can’t really say anything with any certainty (Journal, 2/24/11).

I was also concerned that the language I was using, especially the attention to “accuracy” that I coupled with source bias and perspective, was having an unintended consequence. For example, by asking students during the maquiladora exercise to determine which source was more accurate, was I suggesting that the other account must necessarily be false or inaccurate? And, by asking students during the DBQ 13 investigation to “explain how bias/perspective influences the accuracy or usefulness of the source,” was I baiting them to make relativist claims for lack of disciplinary rules dealing with conflicting accounts?

Other discussions during the processing of DBQ 13 suggest we were able to work through some of these misconceptions. Rather than “letting go,” I found that processing

the source work entailed intense focus and guidance from the teacher. At one point, Andrew mentioned that both the testimony of Ure and the commission reports were accurate. Geoffrey added nuance by pointing out that they “accentuated their own views.” Sensing that our concern for determining accuracy was misguided I added: “Good, it’s not necessarily that we need to determine which one is accurate and which one is not; [rather], we should be more focused on understanding the bias of each source.”

Sharing the group online searches also led to a helpful discussion of purpose and perspective. At one point I advised, “If you use these sources as evidence, you have to talk about not just what they’re saying, but who they are and why they are writing.” We explored the idea that the Sadler Commission, representing reform-minded interests in government and the wider society, wants to highlight the harrowing experiences of former child laborers. We also considered that Andrew Ure, an advocate of the factory system and an expert witness himself, might present a more generous assessment of factory conditions for children.

Whereas Jonathan initially suggested Ure was lying, the above conversation led some students to explore possible explanations defending Ure’s truth-telling potential. Oscar noted that he may have been referring to a particular group of factories. Kyle suggested we “look at the timeline,” indicating that Ure’s observations in 1835 were after the Sadler Commission hearings and after the passage of the Factory Act (1833). These considerations of context point to more sophisticated ways of handling competing evidence. Even though many students still struggled to make sense of source contradictions, by this point in the year, the class, as a whole, was able to provide a “list

of questions to ask of sources” without the aid of a sourcing heuristic (Journal, 2/22/11). I completed a similar exercise with each of the primary informants during their second interview and each of them demonstrated general competency in this regard (Interviews, April and May, 2011).

Examining written samples from the Industrial Revolution interpretive essay task should illustrate specific areas of growth (or stasis) in relation to the thinking and writing evidenced in the previous assessment. When compared to classroom discourse and student work within the Industrial Revolution unit, itself, student essays may point to the role of teacher feedback and processing in helping to push student thinking and the critical reading of sources. Jonathan, who was so quick to discount Ure in his initial reading of the source, seems to spend a bit more time considering its implications. However, he still privileges the testimonies before the Sadler Commission, spending two full paragraphs detailing the evidence from former child laborers.

He does not indicate authorship beyond identifying them as Documents 1 and 2. He does mention Andrew Ure by name, but does not explore who he is:

These factories were a hazardous environment for children. Andrew Ure says otherwise. He says that the children are quite happy there. They always seem to be cheerful and taking pleasure in the light play of their muscles. He even says there better off in a factory than at home. In some cases, this might be true, but in many, not exactly the case.

You can see Jonathan using slightly more conditional language when presenting the evidence and, on the surface, he is attempting to make sense of these competing views. In the end, he dismisses the Ure account. Even though he dropped from a 3 to a 2 for

OPVL since the last assessment, he did show increases in his DEBI, EMP, and DACK scores. The 15 point analytic total was his highest interpretive essay score.

In her essay, Alicia seems less concerned with finding the “right” document that might, by itself, offer a balanced argument. Instead, she uses several documents to narrate a chronology of industrial and economic advancement coupled with tremendous negative effects for workers, followed by reforms designed to address these human costs. She demonstrates more than a simple borrowing from different documents; rather, she attempts to integrate what some students saw as disparate viewpoints or developments into a coherent whole. In her conclusion she attempts to connect these points:

The Industrial Revolution was a time of positive advancements, however, the negative equally aligned with the positive. Because of the positive effects society prospered and because of the negative effects we gained reforms, not only for children, but for all workers.

While she does not explore authorial purpose or perspective in great depth, she does use her content knowledge to provide historical context in a way that few other students do. This resulted in a five-page essay and 4 scores for DACK and OPA.

Much of this background knowledge was taken from the outline notes I provided, but some of it appears to come from textbook readings and the research she was doing for her unit project, which focused on child labor. For example, before presenting the Ure account she writes:

As factories in the Industrial Revolution were booming, the demand for workers was increasing and children were working to meet their family’s financial necessities. Because children had constant energy, were small, and complained

less, they became a big asset to industries, increasing production and decreasing prices.

Even though she does not directly connect this background knowledge to the Ure account or discuss who he is, the contextual bounding of the narrative enhances her argument.

Data Point 4: World War I Assessment

The endpoint assessment was taken on April 28, about a month and a half after the Industrial Revolution unit ended and about a month before the SOL exam. Students were required to respond to the following interpretive essay prompt: “German chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, predicted that ‘some damn foolish thing in the Balkans’ would plunge Europe into a large-scale war. Evaluate the accuracy of Bismarck’s statement by examining who and/or what caused World War I.” A criteria-based response would likely examine the larger causes that contributed to increasing tensions in Europe, such as nationalism, imperialism, militarism, and alliances. These factors would be considered alongside more immediate developments, including the assassination of Franz Ferdinand and the failure of diplomacy, which either ignited the so-called “powder keg” or neglected to suffocate the sparks that ensured an explosion of European and, eventually, world-wide conflict. This multi-causal explanation might be contrasted with the simplified language of the Versailles Treaty, which places war guilt firmly (and solely) on the shoulders of a defeated Germany and her Central Power allies.

From the third to the final data point there was no net gain as reflected in the average raw scores on the World War I interpretive essay. Most raw scores decreased, with six students experiencing a -1.0 or -2.0 difference and four other scores evidencing sharper declines (5-6 points). Three students experienced no change in their raw scores,

while three others showed slight increases. Even though the 12.50 average raw score was 1.63 points below the previous point in the assessment series, it was 3.75 points higher than the average baseline score (see Table 5.5). This materialized into a 0.75 increase in the average rubric score from baseline to Point 4. The overall growth in strategic knowledge scores was accompanied by a 2.37 point increase in the average raw score for second-order knowledge when compared to the baseline (see Table 5.6).

Of all the units under investigation, the final one was the least investigative in its focus. In addition, many of the specific scaffolds designed to assist students in developing an interpretation of the essay prompt were taken away, thus giving them less support in making sense of conflicting evidence in the assessment task and constructing written arguments from that evidence. At this point in the data collection process, teacher-researcher memos reflect an increasing concern with preparing students for the end-of-year state assessment. As a result, teacher-centered lessons designed to cover content quickly replaced exercises that emphasized student-centered source work.

Evaluated in light of this shifting instructional focus, a comparison of baseline and endpoint scores suggests that the strategic knowledge growth evidenced in Table 5.5 was significantly impacted by the teacher-guided investigative process. In addition, it highlights the instructional value of those specific mechanisms put in place to assist students in making sense of multiple accounts and developing interpretations from conflicting evidence. However, the fact that student scores (minus two) did not drop down to baseline levels after the investigative focus and many of the supports were taken away indicates that most students were beginning to internalize (in varying degrees)

domain ideas and strategies or were, at least, becoming more skillful in applying the practices associated with criteria-structured conceptualizations.

The steady, incremental increase of conceptual knowledge scores from baseline to Point 4 seems to confirm this analysis (see Table 5.6). Although the research instruments utilized in this study are not specifically designed to measure shifts in participants' epistemic belief structures, the literature indicates that stronger domain ideas and more advanced strategic practices are linked to "more powerful epistemic reasoning" (VanSledright, 2014, p. 64). With this in mind, comparing changes in procedural-concept scores from the baseline to Point 4 may provide insights into the evolving epistemic thinking of study participants. On the baseline assessment the majority of interpretive essay scores (ten students in all) were in the 2 range, four students scored a 1, and one student each scored a 3 and a 0. On the endpoint assessment seven students scored a 3, four students scored a 2, three of them scored a 4, and two scored a 1. There were no 0's on the endpoint interpretive essay task. These results suggest a general movement toward more criteria-structured epistemic practices and beliefs.

Analyzing Common Trajectories and Individual Cases of Change

The second tier of this analysis will focus on the shared experiences of specific clusters or groups of students in the study sample. Moving beyond the general patterns of change discussed in the previous section, this approach will offer a more nuanced assessment of the learning experienced by particular kinds of students as they participated in historical investigations and interacted with the scaffolding designed to facilitate their learning. After discussing a group as a whole, I eventually narrow my focus to the

primary informants in that cluster. These individual cases of change will be illustrated using representative writing samples and interview data. This final layer of analysis will allow me to explore emerging themes that have implications beyond the individual cases themselves.

I began by grouping the sixteen participants according to common transformation paths as evidence by assessment scores across the four major data points. My initial holistic reading of assessment results led to the creation of five different categories. Participants were grouped according to their shared trajectories and these clusters were assigned descriptors based on the general trend line demonstrated by the group (high variation; steady up, then sharp down; even, up, then back down below baseline; sharp up, down, back up; and sharp or steady up, then evening out).

I used scatter plots to test my holistic reading of the data, then applied my general impressions of the learning experiences of individual students to confirm their “fit” within a particular category. I determined that the variation shown by two of the original clusters was not significant enough to warrant separate categories, especially given what the individual students in those categories had in common with students in other clusters. As such, I ended up with three different groupings. While this narrowing process required blurring the trend lines of a handful of participants (represented in Table 5.10 with an asterisk), I justified it based on the analytic power that was gained by such an approach. One student, Jonathan, was a clear outlier. The trend line of his trajectory and his course grade seemed to align with the performance of Juan and Katrina, the two other students in the category to which he was originally assigned. However, other factors,

including his level of reading proficiency and SOL score, suggest he had more in common with his higher performing peers.

Table 5.10 shows the final participant clusters by shared trajectories and the category descriptions I assigned (Jonathan is not included in the table below). I labeled them according to the contours of their assessment trends—“gainers and maintainers,” “temporary gainers,” and “fluctuators.” I extended my general impressions of these groupings by sifting through student records, work samples, interview data, and notes in my teacher-research journal. In this way, I was able to determine what else they had in common. Course performance, as measured by grades and SOL test scores, was a distinguishing characteristic of each group. In addition, I discovered similarities related to skill level (as measured by proficiency in reading and writing), effort (as measured by assignment completion), and buy-in (as measured by engagement with investigative activities, inquiry based projects, and learning supports).

“Gainers and Maintainers”

On the whole, this cluster of students was highly motivated, generally proficient in reading and writing, consistent in their completion of class assignments, and willing to engage in historical investigations. Most of them dependably utilized the learning supports I offered both during class investigations and when independently preparing for the end-of-unit interpretive essays. This level of skill, effort, and engagement resulted in endpoint scores of 3 or 4 for all eight participants in the group. Each moved up one category range (e.g., from 2 to 3 or 3 to 4) across the duration of the study. On average their Point 4 interpretive essay raw scores were 5.13 points higher than their baseline scores. Net raw score gains ranged from 3 to 8 points.

This data demonstrates that the highest performing students reaped some of the most tangible benefits from the critical history program. The results also suggest that they were conceptually ready to assimilate domain practices and assumptions. It is likely that they were motivated to engage with those supports that might improve their historical thinking “skills,” their understanding of the past, and, ultimately, their grades in the class. All but two of the eight students in this group earned A’s in the World History and Geography II course. While, Bryan and Jessica earned a B and a C+, respectively, they had two of the three highest class scores on the SOL test. The group averaged 462/600 on the state exam. This result was 44 points higher than the Group 2 average (418/600) and 13 points higher than the Group 3 average (449/600).

Making sense of the performance of this group in light of the research on reading development and expertise in domain learning involves considering a few factors, which may have positively impacted their performance on assessment tasks and their overall growth throughout the study. First, their proficiency in reading likely facilitated their learning of historical content. Their learning of selected topical knowledge in the domain, in turn, contributed to the development of more complex conceptual ideas (Alexander, 2006; Donovan & Bransford, 2005). Second, the *gainers and maintainers* also appear to benefit from what the expertise literature refers to as “individual interest” (Alexander, 2006, p. 9). In other words, it is likely that these students had already developed a deep-seated investment in the subject area (or school, in general) prior to the intervention study. This type of personal interest can drive the development of competence and school achievement. Finally, an increased ability to engage in “deep processing strategies” (Alexander, 2006, p. 11), what the history education literature

refers to as “historical thinking,” as well as the capacity to sustain those gains, signals their expanding expertise in the domain.

This type of cognitive development on the part of the *gainers and maintainers* might be contrasted with the struggles of the *temporary gainers* and *fluctuators*, many of whom were especially challenged by difficult historical texts and demonstrated context-specific “situational interest,” as opposed to sustained levels of personal interest (Alexander, 2006, p. 11). While they distinguished themselves in terms of their sustained growth and high levels of achievement, the *gainers and maintainers* shared commonalities with their lower performing peers that could have manifested as challenges in a history classroom with considerable reading and writing demands. A few participants in this group received ESOL support in elementary or middle school, though none of them were involved in the ESOL program at Hillendale at the time of the study. Still, all but two of these students reported speaking a language other than English at home. More than half of them reported negative experiences or poor performance in previous history classes and most expressed initial concern with the expectations I established for reading, speaking, and/or writing in the modern world history course (see Appendix H for selected self-reported information related to academic identity).

Evidence shows that even the high performing students needed support developing evidence-based interpretations, examining multiple perspectives, and analyzing sources. Neither of the primary informants in this cluster described these strategies as being central to the work they did in previous history classes. When I asked Veronica in our first interview if she read different sources or engaged in source analysis activities in her freshman world history course, she responded, “No, just [text]book

work” (Interview, 12/1/10). And even Ayana, whose baseline essay reflected elements of a criteria-structured response, said this about her initial efforts to use the Source Analysis Guide: “The first time it was like way confusing and I didn’t really get the point. But when we were going over it in class, I was able to write more....After the first one I understood it better” (Interview, 12/1/10).

Viewed in light of the strategic supports she used to prepare for the Renaissance interpretive essay, Ayana’s initial post-intervention surge points to the positive impact of the instructional assistance provided. Except where she already earned a 4 (for DEBI) on the baseline, Ayana increased her scores by 1-2 points in each rubric category, moving her into the 4 range, overall. In the process of constructing her argument she used each element of the organizational and interpretive essay tool I provided, including sample thesis and conclusion sentences, a suggested argument structure (the one I modeled during an in-class exercise in organizing evidence), and hints about the contextual bounding of the narrative. Per my instructions she sketched out her argument on the back of the handout I provided and used it methodically during the assessment, putting checks or crossing out key points made or pieces of evidence used. In the end, she used three documents from the task itself and two other sources we examined in class to create a well-supported argument that was four pages long.

While Ayana begins to explore origin and value, she mostly ignores the context in which particular sources were created and the purpose and perspective of their authors. I wrote at the top of her paper, “Solid organization and great use of evidence to support your claims.” On an essay writing progress checklist (see Appendix X) I put a mark next to “carefully/critically analyze all sources used; consider context in which source was

created,” as a way to highlight one area where she could extend her thinking and writing. This feedback sheet was designed to help students become more familiar with the characteristics of good historical writing, to better understand the categories I was using to score their essays, and to align learning targets, instruction, and assessment. As a vital part of the assessment process, I used feedback channels to model meta-cognitive self-assessment for the students. (In later units students would assess their own progress using the same checklist.) Ayana appeared to benefit from this modeling, improving her score in the source analysis (OPVL) category on the next assessment.

The scores of most participants in this group experienced a leveling off after either a sharp or steady increase. Veronica’s trajectory exemplifies this trend. After a five point jump in her raw score from the baseline to Point 1, her scores mostly level out. These shared trajectories suggest that there were limits to progression as experienced by this group. Factors that might have contributed to this trend line include the shift to more conventional teaching practices and the removal of learning supports in the final unit, as well as the mixed messages sent to students because of the hybrid nature of the course. A more generous reading of the data would highlight how the initial gains were steadily maintained despite closed opportunities for growth. Veronica and some of her peers did make slight (+1) increases within individual analytic categories at Point 3 and/or Point 4, confirming what the literature says about the maturation of students’ history-related ideas—there may be progression in some areas and not in others (Lee & Ashby, 2000). Overall, though, strategic knowledge growth appears to have slowed because of contextual factors or simply because they reached a cognitive saturation point during the relatively short span of the study.

Table 5.10. Groupings based on shared trajectories for interpretive essay scores

Trajectory Group Descriptors	Participants (N =16)	Baseline	Point 1	Point 2	Point 3	Point 4
GAINERS AND MAINTAINERS (Sharp/steady up, then evening out)	1. Alicia*	10 (2.0)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)	17 (3.4)	18 (3.6)
	2. Patricia	11 (2.2)	15 (3.0)	18 (3.6)	17 (3.4)	17 (3.4)
	3. Bryan*	8 (1.6)	13 (2.6)	8 (1.6)	14 (2.8)	14 (2.8)
	4. Alex	8 (1.6)	13 (2.6)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)
	5. Veronica	10 (2.0)	15 (3.0)	15 (3.0)	16 (3.2)	15 (3.0)
	6. Ayana*	13 (2.6)	19 (3.8)	18 (3.6)	16 (3.2)	18 (3.6)
	7. Jennifer	11 (2.2)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	14 (2.8)
	8. Jessica	10 (2.0)	13 (2.6)	13 (2.6)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)
TEMPORARY GAINERS (Sharp/steady up, then down)	9. Katrina	5 (1.0)	9 (1.8)	13 (2.6)	14 (2.8)	12 (2.4)
	10. Juan	1 (0.2)	8 (1.6)	8 (1.6)	12 (2.4)	6 (1.2)
FLUCTUATORS (High variation)	11. Andrew	6 (1.2)	11 (2.2)	8 (1.6)	10 (2.0)	8 (1.6)
	12. David	11 (2.2)	13 (2.6)	11 (2.2)	14 (2.8)	13 (2.6)
	13. Cynthia	7 (1.4)	11 (2.2)	9 (1.8)	14 (2.8)	8 (1.6)
	14. Abdul	7 (1.4)	12 (2.4)	9 (1.8)	12 (2.4)	7 (1.4)
	15. Kyle*	12 (2.4)	12 (2.4)	13 (2.6)	15 (3.0)	11 (2.2)
	Raw avg. by unit (R = 0-20):	8.75	12.63	12.19	14.13	12.50
	Rubric avg. by unit (R = 0-4):	(1.75)	(2.53)	(2.44)	(2.82)	(2.50)

Participants within groups listed in descending order by net gains from baseline to Point 4. An asterisk (*) indicates a trend line that varies slightly when compared to the cluster as a whole. R = Range; for raw scores/averages, R = 0-20; for rubric averages, R = 0-4

Britt and her colleagues (2000) indicate that challenging goals are essential for improving performance on difficult cognitive tasks in the history domain. The achievement-oriented students in this group appear to have responded positively to the high expectations set as part of the critical history pedagogy. In turn, I called on four of them (Alicia, Patricia, Ayana, and Veronica) to maintain these standards as leaders of investigative teams during the Industrial Revolution unit. Interview data suggests that Ayana and Veronica viewed the expectations of the world history course as part of a larger program designed to support their academic progress. Both made connections between the work they were doing in their Honors English course and the strategic practices they were employing in the history classroom. In addition, they mentioned the college support program, of which they were both a part, as providing them with additional time and space to develop their skills.

Veronica demonstrated this “skill” development in her Renaissance interpretive essay. In relation to her baseline score, she improved by at least one point in every analytic category except DACK, moving her from a 2 to a 3 score, overall. Her argument is not particularly long or detailed, but she showed a marked improvement in the “use of source evidence,” as I wrote next to the following passage:

One piece of literature that really describes the Renaissance era is “The Song of Lorenzo the Magnificent,” by Lorenzo de’ Medici. “Youths and maids enjoy today;” and “keep perpetual holiday” state that humans should live today, be happy, and treat each day as if it were a holiday. Carpe diem, or live fully in this world, is illustrated in this piece of literature.

This poem, included in the assessment, was one of the most widely used sources of evidence. In fact, as I scored the Renaissance essays and analyzed student responses, I recognized a reasonable pattern. Students demonstrated greater proficiency and written clarity when utilizing accounts that were read and/or processed as a class in teacher guided lessons. In this case, it was a dramatic reading of “The Song of Lorenzo the Magnificent.”

One of Ayana’s highest raw scores (18) came on the final interpretive essay. In the introduction to her essay, Ayana articulates a multi-causal explanation for the Great War: “Although the assassination of Francis Ferdinand was a leading cause of the war, it was not the only cause. Nationalism, militarism, and imperialism played important roles in causing the war we now refer to as World War I.” Even the last phrase of her thesis suggests an awareness of the active role historians play in organizing and naming historical epochs. In her supporting paragraphs, Ayana fluidly marshals evidence from a map of pre-WWI alliances, a chart of military expenditures, and an early twentieth century history on the origins of the Great War. Even though she is not consistent in making direct comparisons of these sources or considering other relevant (and conflicting) evidence, she does effectively situate them in the broader historical context.

When Ayana balked at the opportunity to take the advanced International Baccalaureate (IB) history course in her junior year (most students enter that course after taking two years of honors-level social studies classes), I pressed her to reconsider. Not only did she enroll in the course, she ended up earning the IB diploma by completing the most rigorous academic program offered to 11th and 12th graders at the school. Three of her peers in this group also challenged themselves by taking and successfully completing

the IB history course in their junior year. One of these students, Alicia, also earned the IB diploma. While only a small part of their overall high school experience, I believe the meaningful success achieved in the modern world history course facilitated their transition into the IB history class.

“Temporary Gainers”

Unlike their high performing peers, the three students in this group earned either a D or an F in the world history course they took with me. Two of them, Juan and Katrina, also failed the SOL exam, narrowly missing the cut score of 400. Juan and Katrina both struggled with reading comprehension, writing, and research related skills and their work completion was inconsistent. I believe their inconsistency stemmed from the reluctance that comes from low skill levels, repeated academic failures, and the stigma attached to ESOL learners (in Juan’s case) and struggling readers, in general.

Even with these challenges, Juan and Katrina showed significant progress during the course of the study, progress that was not necessarily reflected in their grades or SOL scores. Their interpretive essay scores indicate that they benefitted from the progressive scaffolding and cognitive tools designed to support disciplinary learning. In fact, a comparison of their baseline and endpoint raw scores shows that their average net gain (6.0) was actually greater than that of their high performing classmates (5.13). It seems that the additional time I spent with these two primary informants positively impacted their performance. In after-school help sessions I was able to assess their developing thinking and understanding, provide appropriate support, offer encouragement, and reiterate written specific feedback included on end-of-unit assessments.

The research on how students learn history suggests presenting students with complex cognitive tasks, but not so challenging as to decrease self-esteem, motivation, or engagement (see Donovan & Bransford, 2005; Brit et al, 2000). I struggled to find that balance with students like, Juan and Katrina. I leaned in to support them and they learned to lean heavily on the tools I provided. Although their interpretive essay scores experienced a sharp increase from baseline to Point 1, they dropped at Point 4 when the investigative project was abandoned and its disciplinary tool kit put away. Examining the progression of their writing and their use of strategic supports in the process of constructing those arguments should help to explain the trajectory of these *temporary gainers*. In the end, we will see how, from a teaching and learning perspective, they might be better characterized as “learners who need extra support.”

For the Renaissance assessment Juan was able to write a one-page essay and even used two sources, a significant improvement from the baseline assessment. His raw score jumped seven points and he moved up two category ranges. Still, his evidence comes exclusively from Renaissance artworks. He does not prepare an outline using the essay organizing tool, nor does he make an attempt to address the written sources provided in the assessment task. He does borrow from one of the scripted thesis sentences to start his argument: “The renaissance was considered a rebirth of art and learning. But there are some things that did not change.” In his second supporting paragraph he attempts to support the latter part of this claim. He writes, “One of the thing that didn’t change was that people were still religious even though they were becoming more secular.” This idea was well-articulated and I push him in my feedback: “Ok—now include a piece of evidence that shows this, e.g., *Last Supper* or *Pieta*.” Recalling his question, “What if I

fail this test?” and my promise to work with him after school, on the back of the essay organizer, I wrote: “Please come for help next time.”

Static performance on the Global Encounters essay and a follow-up interview confirmed my suspicion that even though we read, analyzed, and reviewed most of the documents included in the end-of-unit assessments, Juan did not have a command of even the most basic source content. As we examined two of the primary documents included in the assessment task, it became clear that he did not understand much of the vocabulary used in these texts (Interview, 1/13/11). While reading the course textbook with him in an after school review session, I observed Juan using context clues to determine basic meaning. But he tripped over countless words and their meanings in reading these two accounts. My assumption was that, if my ESOL students accessed a challenging source a few times (e.g., through independent/group reading and teacher-guided annotation/analysis), this repetition would lead to comprehension and the building of new vocabulary. My work with Juan outside of class suggested differently. Alexander (2006) highlights the careful guidance and scaffolding necessary to support the most vulnerable readers in a domain area. In Chapter 6 I explore how I might have better supported all of my struggling readers.

Besides struggling to read the assessment excerpts, it was clear that Juan lacked some of the basic background knowledge that would allow him to make sense of the sources and construct a coherent narrative. He had one of the lowest unit percentage scores (63%) for first-order knowledge on the Global Encounters essay, yet he still seemed perplexed by his performance. Juan offered this comment in our first interview, “You know in my ESOL class, my teacher she made us do an essay. She gave us a

question and a [support] packet and I got an A on that essay. I don't know why I can't do it here." I did explain to him the importance of background knowledge in establishing historical context and constructing a coherent argument (Interview, 1/13/11).

However, in an attempt to make connections to the expository writing he was doing in his ESOL course and to build his confidence in responding to the challenging DBQ assessments, I primarily emphasized what these two types of writing had in common (Interview 1/13/11). Juan's comments (and my response) actually reflect prevailing attitudes and practices related to writing in secondary history courses. While Juan seems to generally understand and has been given practice (in his ESOL course) attending to the more generic writing strategies outlined in assessment rubrics for many domain areas, his performance suggests he is less familiar with the distinguishing characteristics of history-specific cognition and writing (see VanSledright, 2014). His 51.60% average on the first-order assessment items (see Table 5.7), suggests that lack of basic content knowledge was a compounding problem.

Juan's score on the Industrial Revolution interpretive essay showed a 4 point jump from the Global Encounters assessment. This was a marked improvement from earlier installments. Consider his thesis statement from the Global Encounters essay. It read more like a title and focused on Columbus, rather than the subsequent exchanges that occurred after the Columbian Encounter: "Christopher Columbus and the positive and negative in his exploration of the new world." It was for students, like Juan, that I brought back a layer of support for writing thesis statements. I believe this aid likely helped him structure his argument, but also pushed him to consider multiple perspectives. He wrote, "The Industrial Revolution was a time of great progress but however one must

also consider the negative effects in that period of time.” EMP and OPA scores both increased by one point from the previous assessment, even though Juan offers little contextual bounding and limited background knowledge.

Compared to all of the participants in the study sample, Juan’s raw essay scores experienced the most dramatic drop from Point 3 to Point 4. He reverted back to his earlier practice of writing a title, instead of a thesis: “The causes of world war I and how everything ended with all the countries that were related with world war I, and who caused the world war I to be how it sounds like it was.” And even though he writes one of his longest essays after this abbreviated first paragraph, much of the content is not related to the question at hand. The limited notes he includes on the essay organizer are almost exclusively connected to the U.S. entrance into the war and Russia’s exit, topics that were not particularly relevant to the prompt. He relies almost exclusively on an excerpt from Article 231 of the Versailles Treaty (Document 4) in singling out Germany as the cause of the war because, “Germany after all was the one who accepted all the responsibilities of all the damages in the war.” This shallow, one-sided interpretation earned him a score of 6, which was a 6 point drop from the Industrial Revolution essay, but still represented a 5 point analytic increase from his baseline score.

Like Juan, Katrina’s raw score experienced a significant bump from the baseline to Renaissance essay. While she does not develop an outline ahead of time, the structure of her essay borrows heavily from the essay organizing tool. She went from “copying” source material in the baseline assessment to “copying” the scripted essay model I provided for the Renaissance assessment. Even though she borrows thesis and concluding sentences that anticipate conflicting evidence, possible counter-arguments,

and ultimately a nuanced interpretation, her essay does not rise to this height. We have seen how both the high and low performing students utilized the essay writing aids I provided. It is evident, though, that the tools by themselves were not responsible for the relative increases in student scores. While they do appear to play a significant role in the overall trajectory of strategic knowledge growth, assessment results show enough individual variability to suggest that not all students understood or were applying the organizational, sourcing, and interpretive tools equally.

For Katrina the group investigations seemed to be more helpful in supporting her, something she alluded to in each of her interviews (Interviews, 12/1/10 and 4/8/11). For example, she does not use any of the sources provided in the assessment task, but does discuss both the literary and artistic work she explored with her investigative team. She wrote about Miguel de Cervantes' famous novel:

The book Don Quixote was about a man who thought he saw a giant. But his sidekick, Sancho Panza, was telling him, "No, that's not what you think, it is a windmill." The main thought of this book was that the Middle Ages was over."

I reminded her several times in my comments to "connect the evidence back to the thesis." When she reached her conclusion which included the claim that "not everyone was experiencing this golden age," I remarked, "Where is the evidence to support this?" In the end this effort earned her a 1 score for EMP and a low end 2 (9), overall.

Almost every space in the "knowledge and understanding" and "sources and perspectives" categories was checked off on the feedback sheet (see Appendix Y). At the time I was filling it out, I assumed that this tool would help students. In retrospect I am left wondering how Katrina interpreted and responded to this overwhelming signal that

the she “needs improvement.” She did not point to this specific element of the feedback loop as being instrumental in her development, but she did articulate a sense that she was improving, especially in her writing (Interview, 12/1/10).

On the Industrial Revolution essay Katrina draws heavily from my class outline notes to discuss the major developments of the era. However, this instructional support could only go so far in encouraging her to use detailed and accurate substantive knowledge to frame her argument. She earned a 2 for DACK because of factual inaccuracies and scored a 57% on the first-order items. Her over-reliance on the organizational scheme I provided and her shallow content knowledge created problems related to consistency and coherence. Since she did not include any references on the essay organizer to sources she might use in her argument, I asked in an interview how she made those decisions. “On the spot during the test,” she responded.

I pushed her to consider why she chose a Lewis Hine photograph of “Girls at Weaving Machines” (Document 1 on the assessment). “Because of the spinning jenny [a reference to the machine in the picture], that was a new technology that was upgraded.” She also admitted using documents from the assessment task, “because I knew you were grading us on bringing in sources.” I was envisioning the assessment task as a culminating activity, where students could finalize their developing interpretations and surface their deepening understandings. Katrina’s remarks suggest a more formulaic approach to presenting a reasonable argument to meet the grading criteria.

In the second interview I asked her if she was feeling more confident writing document-based interpretive essays. She commented, “If I understand the information, I will feel more confident writing the essay.” I followed up, “So, understanding the

content is more important for you than using the sources?” She explained the order of her operations, “Yeah, then going to the sources for evidence.” When I asked her why she would choose to use some sources and not others, she responded, “Some of them I felt like I did not have time to analyze” (Interview, 4/18/11). In addition to the Hine photograph, she presents “evidence from the Sadler Committee” and legislation passed as part of the Factory Act (1833). She misses other opportunities to “link background information and source material,” as I wrote in my feedback. Still, this was “a great improvement on previous essays.” Like many of her classmates, the Industrial Revolution interpretive essay was her highest score on any of the focus unit assessments.

Even though Katrina wrote at the top of her paper, “I don’t think this essay will be good,” I do not believe her assessment of her final interpretive essay hits the mark.

While she does drop two points from her previous raw score (14 to 12) and moves down to the 2 range, she demonstrates significant strategic knowledge growth (+7 points) when the endpoint score is compared to the baseline. Her thesis paragraph illustrates the greater command she has in setting up a nuanced argument that considers how multiple factors work together to cause an historical event. She writes:

Otto von Bismarck is partially right but there is more to the causes of this war.

The major “spark” or cause in this war was the assassination of Archduke that is known to be Francis Ferdinand, killed by a member of the Serbian group. There were also three underlying causes, nationalism, militarism, and alliances.

And, even though her essay lacks the depth and complexity of a criteria-structured response, it is not an accurate or fair assessment to categorize her performance as “low.”

It is true that Juan and Katrina did not maintain their strategic knowledge scores the same way their higher performing peers did. Final interviews with the principal informants showed that the *gainers and maintainers* were also more adept at conceptualizing the discipline of history and articulating how they were using domain tools and practices (Interviews, April-May, 2011). Yet, I was frustrated that two students who showed solid improvement on the scaled interpretive essay measure could not pass the SOL exam or, in Juan's case, the world history course. In Chapter 6 I explore how classroom teachers might conceptualize assessment differently so as to better account for progression over time, especially for those "learners who need extra support."

"Fluctuators"

One of the most interesting trends emerging from the data is connected to the performance of the group I have labeled, *fluctuators*. Kyle and Abdul, who both ended the year with C grades in the course, were the only two students who experienced no movement or a net decrease when their baseline scores are compared to their endpoint scores. The other students in this group earned B or C course grades and experienced only modest net increases (1-2 points) in their raw scores (see Table 5.10), despite some of them having baseline starting points and SOL scores comparable to the *gainers and maintainers*. All of the participants in this group, except for Kyle, showed high variation in their interpretive essay scores. The "up, down, up, down" movement of this trajectory can be partially explained by the challenges faced by most of the class in the second unit and the shifting instructional focus in the last unit. Other factors, specific to the students in this cluster may have also contributed to the unique contours of their uneven performance.

Observations of the participants in this group suggest that inconsistent effort and engagement may have played a significant role in determining performance on both assessment tasks and overall course grades. Lacking the pronounced acquiescence of their high achieving classmates, these students seemed less inclined to project the pleasing behaviors typically expected in school. Sleeping, mild complaining, and playfulness were not uncommon by individuals in this group. What is more, they often gravitated to each other, reinforcing behaviors that negatively impacted buy-in to the critical history pedagogy and for some, to school, in general. We have seen how the clowning of Kyle and Andrew inhibited progress for their investigative team. Similarly, Abdul and Cynthia chose to work together on a research project then blamed each other when the work did not get done. With that said, there were moments when these students were quite engaged, suggesting that, on the whole, they were more influenced by the context-specific motivational factors associated with “situational interest” (Alexander, 2006, p.9). Nevertheless, there seemed to be reluctance at work that manifested in slightly different ways for each of the participants. These behaviors are characteristic of the “resistant reader” described by Alexander (2006) in her developmental model of reading (p. 21).

For Cynthia, it was frustration. She was disappointed that the course was not as “fun” as her freshman history class, that it required extended mental effort and significant reading and writing. Remember her exasperated plea to her investigative team in the opening vignette of the chapter. “I don’t feel like writing all that!” she proclaimed. I believe the hybrid nature of the course might have been confusing to Cynthia, as well. In a journal progress check (11/5/10), assigned during the transition from an investigative

unit to a more conventional one, Cynthia expressed that class assignments were “just all over the place.” She seemed to expect a bit more predictability from lesson to lesson and unit to unit, perhaps the predictability of conventional learning. In response to the question about what was particularly challenging at this point in the year, she wrote frankly, “The things you say.” I attempted to translate the disciplinary framework into language my tenth-graders could understand, but I quietly wondered if Cynthia and her peers saw me as another talking head with little to offer that connected to their lived experiences. Could a disciplinary approach to history be as distancing for some students as a steady diet of “other people’s facts?” (Holt, 1990).

Abdul responded to the challenges of disciplinary learning by sleeping. One day when I woke him up during an investigation of the Industrial Revolution and asked what was wrong, he said, “I’m just not feelin’ this unit” [sic]. When I followed up with him about this comment in our second interview, he noted, “It didn’t click. It wasn’t so interesting. At times the group [source analysis activities] got a little boring” (Interview, 4/25/11). Abdul was not the only student who became tired during investigative “work” which required significant “mental endurance,” a phrase I use consistently in my teacher research journal. Analytic memos point to a persistent concern with some students experiencing “cognitive overloads” or boredom. Others appeared to be “going through the motions in order to get the answer” to follow-up questions designed to encourage careful reading and critical analysis of sources (e.g., Journal, 2/15/11, 2/21/15, and 2/24/15).

Like most of his classmates in this cluster, Abdul experienced a significant increase in his raw essay score from baseline to Point 1. Even though he moves from the

1 to the 2 range, he has difficulty integrating conflicting perspectives into his argument and presenting them clearly. In his introduction he wrote:

The Renaissance basically was a rebirth of people, the rebirth of a new time that has begun, from depressed, sad, and down low not knowing what to do kind of people. The Renaissance changed all of that. Unfortunately, not all people thought it was the new time, some people disagreed completely. Some of them even wrote documents to show how they feel about this new change and how they say it will become a myth.

Abdul does not borrow from the sample thesis sentences I provided, but he appears to construct the framework for an argument that will both discuss Renaissance trends and the limits of these trends. Later, in one of his supporting paragraphs he writes:

Sadly, after everything that happened [in the development of Renaissance art], a small percent of people are acting like if it's the Middle Ages. One guy stood out and made fun of those statements by writing a book which referred to the end of the Middle Ages...his name was Don Quixote.

Besides confusing Cervantes and the main character in his novel, Abdul seems to view conflicting perspectives as “unfortunate” and “sad” aberrations that need to be fixed.

Abdul suggests that Miguel de Cervantes wrote for that purpose. Abdul's assessment of the novel is not far off the mark, considering that it is accepted as a critique of chivalric romances.

In another support Abdul appears to explore, even if unintentionally, the historiographic debate surrounding the Renaissance:

W.T. Waugh was the man who wrote the document that was called a history of Europe. What it explained was if there people or humanist started learning during Midieval of Europe, the Renaissance wouldn't have been such a big deal of glory, because it had its downsides to it.

Here Abdul is struggling to make sense of Document 6 from the assessment task. Waugh argues that there was no suspension of learning in medieval Europe, a point that Abdul is close to articulating. He has more difficulty with one of Waugh's other major points, that "very few people knew or cared anything about the sayings or doings of the Humanists." In other words, as an intellectual movement of a privileged class, humanism's impact has been exaggerated, or in Abdul's words, it was made into "a big deal of glory," a "myth."

Finally, when Abdul mentions that the Renaissance "had its downsides to it," he appears to be alluding to the tarnish on a supposed golden age, but offers no evidentiary support to back up this claim. Although there were items on the progress checklist that stressed mechanics, I learned to work with grammatical and sentence structure issues, such as the kind that surfaced in Abdul's writing. I hoped that my instructional emphasis on writing would help build basic proficiency for ESOL learners, like Abdul, but my focus was on how they were wrestling with the ideas in conflicting accounts.

When I asked Abdul if he felt his writing was improving, he responded, "Yeah, if I understand the subject I feel I can write more and put more information in. If one source captures me, I can use that well, too" (Interview, 4/25/11). On the whole, his essays and classroom comments reflected a stance rooted in narrow, simplistic claims forged on the evidence of an appealing source, while other obviously "biased" sources were cast out because they did not fit the interpretation he had already worked out in his

head. In his introduction to the Industrial Revolution essay he charges full steam ahead. I appreciated his attempts to be colorful and verbose, but the lack of conditional language suggests that the answers are pretty straightforward:

Child labor, a sick labor that affected tons of children during the Industrial Revolution. It really made no sense to make young innocent children work tremendous long hours. Many positives came from the industrial revolution, but also many negatives. However, even though the child labor process was a unreasonable act. In my opinion, the Industrial Revolution had successful transition, but it also has/had many flaws to it.

To Abdul, conflicting evidence could be dealt with by choosing sources that matched his “opinion.”

And, yet, he did spend some time exploring the Ure source. This was the one that originally stuck out in his mind, because, after all, “Who describes kids in factories as cheerful?” He writes in his essay:

In Document 3, Andrew Ure explained that when he went to visit many factories in Manchester, he said the children weren’t getting beaten’. He also stated that they were having sort of a free time, and the bosses weren’t as strict as what the others said. Now, from my prior knowledge, I believe he probably may be right. Why? Well, owners don’t want the outside people to really know what they are saying is true, so when they know an inspector is coming, they will force the children to act normal, happy, and calm. In order for the owners to act smart, they play it smart and I believe Andrew Ure was fooled by what he saw, and that leads to the negative effects of the I.R.

To his credit, Abdul is actively working things out in his head. Still, this rather incredible conspiracy theory places him squarely in the subjectivist or overactive-knower position.

Kyle's playfulness has been well documented. Despite his flip remarks and off task behavior during DBQ 13, he scored his highest raw total (15) on the Industrial Revolution interpretive essay. Kyle demonstrated that he could examine the origin and value of some of the sources used in his essay. For example, he writes, "Joseph Hebergam began working in factories at age 7, as he told Michael Sadler before the House of Commons reform committee in an interview. Hebergam discusses the number of deaths that occurred (mostly children) within the factories." And while Kyle takes a long view of the developments of the Industrial Revolution, which allows him to consider multiple perspectives, he does so from a decidedly presentist vantage point. His introductory paragraph reads:

The Industrial Revolution was a time of major changes and unfortunate tragedies, however one must also consider the positive impact that it had as well. The Industrial Revolution could be seen as positive, if one views it as making sacrifices for the greater good. This statement sounds cold and inhumane yet look to the present now, think of all of the progress that has been made because of the success of the revolution. There are critics who would question the safety or harsh working conditions that workers had to deal with. But consider the time frame and the somewhat ignorance for the people of the past.

I wrote in the margins of his paper, "Try to examine events from their eyes, our present eyes have hindsight!"

Kyle showed little evidence of actively using the essay organizer I provided, except for developing a thesis sentence. In fact, in an interview a few weeks prior to the Industrial Revolution assessment, he commented, “I find the writing rubric helpful, but I’m pretty comfortable with the structure of these types of essays.” He was honest about the level of effort he put in to preparing for the assessment task. “I remember I said I would change since last time, but I haven’t. For me this is a pretty high score. I knew I would do pretty well based on what I was learning in class by itself.” He also admitted “relying on the sources you give us because I have minimum knowledge.” (He scored 60% on the first-order items.) He explained his process for writing the interpretive essays, “I look through the sources and I work through how it makes sense and relates to what I have learned in class.”

Summary

The research on progression in history points to specific conditions that are essential for optimizing historical knowledge growth. Lee and Ashby (2000) present the following factors as being central to this endeavor: the possession and presentation of a clear disciplinary framework on the part of the teacher; recognition of students’ prior knowledge; development of strategies to build on those understandings; and assessment that can track and encourage cognitive growth. Similarly, in summarizing learning principles relevant across the domains, Donovan and Bransford (2005) emphasize the integration of knowledge-centered, learner-centered, and assessment-centered perspectives in a classroom environment that fosters questioning, risk taking, and respect. In Chapters 4 and 5 I demonstrated how the critical history pedagogy I implemented

reflected these elements. Even though my own learning was evolving during the course of the study, assessment results point to the value of specific strategies and supports utilized in the space of the world history classroom. In fact, my own developing understanding of a disciplinary approach to teaching and learning history was integral to the development of more powerful ideas on the part of my students.

The study data support the idea that students must be taught and given opportunities to practice domain-specific strategies in order to demonstrate growth in historical thinking and writing. Although there were limits to the progression experienced by study participants and some groups of students seemed to benefit more than others, assessment results show general movement toward more powerful conceptual ideas and fluid strategic practices. Some of the largest numerical gains were made by the “highest” and “lowest” performing students (as determined by class grades and SOL results). The inconsistent level of interest, effort, and engagement by the “middle” performing group seemed to play a significant role in determining the trajectory of their growth. When teacher produced supports were taken away, the “highest” achievers maintained the strategic knowledge gains made earlier in the study, while the scores of the “low” and “middle” performing” groups dropped.

The data do not point convincingly to major epistemological shifts experienced by participants. This may be the product of both the length of the study and the instruments used. The data do, however, confirm a major finding of more longitudinal studies. Some of my students may have become more skillful at engaging in domain practices without accompanying conceptual development (see Lee & Ashby, 2000). Some improvement may have occurred because the assessment task became more familiar as the study

progressed, however, the trajectories presented above do not bear this out. In addition, the interest I took in the class as a whole at the start of the study may have given added momentum to the initial post-intervention surge. Finally, the extra time spent with the primary informants may have facilitated their growth. If so, the impact was uneven, as the net gains made by Abdul and Kyle were not comparable to those made by Ayana, Veronica, Katrina, and Juan (see Appendix Y).

While the layered analysis presented in this chapter charted divergent trajectories of growth, some overarching themes emerged. First, progression is not guaranteed and even when it happens, it takes time. Gains evidenced in scaled assessment measures may be lost. Second, systematic integration of conceptual-procedural knowledge requires presenting expert heuristics as decomposed tasks and bit by bit. This progressive scaffolding helps to prevent cognitive overloads and subsequent discouragement and disengagement. Third, a disciplinary model built on the foundations of a constructivist theory does not mean “letting go.” I discovered that teacher engagement increases when you pay more attention to students’ starting points and their evolving understandings. Finally, substantive knowledge matters, both in framing an historical episode that is the focus of an investigation and contextualizing sources and the authors of accounts during that investigation.

The data indicate that there is a correlation between students’ substantive knowledge about an historical period and their ability to construct meaningful arguments to an investigative prompt about that era. Since substantive knowledge scores were higher in the investigative units than in the more conventional study of World War I, an argument could be made for the capacity of an investigative approach to build deeper

historical understanding. However, in these units, teacher presentations, review “games,” film excerpts, and textbook readings were used in conjunction with investigative source work and exercises in organizing evidence and building interpretations. Therefore, we need to consider the combined effect of these strategies in building substantive knowledge. This consideration, which I take up in Chapter 6, is part of a larger effort to rethink how we conceptualize historical investigations, especially when they are implemented with diverse students in a high stakes accountability climate that reinforces a narrow view of what it means to know history.

CHAPTER 6

REFRAMING HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS, ASSESSMENT, AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE EDUCATION COMMUNITY

Nearly 250 students crammed into the auxiliary gym at Hillendale to take the World History and Geography II SOL exam on Monday June 6, 2011. As a proctor for the test I watched some of my G9 students find their seats among the rows of folding tables spread out across the basketball court and into the dance studio. I imagined that across the state of Virginia, the roughly 97,000 sophomores enrolled in the modern world history course would be doing the same thing before the end of the school year. In addition, there were nearly 200,000 freshmen and juniors taking the World History and Geography I and United States and Virginia History exams, respectively (VDOE, 2010). Consider that Virginia students begin taking these high stakes exams in third grade and we get a sense of their familiarity with state accountability measures and the test-taking routines that have come to define assessment in the era of No Child Left Behind.

As my students began to navigate the computer module that would give them access to the seventy question multiple-choice test, I thought about their experiences in my class and the extent to which they aligned with the format of the exam. They certainly were familiar with the typical multiple-choice design used on the SOL. In fact, some of my own end-of-unit assessments had students ferret out the one “correct” answer from a group of options. But they also spent a lot of time reading multiple documents, making sense of conflicting perspectives, and building interpretations from the residua of the

past. Very few of the items on the SOL exam would test the conceptual or strategic knowledge that were central to the teaching and learning taking place in my classroom during investigative units.

However, in Viking Time review sessions leading up to the SOL exam, teacher-guided practice, which had been used to model historical thinking and writing, became an exercise in test-taking skills. I encouraged students to “use what the question gives you.” For example, they became proficient at parroting this line about geography related questions: “Look at the title. Look at the key. The answer is in the map.” I trained them to “READ THE QUESTION CAREFULLY, THEN READ IT AGAIN.” On practice tests we rehearsed crossing out answers that were clearly “wrong” in the process of finding the “right” choice (Journal, 5/18/11). The cognitive process for investigating the past, which was still posted on the wall in my classroom, was suspended at this point in the year.

Introduction

The implications outlined in this chapter rest on a set of conclusions generated from the data collected for this study and the findings presented in Chapters 4 and 5. As such, they work from two major premises related to student learning. First, there is value added in a disciplinary approach to learning history. Mainly, students seem more likely to gain deeper understandings of the past and a greater sense of their own capacity to shape those meanings when they participate in a classroom culture of disciplined inquiry. Second, when the domain's cognitive tools are progressively scaffolded and learning supports are designed to meet the range of aptitudes and skill levels present, students in diverse public school settings can experience growth in their historical thinking and understanding.

The second set of premises relates to the teacher's role in facilitating progression in light of the external constraints associated with state and district policy levers. First, teachers who view the curriculum as a servant of their goals and purposes and not a mere master of pedagogical decision-making cultivate a respect for their role as "curriculum-instructional gatekeepers" (see Thornton, 1991). As such, they can weave a disciplinary thread that spans an entire course, helping to bridge investigative and more conventional lessons or units. Second, as I discovered in this study, external constraints become background concerns when teachers are more focused on what their students actually know and are learning about history and less concerned with where they are in the pacing guide. Attention to internal knowledge-based constraints involves teachers in identifying conceptual hurdles that may be impeding learning and presenting students with new disciplinary tools or frameworks that might facilitate progression.

As classroom level bureaucrats, practitioners are certainly responsible for implementing educational policies and reforms directed by outside experts. However, developing a model of “adaptive expertise” requires blending technical views of teaching with the capacity for instructional innovation, what Bransford and Darling-Hammond (2005) call “innovation within constraints” (p. 364). The implications that follow necessarily recognize that teachers have more control over some things than others. I begin by making some general observations about the structure and function of formal curricula and assessment measures. I extend this discussion by sharing implications related to stakeholders in the wider education community in which I have been working over the past 10 years, including researchers and teacher educators at the university level and administrators and professional learning teams at the secondary level.

Centered in this discussion are implications for high school history teachers working with diverse students in high stakes accountability contexts. In particular, I examine how my own understanding of disciplinary learning evolved during the course of the study. In turn, I discuss how we might reframe our conceptualizations of what it means to investigate the past using powerful disciplinary tools in these types of contexts. Because of the context specific nature of teacher-research, I recognize the humble and tentative nature of these recommendations. In taking such a stance, I also recognize the limitations of my own research. While they do not prevent me from making meaningful claims, they do restrict the scope of these claims.

Limitations of the Study

The Culminating Historical Investigation

In Chapter 3 I outlined a set of goals for the critical history pedagogy that included a culminating historical investigation project (see Appendix D). Centered on a topic of their choice from 1945-present, students were to ask questions of personal and historical significance and answer those questions using the disciplinary tools they had progressively acquired over the course of the year. I did not assign the end of year project. Field notes and analytic memos in May and June point to a number of factors that influenced this decision. At this point in the year, the pressure I felt to prepare students for the SOL exam intensified. Because investigative units took more time, the “race to the finish,” which I describe at the end of Chapter 4, was more pronounced in the year of the study than in previous years.

A week before the exam I wrote in my teacher research journal, “Moving forward. Students took unit test on World War II and Cold War. I have one class for independence movements, one class for contemporary issues, [and] then they take the SOL. Very little room to spare for the historical investigation. I think I made the right decision” (Journal, 5/30/11). Was this the kind of self-justifying preservation of the status quo I spoke of in Chapter 1? I was, at least, feeling the conserving momentum associated with the “grammar of schooling?” (Tyack & Tobin, 1994). Besides trying to “cover” the breadth of the curriculum, I was worried that Juan, Katrina, and some of their struggling classmates, who were not part of the study, did not have a grasp of some of the basic historical content that would likely show up on the state test. This prompted me to

assign an SOL review project which encouraged them to connect the broad themes associated with each unit to specific historical figures and events studied in those units.

Even if there was additional time to support students' independent research, I am not sure I would have had the energy for the level of teacher investment required to make these projects go. "I am feeling tired and drained," I wrote in a May memo (Journal, 5/16/11). The fatigue I was experiencing after a full year of teaching and research was compounded by my frustration with the results of earlier independent investigations on topics related to the Industrial Revolution (see Appendix Q). Most of the class worked in pairs, while a handful of students worked individually. Of the primary informants, Juan (who worked with a partner) and Katrina, who worked alone, did not complete the project. Kyle, who worked with Andrew, contributed very little to the group product.

Some groups produced fine looking posters which made transparent the different types of sources they found (e.g., primary, secondary, images, etc.). Melissa and her partner developed a poster (see Appendix Z) and an essay that met some of the parameters of the project, but had difficulty offering anything more than a textbook briefing on the significance of the cotton gin. With my help they located some interesting documents which opened the door to examining conflicting perspectives, but they did not analyze these sources as the project required. In fact, most of the projects offered only a cursory analysis of sources and little in the way of in-depth substantive knowledge.

Only four of the projects (by Robert and Alex individually, Alicia and Patricia as a group, and by Ayana and Veronica as a group) offered interpretations framed by a rich first-order narrative. These six students, all from the *gainers and maintainers* grouping

discussed in Chapter 5, took advantage of the scaffolded steps I created to break up the investigative process. In addition, they used feedback from progress checks to extend their source analyses and add depth to their interpretive essay responses. I did not expect all students to suddenly produce criterialist interpretations, but I did expect them to take advantage of the supports I provided.

Evidence of Second-Order Conceptual Knowledge Growth

In proposing research question 3(b) I was hoping to explore the relationships between the different types of domain knowledge (for example, first-order, second-order, and strategic knowledge) evidenced in participant assessment scores. A few issues related to the use of the second-order conceptual knowledge items (see full list in Appendix G), as well as the data generated by them, suggest that there may be limits to the findings connected to these measures. The quantitative data on participants' conceptual knowledge growth suggests a neat unit-to-unit progression toward more powerful ideas (see Table 5.6). Raw averages (Range = 0-20) move from 9.94 on the baseline measure to 11.07 at Point 1 to 11.73 at Point 3 and to 12.31 at Point 4.

However, I did not include the five conceptual knowledge items on the Point 2 assessment. Because the “essential knowledge” listed in the state standards was so dense for the Global Encounters unit, I included more first-order items on this assessment (as compared to the two previous data points) in order to test students' understanding of this expansive substantive knowledge. Worried that students would not have enough time for the interpretive essay, I left out the conceptual knowledge items at Point 2. This decision made it difficult to make judgments about the possible connection between a students' command of organizing ideas and concepts at this point in the study and their use of

strategic practices in writing the interpretive essay. It also reflects the tension teacher and researcher roles that surfaced throughout the study.

Disciplinary models point to a cognitive interaction between students' conceptual knowledge and their use of domain strategies (see VanSledright, 2014). Given the slight decrease in the strategic knowledge raw average at Point 2, I would have been interested to see if there was a parallel drop in second-order scores. Even with this "missing" data, clear patterns would have been difficult to establish. While a few of the participants earned second-order scores that matched their strategic knowledge trajectory (e.g., Patricia), overall, there was not obvious parallel movement. For example, some high performing students who experienced sharp increases and maintained their gains on the strategic knowledge rubric had erratic scores on the conceptual knowledge measure (e.g., Veronica). Others with high variation in relation to their interpretive essay scores show steady growth in their second-order scores (e.g., Cynthia).

As mentioned in Chapter 3 I had taken these second-order items from a pool of questions developed for the Historical Knowledge and Teaching Assessment (HKTA). I was generally comfortable with the "fit" between the scaled responses and the scoring rubric (see Chapter 3, pp. 96-97); however, the students' experience with these items did not match their use for study purposes. First, they were presented as "extra credit" on the unit tests. As a result, some students might not have taken them seriously. Second, time constraints prevented me from scoring them using the scaled rubric until the completion of the study. In this way, there were missed opportunities to effectively use the measure as a diagnostic tool to direct instruction.

The literature on progression may help to explain the absence of clear patterns in the second-order data. According to Lee and Ashby (2000), “students’ ideas within broad conceptual areas are decoupled. They do not necessarily develop in parallel” (p. 213). They also indicate the possibility that progression in different areas may not happen at the same time (p. 213). It is unclear whether the results of this study bear out these research-based findings. Given the issues with the data related to students’ conceptual knowledge, I would like to have assigned a parallel set of second-order questions at the end of the year that aligned with the initial “What is history?” journal entry. The primary informants addressed these types of questions in their second interview, but the data collected there was also limited.

First-Order Substantive Knowledge Items

The percentage scores generated by the substantive knowledge questions may also limit my ability to make clear connections between performance on first-order items and related domain ideas and procedures. As mentioned in Chapter 3 (p. 97), time and substantive knowledge constraints limited my efforts to systematically construct and integrate weighted multiple choice items (WMC’s) into my end of unit assessments. Although some of my test items had the general shape of substantive knowledge WMC’s, the responses were not scaled. For example, this question from the Global Encounters assessment (which I scale below) is very similar to one VanSledright (2014) includes in a sample set of WMC’s in his book on assessment practices for disciplinary learning (p. 125):

What is the best explanation for the large number of Native American deaths in Central Mexico between 1500 and 1620?

- a. wars with the Spanish conquistadors (1)
- b. the introduction and spread of European diseases (4)
- c. forced labor of the encomienda system (2)
- d. religious prophecies about the return of Quetzalcoatl (0)

In the case of substantive knowledge WMC's, such as this one, construct validity and diagnostic potential rest partly on the teachers' own deep understanding of the historical era in question. This consideration is essential in the design of requirements for teacher education programs, a point which will be discussed later.

The tug of conventional assessment practices may also account for my decision-making with regard to the items I included on end of unit tests. For example, I was in the habit of taking discrete objectives from the state standards and turning them into simple matching items, especially when this content was not addressed within the scope of an investigation. The fact that I had been "field testing" most of my first-order questions since I started teaching world history in the county, adds a degree of reliability to these measures. However, as VanSledright (2014) notes, standard first-order questions may "sacrifice construct validity to achieve test reliability" (p. 8). Still, I am comfortable with the causal links I made in Chapter 5 between students' substantive knowledge percentage scores and their ability to effectively employ strategic practices in the process of writing interpretive essays.

Comparison of SOL Performance

Research question 3(c) directed me to explore how my students did on the SOL exam relative to the students who took the modern world history course with me the year before the study. I reasoned that if the study could generate data supporting the value

added by a disciplinary approach, it should also demonstrate that study participants could perform on the SOL exam *at least as well* as previous students who did not experience the critical history pedagogy. In 2009-2010, 95% of my students passed the state test. Of those, 25% earned an “advanced” rating by scoring at least 500 out of a possible 600 points. In the year of the study 82% of the participants passed the exam, with only two of them (less than 1%) earning the “advanced” rating.

While the drop in scores was certainly troubling to me, the size of the comparison groups, as well as significant changes to the SOL exam in the year of the study, made this analysis untenable. In 2009-2010, I taught sixty-five students in three separate sections of the World History and Geography II course. In the year of the study I taught only one section of modern world history. 2011 was also the first year that the 2008 revised standards were incorporated into the content of the SOL exam. In addition, the cut score for both the “pass/proficient” and “pass/advanced” ratings were raised in the year of the study. Finally, the nature of the questions, themselves, changed. Sample test questions available on the state’s website show a profusion of new items testing students’ ability to read maps, diagrams, and timelines and then recall a name, event, or more general idea missing from the figure (VDOE, 2011). Even though my class passing rate (82%) was close to the school average (85%) for World History and Geography II, I was still frustrated that a test of “higher standards” could not measure the range of historical knowledge gains experienced by many of my students.

Implications for Policymakers

Curriculum and Assessment in Virginia: Revisiting the State History Standards

In Chapter 1, I argued that the interest of states and school districts in raising test scores and making Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) outweighed any serious consideration of the model of learning “officialized” by policy instruments, like the SOL’s. Addressing the format of high-stakes exams in Virginia, VanSledright (2014) asserts that these tests produce “an impoverished gauge of student understanding in history” (p. 7). The vignette at the beginning of this chapter confirms this view. Not only do accountability measures in Virginia forward a reductive view of what it means to know history, they also encourage rote learning and reinforce the conservatism of practice. As I have indicated above, I felt the tug of these influences during this study.

If we examine the language of the state standards for world history, it appears that policy makers in Virginia have at least reviewed some of the research on historical thinking. The document reads:

The study of history rests on knowledge of dates, names, places, events, and ideas. Historical understanding, however, requires students to engage in historical thinking, to raise questions, and to marshal evidence in support of their answers. Students engaged in historical thinking draw upon chronological thinking, historical comprehension, historical analysis and interpretation, historical research, and decision making. These skills are developed through the study of significant historical substance from the era or society being studied (VDOE, 2008, p. 1).

The standards apparent interest in improving students' "skills in historical research" by "identifying, analyzing and interpreting primary and secondary sources" is not reflected in the shape and function of the SOL exam.

In fact, the primary policy instrument designed to drive pedagogical decision-making in the state of Virginia presents a very narrow view of what it means to know history. The test items almost exclusively question students' surface level understanding of first-order substantive knowledge, flattening a vibrant domain rich with questions and controversy into rigid body of settled "facts." I imagined that the act of clicking on "right" answers was a bit like stacking cordwood in neat piles. But "right" or "wrong," for many students, it still amounted to so much "lumber and debris." And when it came crashing down on them, as it did for Juan and Katrina, who both failed the SOL exam by a narrow margin, they had to pick up the pieces during additional remediation sessions or summer school. These "retakes" may have gotten them over the cut score, but they did not greatly enhance their learning of history. In fact, by limiting the development of more powerful ideas, it may have actually impeded their learning and cut short opportunities to gain some leverage on the objects of historical study.

Because of the narrow slice of historical knowledge tested by the SOL exam, it is not clear what those who pass it actually know about history, either. An examination of sample test questions suggests that the "critical" thinking and analysis necessary for success on the exam are primarily measures of reading comprehension and test-taking skills, not historical thinking as it is defined in the research literature. Assuming that social studies teachers around the state of Virginia include even some of the test-taking drills described in the opening vignette in their own instructional routines, it's no wonder

that history becomes deadened for so many primary and secondary students. As mind-numbing as it is, this anesthetizing approach to learning about the past was no doubt comfortable for some of my students, especially given the persistence of conventional practice described in the literature.

So, while policymakers in Virginia pay lip service to “historical thinking,” it is not clear that they have seriously read the research-based literature or understand how young people learn history. A more politically interested argument would demonstrate how the narrow view of historical knowledge forwarded by the Virginia Standards of Learning reinforces an equally reductive narrative about world history. Viewed in this light, the SOL’s could be seen as part of a larger identity-shaping project. Students’ ability to commit to memory a narrative about the exceptionality of the United States (Sexias, 2000) and to place a distinctively American story within the broader sweep of Western civilization (Dunn, 2000), may be regarded as a measure of good citizenship. Of course, the fact that these tests are cost-efficient and easy to administer (compared to the interpretive essays and WMC’s described above) may ultimately explain the staying power of the Virginia SOL’s (Kelly, Meuwissen, & VanSledright, 2007).

Leave No Child Behind: The Cases of Juan and Katrina

If they buy into the policy apparatus designed to hold them accountable, minority students, like Juan and Katrina, may gain the rewards associated with passing the state exam. For their part, the state and its local districts can trumpet the latest successes in closing the achievement gap. However, it has been theorized that swallowing a steady diet of “other people’s facts” (Holt, 1990) and officialized narratives (Apple & Weis,

1983) which invite them to recall the collective memory of “our” Western heritage may alienate minority students, create barriers to their positive identification with school, and detrimentally impact their academic achievement. And, by sorting underperforming students and “failing” institutions, recent accountability reforms may actually reinforce the existing power relations in schools and the wider society, even though they propose to *leave no child behind* (Shujaa, 1994).

Since both Juan and Katrina failed the SOL exam, it may be easy to dismiss the value of the critical history pedagogy in which they were engaged. We have seen, though, the limited nature of these tests, especially their ability to actually measure student understanding in history. The data generated by this teacher research study suggests that a disciplinary model tailored to meet the needs of struggling readers and writers, may hold greater promise as a means for closing the achievement gap. Tracking strategic knowledge results from the baseline to Point 3 evidences a steady decrease in the range of participant scores (see Figure 5.5). The data suggest that traditionally low performing students can develop more powerful ideas and strategies when challenged with high expectations and supported by disciplinary tools and the encouragement of their teacher.

On the baseline assessment there was a twelve point range that spanned from the lowest raw score (a 1 by Juan) to the highest (a 13 by Ayanna). That gap closed to eleven on the Renaissance assessment (Point 1) and ten on the Global Encounters assessment (Point 2). On the Industrial Revolution assessment (Point 3) there was only a seven point difference between the highest and lowest interpretive essay scores. No student had an analytic total below 10 and none above 17. By the World War I assessment (Point 4), the

range of raw scores jumped back up to 12 where it started. The highest raw score at the endpoint was 18 (by Ayana and Alicia) and the lowest a 6 (by Juan). Recall that when the learning supports were pulled away, the *temporary gainers* and *fluctuators* did not maintain all of the numerical gains they made earlier in the study.

Still, I am reminded of Katrina's rather remarkable growth (see Figure 5.5), even if it was more skill-based than conceptual. The critical inference is this: the kind of powerful diagnostic assessment I was attempting to employ necessarily accounts for where students start and how they grow, not simply where they are at single data point or how they perform in relation to their peers. The interpretive essay rubric allowed me to measure movement within procedural categories in order to target particular learning outcomes and facilitate strategic knowledge growth, as opposed to simply sorting students on either side of a cut score. The SOL exam and even some of my own summative assessments, in contrast, are traditional win-or-go-home tests. As well-intentioned as the accountability measures in Virginia are, policymakers might better serve their constituents by reevaluating those policy instruments designed to leave no child behind.

Reframing Historical Investigations: Implications for Secondary History Teachers

This teacher-research study was designed to explore how I might mediate the influences of these policy levers at a school with a diverse student population. The hybridized course I created offers a model for teachers working in similar contexts. It was more complex than simply alternating between conventional teacher-directed, textbook driven units and more inquiry-based investigations. In fact, it might be

characterized as “innovation within constraints” (Bransford & Darling-Hammond, 2005). I learned to utilize traditional classroom structures in the context of our open-ended inquiries and to direct these practices toward more meaningful encounters with historical knowledge. For their part, students learned that they could not separate the investigative “skills” and concepts they were using during an historical investigation from the substantive knowledge they were learning. The extent to which these investigations prepared students for the SOL exam or, alternately, furthered the goal of deeper historical understanding partly hinges on how we conceptualize disciplinary learning in high stakes accountability contexts.

The Need for Definitional Clarity

I gave a lot of space in the literature review to explaining how a disciplinary approach, blended with elements of critical multiculturalism, diverges from traditional social studies curriculum and instruction. While I understood that the investigative model I constructed (see Figure 3.3) required me to “build historical knowledge” using textbook readings and direct presentations, I did not anticipate the extent to which these instructional methods would surface in the data. My awareness of their prevalence was articulated in analytic memos as uneasiness about the amount of “teacher talk” I was seeing and frustration that “I [could not] seem to let go” during supposedly independent investigative tasks (Journal, 7/21/11). As the study progressed, these early concerns evolved into a “need for definitional clarity” (Journal, 2/28/11). Field notes and accompanying analytic memos during the Industrial Revolution unit suggest I became occupied with how I was conceptualizing historical investigations (Journal, 2/21/11, 2/28/11, and 3/14/11).

Consider the following entry in my teacher research journal. It represents my efforts to “check in” to assess student learning and “fold back” to reinforce historical content:

Today I felt the need to check in with basic content knowledge, provide some visual images via the *Century of the Machine* documentary, and reinforce some focus areas for the source analysis part of the unit project. I also felt the need for a rapid-fire set of exercises. The source work, if allowed to go on for more than 30 minutes, produces too many yawns, heads down, and disengaged looks. Maybe I felt the need for variety given the level of cognitive overload or teenage attention spans. I showed the England and Europe clips [from the video], which highlighted new sources of power, mainly steam, as well as work in factories, unions, cities, etc. After each clip I had students discuss and chart the positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution [the unit investigative focus] using evidence from the video. I then had those who did the homework [a textbook reading and identical chart] share evidence that was not in the video. [Then] students worked together in groups to complete fill-in review items dealing with why the Industrial Revolution began in England [the focus for DBQ 12]. Where possible, I made connections to the DBQ 12 sources. [The remainder of the class was spent] describing Step II of the unit project (Journal, 2/21/11).

Analyzing this passage in the summer following the study, I wrote in the margins of my journal, “What *is* an investigation? Is it only working with complex primary documents or doing source work in the context of DBQ’s? Does it preclude the use of textbook readings, direct instruction, videos, and fill-in reviews?” (Journal, 7/20/11).

What I discovered is that these “conventional” structures and practices could be effective when used in the context of open-ended inquiries and directed toward the interpretation of a vexing historical question. Building the substantive knowledge necessary to access DBQ source readings was especially necessary in a context where reading comprehension was a struggle for some and background reading (assigned for homework) inconsistent. In this sense, “covering” content became even more important than I envisioned. Other “conventional” methods (e.g., videos and fill-in reviews) were used to reinforce substantive knowledge that was “uncovered” during primary source analysis activities.

The process of “checking in and folding back” became so central to my teaching practice during the investigative units of the study that I added it as a key step in the instructional model for historical investigations. This model, originally introduced in Figure 3.3 is updated below (see Figure 6.1). It not only reflects a concern for reinforcing the essential knowledge students would encounter on the SOL exam, but also highlights the importance of monitoring students’ developing conceptual ideas and domain-specific reading and writing strategies. The earlier instructional model accounted for a feedback loop at the end of each unit. This amended diagram demonstrates the need for continuous formative assessment during the investigative process and responsiveness on the part of the teacher to the evolving needs of the diverse learners in the classroom.

Figure 6.1 Updated instructional model for historical investigations

Engage with controversy	Engage students by exploring controversial contemporary issues or topics of personal relevance
Focus investigation around a question	Provoke debate by focusing unit investigation around an arguable historical question(s)
Explore prior knowledge	Explore prior knowledge and conceptions related to first- and second-order ideas
Build historical knowledge	Build context-specific background knowledge and relevant domain ideas
Teacher guided practice	Support critical reading and analysis of multiple documents and conflicting accounts
Independent investigation	Individuals or groups engage in source work around investigative question
Check in and fold back	Process source work, assess learning, and reinforce historical content, domain ideas, or strategies
Make sense of the evidence	Support the organization of evidence and the development of written arguments
Develop interpretations	Students develop interpretive essay responses to investigative question
Provide feedback	Provide feedback to students on interpretive essays and offer opportunities for self-reflection

Taking formative assessment seriously also involved reflecting on the motivational influence of the different modes of instruction I employed. This was especially important for those learners who appeared to be driven more by situational, rather than individual interest (Alexander, 2006). In the course of the study, I discovered that some, but not all of my students were motivated to use primary sources (See interviews with Ayana and Juan, 4/25/11 and 4/28/11); nor did it appear that these types of documents could or should be used exclusively to build historical knowledge (see Barton, 2005).

We have seen how an investigative approach leaves room for teachers and students to respond to the past with a sense of empathy and understanding. Storytelling and dramatic reenactments also served as enticements for some of my learners (See

interviews with Abdul and Veronica, 4/25/11 and 4/27/11). These instructional practices connected to another strand of my views on teaching, mainly its function as a carefully planned aesthetic act (see Eisner, 1985). So, historical investigations, as they unfolded in the context of my classroom, did not preclude the use of direct teacher presentations, secondary source background readings, or carefully chosen videos, nor did it prevent me from utilizing other perceived strengths (e.g., dramatic recitations) in the context of those investigations. In the end, it all became evidence when directed at the unit investigative question.

In many ways, the critical history pedagogy I implemented and my evolving conceptualization of disciplinary teaching and learning shares much in common with similar inquiry-based projects introduced to struggling readers in culturally diverse contexts. For example, the “Reading Like a Historian” program, a document-based history curriculum intervention used in five San Francisco secondary schools “organized existing forms of social organization that typify social studies classrooms (e.g., lecture, recitation, seatwork, group-work, whole-class discussion) into a predictable and repeatable sequence that engaged students in the processes of historical inquiry” (Reisman, 2012a, p. 3). In this way, according to Reisman, the project “rejected the classic dichotomies of classroom reform that pit textbooks against primary sources, content coverage against depth, passive learning against active engagement, and the accumulation of knowledge against the development of skills” (pp. 19-20).

So, even within the apparent constraints of public school contexts, history teachers can utilize the ready-made materials offered by programs, such as “Reading Like a Historian” (Reisman, 2012b), or other document sets accumulating online or in

ancillary textbook materials. Of course, teachers, like some of the participants in my own study, can develop algorithmic approaches to historical investigation, especially when they lack clear disciplinary ideas or fail to model an inquiry mindset themselves (Lee & Ashby, 2000). If teacher-guided source analysis becomes a simple exercise in taking notes and independent student investigation devolves into filling out worksheets, then even an inquiry approach can look and feel “conventional” and, subsequently, close opportunities for growth.

The data collected for this study suggests that inquiry based learning helps facilitate deeper understanding of the past. The investigative approach also seems to equip students with a conceptual framework and cognitive tools to continue that pursuit after they leave the classroom. The study cannot point convincingly to a particular method that is better suited to teaching the breadth of low-level narrative knowledge necessary to pass the SOL exam. However, this attempt at definitional clarity has reinforced the importance of both historical content and domain ideas. The literature reminds us that they need each other and should coexist in the same classroom. As Donovan and Bransford (2005) note: “knowledge of facts and knowledge of important organizing ideas are mutually supportive” (p. 7). I have not completely reconciled the tension between the depth offered by an inquiry approach and the coverage demanded by the SOL’s, but that tension was instrumental to how I framed the hybridized modern world history course.

Weaving a Disciplinary Thread through a Hybrid Course

The culture of inquiry which I established during unit investigations certainly lost momentum when we transitioned into more conventional units of instruction, but I was

able to string a disciplinary thread that spanned most of the course. Except in April and May when coverage supplanted depth, my planning and instruction never lost sight of a disciplinary organizing framework. Students seemed to follow my lead in terms of when to ratchet up the level of detailed source work per the parameters of particular assignments or classroom activities. As such, they never really stopped practicing historical thinking, even though the investigative focus ebbed and flowed throughout the year.

For one of the culminating assessments in the Absolutism and Enlightenment unit (which took place in late November and December), I had students create propaganda pamphlets from the perspective of a historical figure (see student work sample in Appendix Z). They were tasked to construct creative, yet historically accurate and context-specific primary sources. Even though the project did not require students to ply their sources in any depth, many of their products presented content that went beyond that required by the state standards. Just as important, they were getting practice utilizing one of the school's databases (ABC-CLIO), which I found particularly suited to source work. I hoped the indirect attention I was giving to locating primary documents and trustworthy secondary accounts would keep domain ideas and an inquiry mindset in plain view, even while we focused on learning the dense "essential knowledge" related to our study of Absolutism and Enlightenment.

During our unit on the French Revolution, Napoleon, and Nationalism (which took place in January and early February) I opened most classes with an image from the time period, focusing on portraiture (e.g., paintings of French monarchs), paintings (e.g., Delacroix's *Liberty Leading the People* or Goya's *The Third of May, 1808*) or political

cartoons (including depictions of the French revolutionary mob from a digital archive project out of George Mason's Center for History and New Media). These were typically teacher led exercises in detailed description and analysis. The culminating activity of the unit asked students to create and analyze their own political cartoons and, in a follow-up activity, to analyze a classmate's cartoon (see student work samples in Appendix Z). We did not make any specific references to the source analysis guide used in the study's focus units, but the language I modeled kept historical thinking on the table. Student created sources, like the ones described here, demonstrate to practicing teachers other ways to reinforce historical content and facilitate discussions of source origin, perspective, and context.

Addressing Teacher Questions and Concerns

If we can reasonably claim, as I do here, that there is value added by employing a critical history pedagogy with diverse learners, than it is worth asking what might prevent educators from trying such an approach? Below I lay out a set of reasonable questions and concerns that I've heard from both undergraduates in social studies methods courses and veteran practitioners in the district where I teach. At risk of producing an overly practical technology of teaching, I answer them in the context of the data collected for this teacher research study and my personal experiences with diverse learners in a high-stakes accountability context.

Many of my students cannot read proficiently out of the textbook. How do get them to read an entire document set, including complex primary sources? Start small and carefully guide them through the process. Develop a focus question to guide their inquiry then choose a single source to read out loud, one that has been edited for use with

secondary learners. (I could have done better in this regard.) Provide some historical background that might allow them to access the texts meanings. Model the kind of questions you want them to ask: Who wrote this account? What are they saying? How does who they are or when they are writing impact the content of the source? What was their purpose in creating the account? Does the source help us to answer our question? Why might we use caution when using this source as evidence to answer the question? What other kinds of sources might help to answer the question? Read a second source. Choose one that offers contradicting evidence or a conflicting perspective. Progressively build the investigation and the level of questioning from lesson to lesson and unit to unit.

I simply do not have the time to find source materials? Document sets and supporting investigative materials are proliferating online. Government-run or university-based archives are a good place to start, though I have found some easier to navigate than others. Library databases designed for young learners (e.g., ABC-CLIO) are sometimes more accessible, as are materials prepared by local curriculum development specialists. Textbook companies and independent publishers are even getting involved in what has become a profitable enterprise. Ready-made document-based materials like the ones I used for some of my assessment tasks (see Noonan, 1999) can save time that may be better spent thinking about *how* the documents will be used. Work with colleagues to share source materials. This kind of collaboration reinforces the value of engaging in an inquiry approach.

Where am I going to find the time to read and grade these long interpretive essays? There is no denying that there will be considerable time investment for secondary history teachers who want to develop the kind of historical thinking and writing outlined

in this study. A clearly articulated rubric (see Figure 3.6, pp. 92-93) may be internalized over time and can make assessment more manageable. Accompanying progress checklists (see Appendix X) can be used to highlight strengths and areas of improvement with regard to general writing skills, historical thinking/strategic writing, and detailed content knowledge. Involve your students in reading and assessing their own and others historical writing and carve out space during teacher collaboration to share assessment practices with your curriculum level team. Finally, utilize shorter and more targeted historical writing exercises, as well (e.g., single source document analysis and comparative analyses of two conflicting sources).

I have to cover the state curriculum and stay within the parameters of the district pacing guide. How am I going to do this if I work with my students on these longer historical investigations? I understand that the pressure associated with breadth of coverage and limited time is real and that it may vary depending on the school or district. I also believe that we have more power to shape curriculum and instruction than we sometimes imagine. Start by using a more inquiry-based approach in an extended lesson or a single unit, one where you have a firm command of historical content. Deeper understanding of an historical era or episode will help you to develop context specific focus questions, anticipate arguments and counter-arguments that address those questions, and guide your students through the investigative process. Align source materials with key “essential knowledge” targets and fill-in missing content with alternative sources of evidence directed at the investigative focus question. Be patient with yourself and your students. Developing the capacity for historical thinking and

writing takes time. Once you observe, first-hand, the value of such an approach, I believe you will see it is worth the investment.

The state exam is used to measure my success as a teacher. Will an investigative approach improve my SOL scores? Will I have time for SOL exam preparation? Based upon the results of this study, I cannot guarantee that an inquiry model for teaching and learning history will improve the kind of broad, low-level historical content needed to pass the state exam. It is likely to deepen your students' understanding of those historical episodes that become the focus of your investigative efforts and to develop in them more powerful ideas that will support the learning of historical content, in general. Just as important, they will develop important critical faculties that, in the long run, will be more beneficial than test-taking skills. I learned to combine breadth and depth, content and skills, source analysis and textbook readings into a hybrid course that, in the end, helped most of my students pass the state exam. This kind of innovation within the constraints of the local context was the result of years of research, practice, and reflection.

Implications for School Administrators and Professional Development Communities

Some of the most taxing constraints for me during the year of this study were the top-down mandates concerning the creation of common assessments and mandatory blocks of remediation during the school day. We were directed by school administrators to use teacher collaboration time to create SOL review tests that were to be used to remediate our students during Viking Time. I expressed frustration in my teacher research journal: "It's an insult to our intelligence and professional judgment to waste our

time creating another round of mind-numbing low level questions for remediation. Do they really think this will improve student achievement? Do they realize the narrow view of ‘achievement’ assumed by these measures?” (Journal, 2/12/11).

VanSledright (2002) discusses the importance of restructuring the workloads and daily routines of teachers in order to facilitate the kind of research and reflection that might help to counter these constraints. The creation of professional learning communities (PLC’s) and curriculum-level teams (CLT’s) are changing the way we think about professional development in schools. By carving out regular time and space for collaboration, I believe they hold great promise as tools to support teacher learning and growth. However, if framed primarily as a supporting mechanism for the state’s accountability system, professional collaboration will likely give momentum to conventional ways of looking at assessment and instruction. For their part, school administrators might consider the ways they sometimes replicate the pressures associated with top-down mandates and how, instead, they might more productively deflect these pressures.

In the same journal entry where I criticized the creation of common assessments, I turned my critique inward: “Aren’t we in control of the types of questions we ask our students?! We are not locked out of this process” (Journal, 2/12/11). I have sat in more productive collaboration meetings where teachers have played a central role in directing the agenda. For example, I worked with my colleagues who teach sections of advanced classes to create a set of principles and practices to guide our teaching of historical writing across the IB curriculum. I hope to be able have these same discussions during collaboration sessions with my colleagues who teach “regular” and “adapted” world

history classes. Convincing them (and me) that there is value added by an inquiry approach, that all secondary students can do this important work, and that innovative curriculum and instruction is possible within the constraints of the local context were all motivating factors for this research study.

Implications for University Researchers and Teacher Educators

Patrick Welch (2013), a long serving and respected English teacher in the district where I teach wrote this recently in an op-ed piece for the *Washington Post*:

In the four decades between when I started teaching...and my retirement this year, I saw countless reforms come and go; some even returned years later disguised in new education lingo. Some that were touted as “best practices” couldn’t work, given the demographics of [my school]. Others were nothing but common-sense bromides hyped as revolutionary epiphanies. All of them failed to do what I believe to be key to teaching: to make students care about what they’re studying and understand how it’s relevant to their lives.

Most of the critiques leveled against reform initiatives are not as eloquent. But the general thrust of their remarks is the same: we are tired of outside experts and the armies of consultants that claim to have all of the answers to the problems of our “failing” schools.

Just as often, I hear the complaint that the “overly theoretical” recommendations of university researchers are out of touch with the realities of daily classroom life.

However, in eschewing the advice of academic experts and the “common-sense bromides” associated with school reform, teachers often replace these with another type of common sense rhetoric. Their views tend to be confined by the practical observations of first-hand professional experience. As such, they could benefit from the distance afforded by the kind of research and reflection that “makes the familiar strange” (Erikson, 1973). In Chapter 1 I discussed the tension between these insider and outsider perspectives and my experience of engaging them in a dialogic process that has come to define my professional life. While I do not expect all teachers to straddle the research and practice divide quite the way that I have, I believe researchers and teacher educators at the university level should continue to develop undergraduate and graduate experiences which encourage their students to walk that line, not simply when they are at the university, but across their professional life span (see Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993).

Journalist Tom Friedman (2013) took a recent trip to Shanghai and spent time in their high performing schools in order to discover the “secret” that makes them successful. His findings: “There is no secret” (*New York Times*, A29). A closer reading of the article, however, indicates that a commitment to teacher development is at the center of their success. Researchers might continue to work with local school districts to advance effective models of professional learning that extend beyond the apprenticeship years. This would include developing the capacity for systematic inquiry (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993) into the puzzles and problems of teaching practice (Russell & Munby, 1991) and reflection on that practice. Reflective practice might include both the received wisdom that can come from peer-to-peer learning and (in the case of social studies teachers) immersion in the accumulating research on how young people learn history.

When these are framed “not simply as opposites, but as voices that engage one another in dialogue” (Erikson in Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, viii), teachers are more likely to benefit from their combined wisdom.

I referenced particular moments in the study when I felt like my grasp of curriculum content was weak and, yet, I also articulated an evolving understanding of the history domain and a disciplinary model of teaching and learning it. In constructing the specific requirements for college and university social studies education programs, teacher educators should consider the importance of both content knowledge and disciplinary norms and practices. An argument has been made by Ravitch (2000) about the primary importance of practitioners’ substantive knowledge related to the history curriculum areas they are charged to teach (pp. 143-155). However, a steeping in history’s narrative content will not, by itself, make better history teachers. If we expect teachers to facilitate the development of domain-specific organizing ideas and concepts on the part of their students, they, too, must have clear ideas about this disciplinary framework (Lee & Ashby, 2000).

Aside from a deep grounding in the full range of domain knowledge and an ability to articulate how these different types of historical knowledge may be put to pedagogical use, secondary history teachers would benefit from the continued efforts of university educators to engage them in teacher research and to raise the status of teacher inquiry. Johnston (2006) remarks:

The emancipatory potential of practitioner research runs counter to current restricted educational reform policies. Action and self-study research have the

potential to help educators both study and critique the impact of these policies on teaching, as well as better understand how we can proceed in ways that support our professional goals and insights.

In the end, I believe it is the ability of teachers to be moved by their own ideas intelligence (Dewey, 2008) that is the hallmark of the productive reconstruction of practice. As a unique form of systematic inquiry into teaching and learning (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993), I believe that teacher research has significant potential to improve the teaching and learning of history in diverse, high stakes accountability contexts.

Implications for Student Learning: Interview Responses by the Primary Informants

When the social studies education community considers the merits of an inquiry-based approach with an understanding of how students learn history, it can help loosen the restrictive grip of an accountability framework that seems to control instructional decision-making. And, hearing from diverse learners who have experienced an investigative approach in the history classroom removes the kind of polished sales pitches and predictable jargon that Welch (2013) referred to above. Here I share some quotes by the primary informants in my study, who allowed me to observe them, to interview them, and to tell a story about their experiences with the critical history pedagogy I implemented. The discussion that follows is not without my own analysis. In their words, though, we get a sense of some of the benefits they associated with their experience in the class, as well as the challenges they faced.

In the second interview, I asked the participants to think about their experiences in the modern world history class over the course of the year. I then presented them with these questions: What, if anything, has changed in the way you are thinking about or doing history? Do you feel like your performance in the class is improving in any way? Abdul responded, “I feel like my writing is improving. If I understand the subject, I feel like I can write more. If one source captures me, I can use it well.” Katrina echoed some of these remarks: “I think I’m improving in history, but analyzing sources takes a lot of time, especially when you don’t have enough information to apply to the sources. You need more background information.” Both students struggled, at times, to learn historical content. Still, they seem to understand, on some level, the mutually supportive relationship between factual and conceptual/strategic knowledge, even if they were not privy to the recurrent debate over the importance of learning the basic facts of a subject area versus big ideas and critical thinking skills.

However, Abdul’s unwavering reliance on a single appealing source and his attention to “us[ing] it well,” highlights the stubborn persistence of subjective views on the past, even in a classroom context that supports the examination of multiple sources and perspectives. Juan’s struggles seemed to center on more basic reading and writing skills. He noted, “The first [interpretive] essay, like I didn’t even know what I was doing. And then I did some writing in my ESOL class and I started to figure out how to do stuff, how to put stuff together.” For struggling readers, like Juan, attention to surface-level reading strategies may be as important as deep-processing activities, like source analysis (Alexander, 2006).

Veronica, on the other hand, appears to have been energized by the new challenges she faced in an inquiry-based environment. She responded to the first interview question by comparing her learning in this course to her previous history class. “Last year was more about taking notes and memorizing for the test. Now, we’re actually analyzing sources and knowing how to use them and place them [in essays]. It’s definitely a little more deep thinking.” Ayana indicated this about her involvement with the course: “I think I am better at understanding history now.” When I asked what has helped her to gain this deeper understanding, she noted, “It’s more interesting.” She went on to explain how she would direct that interest as a summer intern at the United States Memorial Holocaust Museum. Teachers are rightly proud of the success stories connected to highly motivated and personally invested students, like Veronica and Ayana. Their harmonious engagement with the historical investigations that unfolded in my classroom contrasts sharply with the dissonance created by resistant learners, like Kyle.

By itself, Kyle’s interview response suggests he was a willing and articulate voice in the classroom: “This was the first year we really used sources and focused on perspective and bias. I have become more insightful and aware that there are different perspectives and that you have to compare different sources and see what each argues.” It appears that Kyle is thoughtfully expressing a kind of metacognitive awareness. While he occasionally showed signs he could apply the concepts he references, he seemed to lack the motivation to follow through with it. Alexander (2006) could have been referring to Kyle when she described the characteristics of the “resistant reader.” She writes, “[They] apparently have the requisite knowledge and relevant strategies they need

to reach competence or even expertise. However, they lack the desire or will to realize this potential” (p. 21). Even if his performance was largely his own doing, my frustration with Kyle’s lack of progress led to a healthy reassessment, on my part, of the factors that may have turned him off to our historical investigations.

Conclusion

According to Stanley (2001), “practical reasoning is as much a matter of the competence to reformulate conceptions of our fundamental goals (or values) as it is an ability to carry out appropriate action in pursuit of those goals” (p. 256). Viewed in this light, the *critical history pedagogy* which is at the center of this investigation does not rest on a set of assumptions about what we should do in accordance with a priori values; rather it is the result of years of practice, research, and reflection, ultimately culminating in this teacher research study. And while I do not envision it as a panacea for secondary history education, I believe it promotes a vision of what is fulfilling and satisfying (see Cherryholmes, 1999).

In doing this study, I discovered how much teacher research and a disciplinary model of learning history have in common. Through systematic inquiry, teachers are empowered to direct their own learning toward the improvement of instructional practice. In the process, they must attend to issues of methodological rigor. Likewise, a critical history pedagogy shifts the locus of power in the history classroom and (also) demands disciplined methods. It gives students the space and the tools to shape the story of the past. I would argue that students who are encouraged to apply a critical lens to their

reading of words (e.g., historical texts) might also learn to critically read the world (past and present) and to cultivate a sense of their own historical agency (Freire, 2001; King, 2004; Segall, 1999). But they must be invited to participate in this process of historical meaning making.

A democratic classroom is not a place where anything goes, where any interpretation of the past or vision of the future is as good as the next. However, I believe it does cultivate a respect for the global diversity of our student population and their capacity construct knowledge and understand it more deeply. If employed thoughtfully, a critical history program provides thoroughly positioned students an independent location from which to critique their culture, the message it sends, and the goals it attempts to achieve.

Appendices

Appendix A: I am an historical and cultural being!

1. Name: _____ Period: _____ Class: _____

2. Your activities, interests, or hobbies (in school or in your community):

3. In school have you found that learning history has *nothing to do with you* or that it is *all about you*? Explain your answer!

4. What are your historical interests? In what particular people, cultures, events, or time periods are you most interested? Explain!

5. What unique historical/cultural knowledge or experiences do you and/or your family have? Explain!

6. What are your goals for this class/school year? What do you hope to accomplish?

9. What are you most excited about? What are you nervous about?

10. Is there anything else about yourself as a person or a learner that you wish to share?

11. Do you have access to a computer/the internet at home? If not, please explain how you will access the *24-7 Learning* site and do online research for this class or how I can help you in this regard.

12. Do you speak a language other than English? Which language do you speak at home?

Continue answers on back, if necessary.

Appendix B: Citizen of the World: A Historical and Cultural Geography

“We all came on different boats. Some were captured for our labor, some were captivated by a vision of opportunity. We all have different histories, different dates to mourn and celebrate....We must have an appreciation for each other’s history, and learn to live together in one big boat.”

--Jesse Jackson, excerpted from a speech in 1992

Directions: (Part 1) Complete the statements below using information from your own life or your family history and cultural background. Be neat and thoughtful. (Part 2) Now, make your map talk! Label these “events” of your life on the map (on back). Include symbols both in the key and on the map. Use the maps in your textbook to help locate countries and regions. (Part 3) If one of your classmates were doing research on your life up to this point, what kind of evidence might help them learn about your (hi)story? Make a list of evidence below.

Part 1: If my map could talk, it would say:

1. I was born...
2. I have lived...
3. I now live...
4. I trace my family ancestry, cultural roots, and/or lines of immigration to...
5. Significant travels or journeys of my lifetime include...
6. In the future, I would like to go to...

Part 2: Complete the map (on back).

Part 3: Make a list of evidence.

Appendix C Sample Unit Matrix and Data Collection Table

Curriculum: Age of Exploration and Global Encounters (Oct.-Nov.)	Teaching Practices: An Investigative Model	Data Collection Strategies on Teaching	Research Questions Addressed
<p>Subject matter/ substantive knowledge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factors contributing to European exploration • Accomplishments of explorers • Impact on indigenous populations • Triangular trade • Trans-Atlantic slave trade • Columbian exchange • Mercantilism • Commercial revolution <p>Disciplinary tools/ concepts & skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History as account • Traditional v. revisionist accounts • Examining multiple perspectives • Contested nature of history • Source analysis • Interpretations via evidence-based essays • Making judgments about past actors and events (the purposes of history) <p>Unit investigative questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Columbus—Hero or villain? Should we celebrate or lament? Or does it even matter today!? • Evaluate the results of the encounter of three worlds— Europe, Africa, and America. 	<p>1. Intro. to unit -engage students via images, text, and discussion and access prior knowledge -introduce big ideas/questions to guide investigation</p> <p>2. Build context-specific background knowledge (throughout unit) -homework/in-class readings -teacher presentations</p> <p>3. Examine evidence: teacher-guided practice -guided readings of multiple sources/perspectives -model source analysis/perspective recognition via use of source analysis guide and unit source chart</p> <p>4. Examine more evidence: student-centered investigation -teacher circulates to monitor/support individual and group source work</p> <p>5. Making sense of the evidence -large and small-group -organize/corroborate evidence -develop competing interpretations</p> <p>6. Developing interpretations -applying knowledge via evidence-based, argumentative essay -individual task supported by writing checklist, guide, and source chart</p> <p>7. Teacher (and/or peer) feedback</p>	<p>Throughout unit:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • State/county curriculum documents • Teacher-created curriculum documents and lesson plans • Regular field notes and memos in teacher research journal <p>→ Video-tape teacher-guided practice</p> <p>→ Observation by classroom observer and follow-up interview</p> <p>→ Teacher feedback photocopied</p>	<p>4. What are the specific affordances and challenges for me in using an inquiry approach with diverse students in a high stakes accountability climate? Specifically, how do I navigate the pressure to prepare diverse students for success on the SOL exam, while also using that general curriculum framework to engage them in investigations of the past?</p> <p>5. How will I engage and support students, especially those learners outside of the cultural mainstream, in using the cognitive tools of the discipline?</p>

Learning Activities (numbers correspond to teaching practices listed above)	Data Collection Strategies on Student Learning	Research Question Addressed
<p>1. Students share log entries from Columbus Day “watch”; complete initial journal entries on what they know and how they feel about Columbus; view PPT on conflicting images of Columbus Day; examine unit study guide with guiding investigative questions, essential questions, and key terms/concepts; take brief notes on traditional v. revisionist accounts and read aloud examples of each</p> <p>2. Students complete homework readings and answer essential questions in short essay form; complete journal entries, engage in discussions, listen to brief presentations, and/or view graphic images to reinforce substantive/conceptual knowledge</p> <p>3. Students take turns reading sources and answering teacher questions at designated points in the text in order to explore origin, purpose, value, and limitations of the text. Students place the answers to these questions in their source chart.</p> <p>4. Students work individually or in groups to examine new sources; utilize the questions on the source analysis guide to assess source status, examine perspective, and build evidence trail; document their source work in the sources chart</p> <p>5. Students participate in group exercises and/or class discussions to visually represent evidence categories and organize or “bucket” evidence; are prompted by teacher to compare and contrast conflicting sources or make sense of evidence that does not “fit”; critique competing interpretations</p> <p>6. Students utilize sources chart/writing guides to answer investigative question in evidence-based written argument; answer substantive and conceptual knowledge items</p> <p>7. Students get teacher and/or peer evaluated assessments back and reflect in writing on their self-identified strengths and weaknesses</p>	<p>→ student responses captured in student journals, listed on board, and photographed/transferred to teacher research journal; teacher impressions of student interactions with concepts and texts also written up in journal</p> <p>→ homework short essays collected and evaluated to assess student understanding and writing skills</p> <p>→ Video/audiotape student interactions with teacher-guided practice → Collect and evaluate student source analysis chart and document impressions/patterns in research journal</p> <p>→ Observation by classroom observer → Corroborate teacher impressions with observer field notes → Note correspondences and discrepancies between researcher and observer accounts in memo</p> <p>→ Assessment task scored using scaled rubric and results documented on spreadsheet</p> <p>→ Collect student journals and questionnaires</p>	<p>6. How will the full range of student participants interact with the instructional activities I create and what will the outcomes of these interactions be?</p> <p>a. To what extent do students grow in their ability to think historically and develop deep(er) historical understandings?</p> <p>b. What are the relationships between the different types of domain knowledge (for example, first order, second order, and strategic knowledge evidenced in student learning/assessment tasks)?</p>

Procedure/Tool	Type	Purpose
<i>Standards of Learning</i> exam	Quantitative -Comparison of 2009-10 scores w/ 2010-11 scores	Determine if study participants could do at least as well as students in previous classes not experiencing intervention, per focus of research question 3(c)
Unit assessments protocol (to include strategic practices as represented in written essay responses, substantive knowledge items specific to the unit of study, and conceptual knowledge items)	Quantitative -Time series design Baseline and Points 1-4 -Scaled interpretive essay rubric and scaled WMC's Qualitative -Samples of student writing	Measure students' historical knowledge and potential growth over the course of the study. Explore potential relationships between student scores within the different domain knowledge categories.
Student projects employing elements of historical investigation*	Qualitative and Quantitative	Corroborate other forms of data evidencing changes in student domain knowledge
Student journals *	Qualitative	Provide written data for analysis of student ideas related to the nature of historical knowledge and prior knowledge related to unit topics/investigative questions
School, county, and state-produced reports and conversations with teachers and staff *	Quantitative and Qualitative	Provide data on students' documented academic strengths/weaknesses and past performance in history
Surveys, student self-assessments, and progress checks *	Qualitative	Provide written data for analysis of students' (evolving) self-reported cultural backgrounds and academic identities
Audiotaped student interviews *	Qualitative	Provide audio data for transcription and analysis related to student ideas about and understandings of history, their use of strategic practices, and their overall experiences in the class; corroborate other forms of data
State and county curriculum documents	Qualitative	Provide written data for analysis of how history is conceptualized and the goals of history education communicated via formal curricula
Teacher-created curriculum documents and lesson plans	Qualitative	Provide written data for analysis related to teacher interactions with the formal curricula; document specific tools and scaffolds to support student learning
Videotapes/photographs/audiotapes of class learning experiences and student presentations	Qualitative	Provide electronic data for transcription and analysis and for corroboration with other forms of data
Field notes of classroom observer	Qualitative	Provide written data for analysis and for corroboration with other forms of data
Informal and formal interviews with classroom observer	Qualitative	Check the "trustworthiness" or "fairness" of emerging interpretations
Teacher research journal and analytic memos	Qualitative	Document the thinking, practices, and learning of the teacher- researcher throughout the duration of the study

Appendix D

Historical Investigation Project: 1945 to the Present

Possible Project Topics:

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Communist Revolution in China and its contemporary legacy• Korean War and its contemporary legacy• Vietnam War and its contemporary legacy• Independence Movement in India• Creation of Pakistan and Bangladesh• Independence Movements in Africa• The Arab-Israel Conflict• Conflicts in Northern Ireland• Civil War in El Salvador• Revolution in Cuba	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Contemporary issues surrounding refugees and asylum-seekers• Contemporary issues surrounding immigration• Contemporary issues facing developing nations (e.g., economic development, population growth, AIDS, and public education)• Contemporary issues surrounding economic development or the environment• Contemporary issues surrounding increased globalization and economic interdependence• Other topics related to Asia, Africa, the Middle East, or Latin America (1945-Present) approved by Mr. Kelly
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On the first day of school, I gave you the opportunity to return to the past in a time machine. I asked you where you would go, who you would choose to see, and what you were interested in witnessing. Not unlike the journal entry entitled, *I Wish I Were There*, I am giving you another opportunity to travel back in time. This time, you will investigate the more recent past, as well as some important contemporary issues. But you can't just go and be a passive observer; you must ask important questions, questions that interest you, questions that come from the mind, as well as the heart!

Remember the words of Paulo Freire: "As a strictly human experience, I could never see education as something cold, mental, merely technical, and without soul, where feelings, sensibility, desires, and dreams had no place... In addition, I never saw educative practice as an experience that could be considered valid if it lacked rigor and intellectual discipline."

So, let your passion and curiosity guide you as you seek out deeper understandings of this period in world history; but also remember to use the tools and methods of the discipline of history! Explore multiple historical accounts related to your topic. Critically examine these sources for different perspectives and points of view. And remember that no single source can serve as a "window on the past." By answering the questions you establish at

the start of your project, you will be constructing a story about the past that will at once be *more* and *less* than the past itself! But that's what makes history so interesting, difficult, and exciting! Got it? Get it! Good luck!

Format:

- Individual or group (3 person maximum; groups must divide work equally and create a product which reflects the number of people in the group)
- A typed paper, a poster presentation or a power point presentation, and class activities
- Use of multiple sources: primary and secondary written documents; physical evidence, including visual images and artifacts; oral histories and interviews; movies and documentaries, etc.

Part I: Preparation Checklist

_____ Choose a topic from the list or another one approved by me. Tell me whether you will work individually or with a group. See me about SOL content that must be addressed in your project.

_____ Begin to find a variety of primary and secondary sources related to your topic. Read to build background knowledge. Read some more! Look in your textbook and the SOL review book, first, and then do a search on ABC-CLIO. Are there any people you know who have direct knowledge or experience with the topic? Schedule an interview, a kind of oral history. Don't forget sources from popular culture—movies, songs, or literature, for example. There may be books from the library related to your topic, too.

_____ In your "Final Project Log" keep a running list of all the work you do. This includes keeping a detailed bibliography or reference list of all the sources you find and plan to use.

_____ After you have explored a number of different sources, begin to narrow your topic. Develop one or two significant questions that will guide your inquiry. Write these questions down in your project log. Explain why and how you chose this topic and these questions and give a rationale for the personal and historical significance of the topic/question(s) under investigation.

_____ Use class time wisely. Read, listen to, view, and critically analyze all the sources you plan to use. As you interact with your sources, highlight them, underline important points, and take notes in the margins. Collaborate productively with your peers. Divide work equally and utilize the strengths each group member brings to the project. Ask me for help and guidance.

Part II: Written component checklist

____ Cover page—include a title in the center of the page. Type your name(s), the date, and “World History & Geography II Final Project” in the lower right corner.

____ The paper should be typed and double-spaced and should have 12 point font and regular margins. The length should be 2-3 pages for individuals and 3-4 pages for groups (not including cover page and bibliography). You may write more, but do not exceed 6 pages!

____ In the first paragraph, you should clearly present the questions you have asked and your reasons for choosing this topic/these questions. In other words, why is your investigation important to you personally? What is the larger significance of this topic/these questions? Why should we care about these “past” events today?

____ In the paragraphs that follow, you should address both the minimum SOL content for your topic and the questions you have set out to answer. Be sure to use evidence from the multiple sources you have located. Start by locating the topic in its historical context (dates, geography, etc.).

____ There should be evidence in your writing that you have used a variety of sources, including primary and secondary written documents; physical evidence, including visual images and artifacts; oral histories and interviews; movies and documentaries, etc. You must use at least five written sources to support your writing; two of these must be primary sources.

____ There is evidence that you have carefully analyzed your sources, including considering what the source says, who created it, and why. You also consider how it helps you (or not) answer your questions. You consider the point of view and bias of each source and you ask how each source compares and contrasts with the others.

____ In the last paragraph, include your general reactions to the project. Were you surprised about what you discovered? Was there anything difficult about the research process? What additional sources or information would help you answer your questions or add to your historical understanding?

____ Include a works cited page—List all of your sources using the format modeled in class.

____ Staple your paper and place it in the left pocket of a folder. Include your sources (or partial copies) in the folder on the right hand side.

Teacher Feedback and Comments:

Appendix E

Interpretive Essay Task for the Renaissance

Directions: Read all of the directions below before you begin to write your essay response.

1. Carefully read the following question: *To what extent was the Renaissance a “golden age” that ushered in (brought) new ideas and values to European society?*
2. Consider what you already know about this topic. How would you answer this question based on your knowledge of this period in history?
3. There are six documents included here related to the Renaissance. Read each document carefully and consider how these sources might help you to answer the question. You may write on the documents and/or make notes in the margins as you read.
4. Based on your own knowledge and on the information found in the documents, develop an argument that answers the question. You may develop a brief outline to help organize your ideas and evidence.
5. Your argument should be in the form of a well-organized essay. The essay should include a thesis that directly answers the question, as well as evidence that supports the thesis. Remember to include information both from the documents and from your own background or prior knowledge. Got it? Get it! Good luck!

Document 1: This excerpt is from the *Song of Lorenzo the Magnificent*, by Lorenzo de’ Medici, written in the 1480’s in Renaissance Italy.

Fair is youth and void [without] sorrow
And hourly it flies away.
Youths and maids enjoy today;
Naught ye know about tomorrow.
Every sorry [bad] thought forswear!
Keep perpetual holiday...

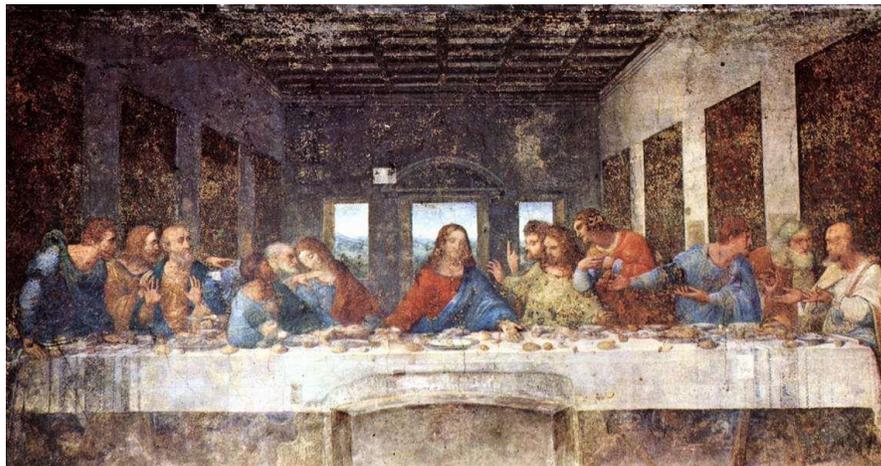
Document 2: This quote is from *Hamlet* (Act 2, Scene 2), by William Shakespeare. It was first published in 1603 at the end of the Elizabethan era in England.

What a piece of work is man, how noble in reason, how infinite in faculties [skills], in form [body] and moving, how express and admirable; in action how like an angel, in apprehension [understanding] how like a god: the beauty of the world, the paragon [model of perfection] of animals.

Document 3: This excerpt is from *The Civilization of the Renaissance in Italy*, by Swiss historian, Jacob Burckhardt. It was originally published in 1860.

In the Middle Ages both sides of human consciousness lay dreaming or half awake beneath a common veil [cover]. The veil was woven of faith, illusion, and childish prepossession [occupation of the mind]....Man was conscious of himself only as a member of a race, a people, party, family, or corporation—only through some general category. In Italy this veil first melted into air [disappeared]...; man became a spiritual individual, and recognized himself as such. In the same way the Greek had once distinguished himself from the barbarian....When this impulse to the highest individual development was combined with a powerful and varied nature [possessing many talents and skills],...then arose the “all-sided man”....in Italy at the time of the Renaissance we find artists who in every branch created new and perfect works, and who also made the greatest impression as men.

Document 4: *The Last Supper*, a late fifteenth century (1495-1498) painting by Leonardo da Vinci. The mural was painted on a wall of a monastery in Milan, Italy.



Document 5: The statue of *David* was sculpted by Michelangelo Buonarroti from 1501-1504. Upon completion, it was placed in a public square in Florence, Italy.



Document 6: This excerpt is from *A History of Europe from 1378-1494*, written by W.T. Waugh. The first edition of the book was published in London in 1932.

It has become evident that there was no suspension of intellectual life in medieval Europe. If there was a Revival of Learning, it occurred about the year A.D. 1000, since when human knowledge has never ceased to advance. It cannot even be said that the Humanists of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries revived the study of the classics. Scholars had been nourished on the classics for centuries....In the first place, the classical writer most studied in the Middle Ages was a Greek, Aristotle....And actually the medieval scholars of western Europe were acquainted with most of the Latin authors familiar to us....

The merits of the artists and the influence of the Humanists scholars must be acknowledged. But one must be aware of exaggerating the practical results of their work. It is undeniable that very few people knew or cared anything about the sayings or doings of the Humanists....[and] the plain fact remains that the masterpieces of Renaissance sculpture can have been seen by few, those of Renaissance painting be fewer. And in those days, unless you actually saw them, you could not tell what they were like....

Appendix F

Essay descriptions for reading from a gestalt perspective

<p>Score of 4: This type of essay by definition would be finely textured, carefully nuanced, and relatively long because it is so. It would meet virtually all of the high criteria on the analytic rubric. A student may demonstrate this level of “expertise” without fully meeting every element of a criteria-structured response.</p>
<p>Score of 3: This type of essay seeks to rise to a 4, but lack of background knowledge and background in history limits how far it can go. There are some rather nice attempts to meet the criteria, but overall it falls short on one or more parameters. It is a reasonably long essay, but lacks the depth, nuance, and/or contextual bounding of a 4.</p>
<p>Score of 2: This type of middle range essay does not meet the parameter criteria very well, but it does make an effort to do so. It is likely to be a unidirectional argument; however, in trying to deal with conflicting evidence, the approach may be “additive” in the way it “borrows” from more than one document. This makes it more nuanced and detailed than a 1, but less criteria-structured than a 3.</p>
<p>Score of 1: This is typically a relatively short, terse essay in which the interpretation offered is unidirectional and simplistic. It ignores the conflicting perspectives in sources, which is why it tends to be brief. It picks a side or position, as though only one source were read. This type of one-sided interpretation rests on the belief that the past is self-revealing and assumes that the “facts speak for themselves.”</p>
<p>Score of 0: The lowest score is reserved for those essays that include four or five lines or which simply give up on the task all-together because of the difficult nature of working with so many documents. <u>Note:</u> An essay filling a page or more explaining differences in the documents as a way to rationalize why it is difficult to construct an interpretation cannot be a 0. Even though it may say, “we’ll never know,” it is more likely a 2.</p>

Appendix G

Second-order conceptual knowledge questions

Think about how we have been “doing history” and complete the following questions:

1. History scholars typically favor which one of the following types of historical explanations?
 - a. accounts that show multiple forms of causation. (4)
 - b. narrative or story-like explanations. (2)
 - c. accounts that show one principal cause. (1)
 - d. neutral, non-interpretive accounts. (0)

2. One difference between history and the past is that history:
 - a. is a reconstruction of past events based on the remaining evidence. (4)
 - b. is always being reinterpreted and rewritten because new evidence is found. (2)
 - c. includes only the most significant events to be recorded and remembered. (1)
 - d. has traditionally been produced only by literate peoples and civilizations. (0)

3. Primary source accounts must be read critically because:
 - a. history has often been told from the perspective of the victors. (2)
 - b. they are written from the particular perspective of a historical actor. (4)
 - c. documents are often altered to change how past events are viewed. (1)
 - d. they may distract historians from presenting the past objectively. (0)

4. The trustworthiness of strongly biased historical sources:
 - a. is consistently low, so as to be unacceptable. (0)
 - b. makes using these sources problematic. (1)
 - c. depends on the question being investigated. (4)
 - d. is assessed by comparison with other sources. (2)

5. The best advice you can give to someone who wants to understand the actions of a historical figure is:
 - a. to become emotionally connected with the historical figure. (1)
 - b. to accept the idea that doing so is impossible. (0)
 - c. to understand those actions in the context of the period. (4)
 - d. to consider the goals and intentions of this historical figure. (2)

Appendix H

Selected Self-Reported Background Information on Student Participants

Students	Country of Birth (Cultural Background)	Language spoken at home	Self-reported academic identities
1. David	United States (Latino)	Spanish/English	"I like history"
2. Jonathon	United States (Filipino)	English	"History isn't my best subject," referring to poor performance in an honors version of the course.
3. Osman*	United States (Middle Eastern)	Arabic/English	Senior receiving special education services; needed this course credit to graduate
4. Bryan	Italy (Mixed race)	English	Parents in military; moved around a lot; ROTC and basketball player
5. Patricia	United States (White)	English	"Nervous about balancing academics with my other activities, [mainly sports and music]"
6. Angelia*	Bolivia (Latino)	Spanish	Junior who discontinued honors/advanced track and thus is taking the course out of sequence.
7. Katrina#	United States (Mixed race)	English	"Nervous for first test"
8. Kris*	United States (White)	English	Repeating the course because she failed an honors version of the course the previous year
9. Ayana#	Ethiopia (East African)	Amharic	"Nervous about essays...not a good writer;" taking honors English; in college support program
10. Alex	South Korea (Korean)	Korean/English	"Nervous about grammar and speaking in class"
11. Abdul#	United Arab Emirates (Middle Eastern)	Arabic	Repeating the course and promises to "stay after to pass the class [this year];" receiving ESOL support
12. Cynthia	Vietnam (Asian)	English	Asked me to "make it fun like my last teacher"
13. Michael*	Bolivia (Latino)	English	Nervous about "failing the course"
14. Jennifer	United States (Latino)	Spanish/English	Limited internet/computer access
15. Alicia	United States (Latino)	Spanish	"Nervous about first essay test"
16. Veronica#	Bolivia (Latino)	Spanish/English	Self-described "slow learner;" taking honors English; involved in a college support program
17. Melissa	Bolivia (Latino)	Spanish	"Nervous about SOLs and final exams"
18. Juan#	Mexico (Latino)	Spanish	"Nervous about the class getting hard and failing the course;" receiving ESOL support
19. Charles*	(West African)		
20. Fatima*	(East African)		
21. Andrew	United States (East African)	English	"Nervous about writing essays"
22. Geoffrey*	(Asian)		Honors students who is taking the course as an elective
23. Kyle#	United States (Asian)	Vietnamese	Interested in the "incredible legacy of the East"; involved in theatre; self-described "slacker"
24. Oscar*	United States (Hispanic)	Spanish	Interested in "indigenous artifacts"; watches "a lot of the <i>History Channel</i> "
25. Jessica	United States (Latino)	Spanish/English	"barely passed history last year"

* = not present for each data collection point; # = primary informant.

Appendix I

Sample Interview Questions for Participants

Sample interview questions for first semi-structured interview

Directions: "I am going to be asking you some questions about history and your experiences learning history in school. There are no correct or incorrect answers to these questions. I would like you to simply answer the questions honestly."

- (1) What is history?
- (2) Why do we study history in schools?
- (3) What, if anything, do you know about how historians go about their work?
- (4) How would you describe your experience in previous history classes, especially your ninth-grade course, World History and Geography I?
- (5) How would you describe your experience in this class, so far?
- (6) What, if any, topics, assignments, or activities have been particularly interesting to you?
- (7) What, if anything, have you found difficult about this course? What, if any, reading, writing, or research strategies have you found particularly difficult to learn or to use?
- (8) Can you describe some of the things you have learned about history, so far, this year?

Sample interview questions for second semi-structured interview

Directions: "I am going to be asking you some questions about history and your experiences in the class up to this point. There are no correct or incorrect answers to these questions. I would like you to simply answer the questions honestly."

- (1) How is the class going for you at this point in the year?
- (2) Can you describe some of the things you have learned about history?
- (3) In the beginning of the year I asked you to what you thought history was, why we study and how we go about doing it. How would you answer these same questions now?
- (4) What, if any, improvements do you feel like you have made in this course? What, if anything, are you continuing to find difficult about this course?
- (5) What, if any, reactions do you have to the historical investigations we did in class?
- (6) What was your experience like doing the independent historical investigation project during the Industrial revolution unit?

Appendix J

Sample Interview Questions for Classroom Observer

Sample Interview Questions for Informal Interviews with Classroom Observer

Directions: “I am going to be asking you some questions about what you have observed in my modern world history class over the course of the year. I am interested in your perspective on how the students interacted with the curriculum and methods of instruction. I want you to feel comfortable answering the questions openly and honestly.”

- (1) Describe your overall impressions of how the students responded to the curriculum and methods of instruction I was using.
- (2) Based on the observations you conducted in my classroom, what were the students learning?
- (3) What, if any, successes or challenges did you observe during particular teaching and learning activities?
- (4) Based on your observations, what, if any, advice might you give to a history teacher who is thinking about using an investigative or inquiry approach with their students?

Focus Questions for Classroom Observer during Investigation of the Industrial Revolution

During the last observation you noted that some students/groups “were getting it” and some were not. Could you focus your attention and notes on what students are doing or not doing and “getting” or “not getting” in the following areas:

- (1) Using the “Source Analysis Guide” to critically examine the DBQ sources:
- (2) Discussing/keeping track of positive and negative effects of the Industrial Revolution:
- (3) Noting/discussing how some sources conflict and trying to make sense of these contradictions:
- (4) Examining/discussing bias/perspective:
- (5) Demonstrating basic content knowledge (or even deeper understanding) of Industrial Revolution:
- (6) Other observations—group dynamics, teacher’s role, teacher/student interactions, etc.

Appendix K

So, what is history anyway? (Class handout)

Key Questions:

- What is history? Are history and the past the same thing? Why and how do we learn history?
- What is your attitude toward history? Do you like it? Why or why not?
- What do historians do? How can we think and act like historians?
- What interests you about the past? What would you like to investigate? What questions do you have?

Definition:

History is the process of discovering different types of evidence left over from the past and recreating a picture of what happened in the past and why.

Step 1: THE PAST

- We cannot literally return to the past, unless of course time travel becomes a real possibility. Therefore...

Step 2: DISCOVERING THE PAST THROUGH EVIDENCE LEFT BEHIND

- There are several types of evidence:
 - (a) physical evidence—tangible things, such as fossils or artifacts (tools, weapons, pottery, etc.)
 - (b) written evidence—1. primary sources are first hand or eyewitness accounts (diaries, letters, estate inventories, records and documents, etc.) 2. secondary sources are compiled after the fact by people who did not live during the time period written about (e.g., your textbook)
 - (c) oral histories—are stories or histories passed down by word of mouth (e.g., stories by Native American tribal elders or West African griots)

Step 3: HISTORIANS/ARCHAEOLOGISTS PIECE TOGETHER/MAKE SENSE OF THE EVIDENCE

- Much like a detective pieces together the clues to solve a case, so too do historians piece together the leftover pieces of the past.

Step 4: HISTORIANS (RE)CREATE or (RE)CONSTRUCT THE PAST

- Is it possible to get to the “truth” of what happened? If yes, how? If no, why not?
- *What happened* is only part of the (hi)story. *Why* or *how* it happened proves to be much more interesting *and* more complex....

- Can a single source, like your textbook, capture the past? Remember, your textbook was arrived at only after this long process above was completed.
- What are the problems with our four step model of history? Or, in other words, what prevents us from arriving at the absolute "truth" about the past?

1. Some of the evidence is missing, some has been lost or destroyed, and some has been tampered with or changed. (ancient ruins, Columbus' log, Black Elk's narrative, etc.)

2. Primary sources are biased accounts. They are told from a particular perspective or viewpoint. This is not a bad thing! Here's why...

3. Historian at step four brings his or her own bias and interpretation (even though "objectivity" is *sometimes* seen as the goal). This means secondary sources have a perspective or slant, too (some more obvious than others).

4. Over time, history has often been told from the point of view of the victors or winners, those in power or control of a particular society or culture.

5. History is often changed and rewritten, or better yet, re-evaluated as a result of new findings and new interpretations.

- How do we, as historians, attempt to overcome some of these problems?

1. Learn how to critically read primary and secondary sources.
2. Gather evidence and accounts from a variety of viewpoints and perspectives.
3. Be aware of our own biases when we attempt to recreate and interpret the past.

REMEMBER, YOU ARE NOT JUST A SPONGE WAITING TO MOP UP THE FACTS WRITTEN IN YOUR TEXTBOOK. YOU ARE NOT AN EMPTY BUCKET WAITING TO BE FILLED WITH NAMES AND DATES DISPENSED BY YOUR TEACHER. DO NOT BE A PASSIVE LEARNER. BE ACTIVE. BE AN HISTORIAN. GOT IT? GET IT! GOOD LUCK!

"Disorderly, fragmentary, malleable, history leaves room for diverse participation. The professionals cannot do it perfectly, so all can take a turn. They must. Everyone is obliged. . . to act like an historian." --H. Glassie

Appendix L

A Survey of Generational Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values as Represented in Music, Art, and Literature

Mr. Valentino, principal of Hillendale High School, received a letter over the summer from George Mason University's *Center for History and New Media* (CHNM) asking if the students of Hillendale would participate in a project designed to investigate the beliefs, attitudes, and values of teenagers as connected to their musical, artistic, and literary tastes. In other words, we are being asked to collect a list of your favorite songs, artworks, and literature, as well as record your explanations of how these material artifacts of culture represent you, your values, beliefs and attitudes.

CHNM has promised to give participating schools special access to their digital archives, as well as supply them with hard copies of historical sources and other educational materials related to the social studies. Hillendale will also be listed as a "participating school" on the CHNM website.

Your task is to gather "evidence" of your beliefs, attitudes, and values as reflected in the music you listen to, the artwork you enjoy, and what you like to read. The list of items we compile at Hillendale will be sent to CHNM at George Mason University for analysis. We will also send your explanations of how these items reflect your beliefs, attitudes, and values. I will be reading your responses and you may choose to share with your classmates, however, your name will be removed from any documents sent to CHNM in order to protect your privacy. We need to send a final school compilation to CHNM as soon as possible, so please do this now and do it well!

Remember, you are not choosing your favorite song because you like the beat, your favorite piece of art because of the cool colors, or your favorite poem because it is short and easy to read. You are including them in this research because you believe they reflect your attitudes, beliefs, and values. It may be that they also appeal to your aesthetic sensibilities, as well, but the focus here is how these works actually reflect your attitudes, beliefs, and values.

1. Song

- Which song best reflects your attitudes, beliefs, and values?

- Who is the artist?

- Why did you choose this song? Explain which of your attitudes, beliefs, and/or values are represented and how.

2. Artwork

- Which work of art best reflects your attitudes, beliefs, and values?

- Who is the artist?

- Why did you choose this artwork? Explain which of your attitudes, beliefs, and/or values are represented and how.

3. Literature

- Which piece of literature best reflects your attitudes, beliefs, and values?

- Who is the writer?

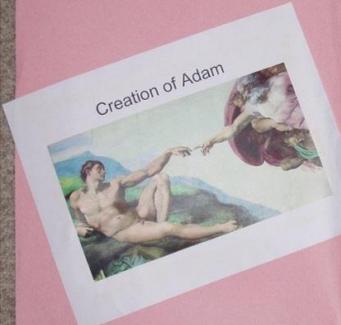
- Why did you choose this piece of reading/writing? Explain which of your attitudes, beliefs, and/or values are represented and how.

4. Attach evidence (lyrics, quotes, excerpts, copies of artistic images/photographs) for each item listed above. Label the evidence clearly.

Appendix M

Group Posters on Renaissance Art and Literature

Michelangelo's Sistine Chapel



Creation of Adam

Characteristics/Techniques

- ★ Realistic
- ★ Light Dark
- ★ Linear Perspective

Background

Michelangelo was hired by the pope. He painted scenes from the Bible on the ceiling and walls. Sistine Chapel is in Rome → The Vatican

Details

A chapel filled with painting on ceilings and the walls. Values and Beliefs. Not anti-Christian. Man is good with his world. Greek elements in the building.

Details

- The background is nature
- The curls in Mona's hair is realistic
- There are shades of light and dark.
- Every angle, it looks like she's looking at you.

Background Info

- Artist: Leonardo da Vinci
- Time: 1503
- Place: Florence

Themes

- Man and world's good
- Interest in Greece and Rome
- Belief that the individual should strive for progress or perfection

Techniques of Renaissance

- Light, Dark Shades
- Perspective
- Realism

da Vinci's Mona Lisa



The Prince

Niccolò Machiavelli

Language: Vernacular Italian.

- Subject: How to Stay in Power for Dummies.

- Advice

- Not Considered Renaissance Literature

- Humans are **BAD!** you have to **lie** and deceive them to gain their control
- Worst shaver The Prince with gifts but he will with **KNOWLEDGE**

Quote: It is better to be feared than loved.

Appendix N

Source Analysis Guide—Columbus' Log

Investigative Questions:

- Christopher Columbus and the Columbian legacy—Hero or villain? Should we celebrate or lament? Or does it even matter today!?
- The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere. Evaluate the results of the encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative?

Read the excerpt from *The Journal of Christopher Columbus*. Annotate the readings by “having a conversation with the text.” Underline or highlight and take notes in the margins focusing on the source analysis questions below. Ask questions on the handout and make connections to your background knowledge where you can. When you are done reading, write a short summary and analysis of the source. Here are some questions to help focus your investigation:

- Origin: Who created the source? *And* who are they? In other words, what is their position or status?
- Identification: What kind of source is it? Primary/secondary? Document/map/image/etc.?
- Historical context: When and where was the source created? Place it in its historical context—what important events are going on “around” the creation of the document?
- Purpose: Why was the source created? What is the author trying to accomplish? What is the author’s perspective and how might their perspective impact the content of the source?
- Value: What does the source say or show? What makes this document useful to you or to anyone interested in the topic/question under investigation? Is it a fair and accurate portrayal of the person being discussed? What evidence does the source provide about the motives of Columbus (his reasons for exploring)? Provide specific details.
- Limitations: What about this source needs to be questioned? Why might someone use caution when looking at this source as potential evidence?

Appendix O

Centers Investigation Activity—Exploration and Global Encounters

Directions: Get into groups of 4-5. Put your name and your group members' names on this sheet. Visit each of the six centers and analyze the sources there. Spend approximately 12-15 minutes at each center accomplishing the given task. You may answer the questions in note/shorthand form, but you must complete each question. In addition, you will fill out the *Source Analysis Chart* for some of the source(s). Good luck and bon voyage!?

- **Center 1—Motives for Exploration**

- **Source: *The Log of Christopher Columbus***

- Task: Go to the marked pages of Columbus' log (and the excerpt you read for homework) and read some of the highlighted passages. (a) What motives for exploration and colonization are evident in these passages? (b) How does Columbus view the Native Americans he meets? (c) How does he view his own (European) culture? (d) Fill out the *Source Analysis Chart*.

a.

b.

c.

- **Center 2: “New” and Borrowed Technologies**

- **Sources: *Atlas of Exploration; pp. 530-531 in Patterns Textbook; p. 409 of the Glencoe Textbook.***

- Task: (a) Sketch the following technological innovations listed here. (b) Identify how each “tool” was used and how it made European exploration possible. (c) From where or from whom did Europeans “borrow” this technology...or was it a European invention?

Magnetic compass	lateen sails (for caravels)	astrolabe
a.	a.	a.
b.	b.	b.
c.	c.	c.

- **As a class: Aztec Account of the Conquest of Mexico**
- **Sources: *Broken Spears* photocopied packet.**
 - Task: Examine the photocopied images from the Aztec account? (a) Why do you think Aztec survivors of the conquest told their story (in part) using pictures? (b) What can we learn about Aztec civilization and culture from this account? (c) What “advantages,” that the Spanish conquistadores had, are evident in the pictures? What was the impact of these advantages? (d) What questions do you have after viewing the images? (e) Fill out the *Source Analysis Chart*.

a.

b.

c.

d.

- **Center 3: Who am I?**
- **Source: *Morning Girl***

- Task: As a group take turns reading from the bottom of p. 67 (starting at “I looked...”) to p. 72. (a) What kind of book/account is it? (b) Who is Morning Girl? What perspective does her story represent? (c) How does she view the visitors to her island? (d) What questions do you have after reading this passage? (e) Fill out the *Source Analysis Chart*.

a.

b.

c.

d.

- **Center 4: Perspectives on Columbus**
- **Sources: *Meet Christopher Columbus and Rethinking Columbus***

- Task: Examine the pictures and the accompanying text on pp. 48-51 and 63-64 of *Meet Christopher Columbus*. (a) How are Columbus and his men portrayed? (b) How are the “Indians” he meets portrayed? (c) What kind of book/account is it? (d) Skim the highlighted passages and images on pp. 23-28 in *Rethinking Columbus*. What kind of source/account is this? List three specific problems the author had with *Meet Christopher Columbus*. (f) Fill out the *Source Analysis Chart*.

a.

b.

c.

d.

- **Center5: Impact of European Exploration & Colonization on Native Americans**

- **Sources: Documents—Disease and Conquest & Encomienda Protest Picture**

- Look at the graph on p. 556 and read p. 557 in the textbook for background on the encomienda system. Now read and examine the above sources which talk about the role of disease and the encomienda system. Answer the questions that follow:

(a) What was the encomienda system? What was its impact on Native Americans?

(b) What does the image at the center show? Who created the source and why was it created?

(c) What does the graph show? If it could talk, what would it say?

(d) How many written documents are there which mention the impact of disease? Who wrote or spoke these accounts?

(e) List three specific things that resulted from the introduction of European diseases in the New World?

(f) Choose one of the primary documents and fill it out under “Disease Sources” on *Source Analysis Chart*.

- **Center 6: Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade and the Middle Passage**

- **Sources: “Life on board a colonial slave ship” & Diagram of a Slave Ship**

- Read the primary source on p. 569. A longer version of the source is also at the center. Also examine the diagram of the slave ship in the book and on the handout. Read the captions and answer the following questions:

(a) Who is Olaudah Equiano? Where is he from? Where does he go?

(b) How does he describe his experience? Discuss three specific things that happened to him or others mentioned in the source.

(c) What is the name of the journey he and millions of others were forced to take?

(d) What were the conditions like on board the slave ship?

(e) Does the diagram of the slave ship confirm or contradict what Equiano has written? Explain.

(f) Why did Europeans use Africans as slaves during this period?

Appendix P

Exploration and Global Encounters Interpretive Essay Organizing Tool

Question: The voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated a series of interactions and exchanges between Europe, Africa, and the Americas that changed the course of history in the Eastern and Western Hemisphere. Evaluate the results of the encounter between these three worlds—were the results mostly positive or mostly negative?

Possible Thesis Sentences:

-
-

What else to include in the introduction paragraph:

- Definition of Columbian Exchange and background/context (where? when? Three “waves”?)
- Brief list of what will be discussed in your three supporting paragraphs

Three supporting paragraphs—possible organization:

• Europe (Europeans)	(+)	(-)	• Explorers	(+)	(-)
• Africa (West Africans)			• Conquistadors		
• Americas (Native Americans)			• Missionaries		

Remember, you must use your background knowledge and specific evidence and details to support your argument.

Conclusion: Restate your thesis and connect ideas discussed in your supporting paragraphs. Possible concluding sentence(s).

-
-
-

- Note: You may this sheet AND the source analysis chart for the in-class essay.

Appendix Q

The Industrial Revolution Project

“Does change mean progress?: Exploring different perspectives on the Industrial Revolution”

Below is a description of the major project for our next unit. Read and follow the guidelines carefully!

Introduction: Each of you will choose a topic related to the Industrial Revolution. These represent the pieces of a puzzle which we are, in a sense, trying to solve. Two of the key concepts for this unit are *change* and *progress*. We will explore the nature of the changes brought on by the Industrial Revolution and discuss why it marks a turning point in history. We will also investigate the notion of progress. This will involve analyzing a variety of perspectives on the Industrial Revolution, its historical impact, and its contemporary legacy. **Ultimately, we will ask whether the historical developments of the Industrial Revolution amount to progress, progress for whom, and at what cost.** We act not as judge or jury, only as witnesses after the fact. And that makes our explorations both difficult and exciting!

After you become an expert on your particular piece of the puzzle, we will collaborate as a class in order to put the pieces together into some coherent and meaningful whole. This is not meant to be a generic research project, one where you simply regurgitate what you read in encyclopedic fashion. You should address the specific questions outlined here. Got it? Get it! Good!

Step I: Choose a topic using the Discussion Board tab on Blackboard 24-7. Examine the key questions you are trying to answer for the project. Look at what the final product should look like. All work should be directed toward these ends. (By _____)—____/10 points

Development of capitalism (Adam Smith’s <u>The Wealth of Nations</u> and laissez-faire)	Labor unions -bread and butter, radical
Rise of factory system (demise of cottage industry)	Rise of socialism/communism -Karl Marx (<u>Communist Manifesto</u> and <u>Das Kapital</u>)
Spinning “Jenny” (James Hargreaves)	Outlawing the slave trade
Steam engine (James Watt)	Women’s suffrage
Cotton gin (Eli Whitney)	Child labor -work in mines/factories -reforms, including universal education
Interchangeable parts (Eli Whitney)	Transportation revolution -railroads, canals/steamships, cars
Steel making (Henry Bessemer)	New weapons of World War I
Smallpox vaccine (Edward Jenner)	British Enclosure Movement
germ theory (Louis Pasteur)	Agricultural revolution -new techniques and tools
Communication revolution (telegraph, radio, etc.)	Light bulb (Thomas Edison)
Assembly line (Henry Ford)	
Working class (working conditions, living conditions)	

Step II: Look through Chapters 25 and 26 in your textbook and do some background reading on your topic. Take notes (at least 1 page front and back) in your journal and label the entry. Everyone should be able to find solid evidence in the textbook. For more background information, go to ABC-CLIO or Gale Student Resource Center or another subscription database available on the library website.

(By _____)—____/10 points

Step III: Use the subscription databases to locate more sources—both written sources (primary and secondary) and images—on your topic. Of course, other sources, books, and websites may be helpful, too. Read, examine, and save written sources and images you plan to use in the final product. You'll have an hour of research time on _____. (By _____)—____/15 points

Step IV: Analyze your sources (at least one of each kind) using the Source Analysis Guide provided on the back. Do each analysis in your journal and label each entry. (By _____)—____/15 points

- Analysis for secondary source (written):
- Analysis for primary source (written):
- Analysis for image(s):

Step V: Use your source analyses from Step IV and other sources you have examined (you need at least two additional sources) to address the following prompts/questions in an organized five-paragraph essay. Each bullet represents a single paragraph. (Rough draft by _____)—____/20 points

- Identify, describe, or explain your invention, innovation, or historical development. In particular, discuss how it brought about changes or represented a change in society.
- What was its historical significance/impact in the context of the Industrial Revolution?
- What connections can you make to society today?
- Address the unit guiding question – *Industrial Revolution: Does change mean progress?* – as it relates to your topic. Remember to consider the context and different perspectives!
- Describe the process of doing this project. How did you arrive at your interpretation?
 - In particular, give an example of two contradicting sources you examined. How did you determine the accuracy of the sources?
 - Discuss a particular example of source bias you discovered. How did this impact your view of the accuracy and/or usefulness of the source?

Hints:

Historical context is key!

Historical significance is determined by people, like you!

Perspective matters! And you matter, too! Aw shucks!

Final Product Rubric—Stapled packet or poster _____/100

_____/10 points—**Cover page:** This page should introduce your topic and capture the reader’s attention. Include a title and image(s). Be neat, creative, and original.

_____/5 points—**Written secondary source:** Include an 8 and ½ x 11 print-out of at least one secondary source you used (besides the textbook).

_____/5 points—**Written primary document:** Include an 8 and ½ x 11 print-out of at least one written primary source you used. If you use a shorter “Quote,” than include 2-3 of this kind.

_____/5 points—**Image:** Include at least one image (e.g., photographs, diagrams, sketches, drawings, cartoons, etc.) of your innovation, invention, or historical development (ideally from the time period). The image here should be different from those on the cover page.

Note: Each source above should add to your historical understanding of the topic and help answer the focus questions. Be sure to clearly label each source by type and title.

_____/10 points—**Detailed analysis of one of your sources:** Edit/finalize one analysis from Step IV. I suggest choosing a source that allows you to complete a thoughtful and thorough analysis.

_____/45 points—**Discussion and interpretation:** Develop a discussion and argument which addresses the bulleted questions below. It should be 1-2 pages typed, double spaced, 12-point font, regular margins. Use the sources you have located and analyzed. They should serve as evidence to support your discussion and argument. Therefore, make reference to them in your response.

- Identify, describe, or explain your invention, innovation, or historical development. In particular, discuss how it brought about changes or represented a change in society. (____/10)
- What was its historical significance/impact in the context of the Industrial Revolution? (____/5)
- What connections can you make to society today? (____/5)

- Address the unit guiding question – *Industrial Revolution: Does change mean progress?* – as it relates to your topic. Remember to consider the context and different perspectives! (____/10)
- Describe the process of doing this project. How did you arrive at your interpretation?
 - In particular, give an example of two contradicting sources you examined. How did you determine the accuracy of the sources?

 - Discuss a particular example of source bias you discovered. How did this impact your view of the accuracy and/or usefulness of the source? Other reactions? (____/15)

_____/10 points—**References:** Keep a list of the sources you use and include them in a typed “Works Cited” page. This includes websites you may access. Use the writing guide found on the library’s home page. Include internal citations where appropriate.

_____/10 points—**Organization and professionalism:** There is a “professional” look to the project and the organization/formatting are easy to follow.

Appendix R

Revised Source Analysis Guide—Industrial Revolution

Investigative Questions:

- *Does change mean progress?* What were the changes brought by the industrial revolution and did these developments amount to progress? This exploration will involve examining *different perspectives* by asking *progress for whom* and *at what cost*.
- Evaluate the positive and negative aspects of the industrial revolution. Again, be sure to consider perspective and historical context.

Questions to ask of sources:

- Origin: Who created the source? *And* who are they? In other words, what is their position or status?
- Identification: What kind of source is it? Primary/secondary? Document/map/image/etc.?
- Historical context: When and where was the source created? Place it in historical context—what important events are going on “around” the creation of the document? How might the context impact the content of the source?
- Purpose: Why was the source created? What is the author trying to accomplish? What is the author’s perspective and how might their perspective impact the content of the source?
- Value: What does the source say or show? What makes this document useful to you or to anyone interested in the topic/question under investigation? Is it a fair and accurate portrayal of the person being discussed?
- Limitations: What about this source needs to be questioned? Why might someone use caution when looking at this source as potential evidence?

Note: Use these questions and this format when you analyze sources for the group document-based questions and the unit project.

Appendix S

Industrial Revolution Interpretive Essay Organizing Tool

Question: Evaluate the positive and negative effects of the industrial revolution.
This question involves examining the major changes brought by the industrial revolution and exploring whether these developments amounted to progress. And that means examining *different perspectives* by asking *progress for whom* and *at what cost*.

Possible Thesis Sentences:

- Even though the Industrial Revolution _____, it also _____.
- While there was _____ during the Industrial Revolution, there was also _____.
- The Industrial Revolution was a time of _____, however one must also consider _____.
-

What else to include in the introduction paragraph:

- Definition of Industrial Revolution (major changes)
- Background/context
 - Where?
 - When?
- Brief list of what will be discussed in your three supporting paragraphs

Three supporting paragraphs—possible organization:

Negatives	Workers	Positive Changes	
Positives	Factory owners/managers	Resulting Problems	
- and + = Perspectives	Consumers	Reforms	

Remember, you must use your background knowledge and specific evidence and details to support your argument.

Conclusion: Restate your thesis and connect ideas discussed in your supporting paragraphs. Possible concluding sentence(s).

Note: You may this sheet and the source analysis guide for the in-class essay.

Appendix T

World War I Homework Guiding Questions

- Day 1—Read Ch. 29-1. Answer Guiding Questions 1 and 2.
- Day 2—(1) Complete the map of “Europe in 1914” (located in your packet). Use p. 846 in the textbook (and other maps in the chapter). (2) Read Ch. 29-2. Answer Questions 3-8.
- Day 3—Read Ch. 29-3. Answer Guiding Questions 9-10.
- Day 4—Read Ch. 29-4. Answer Guiding Questions 11-12.
- Day 5—Complete map of “Europe in 1918.” Use the map on p. 860 in the textbook.

Guiding Questions: All questions below should be answered on a separate sheet of paper in complete sentences. Use detail and key terms from the text. Label the readings and questions carefully.

1. What were the larger causes or factors that helped sow the seeds of war? Explain each with specific examples.
2. Which incident provided the "spark" for the start of the war? Who was involved?
3. Who were the Allied Powers? List at least two key leaders from the Allied Powers? Who were the Central Powers? List at least two key leaders from the Central Powers?
4. What was the Schlieffen Plan?
5. What is meant by a two-front war? Which countries were involved and how?
6. Describe trench warfare and some of the new weapons used in WW I.
7. Identify the following key battles on the western and eastern fronts: Verdun, Somme, Tannenberg (all on p. 848). Who fought and what were the results?
8. Identify the importance of the Galipoli Campaign and the war at sea.
9. When and why did the US enter the war? How did the United States' entrance impact the outcome of World War I?
10. When and why does Russia leave the war? What significant historical events are occurring in Russia at this time?
11. What is an armistice? When was it signed? How many people died in World War I? What was the impact on the survivors?
12. Who controlled the design of the Treaty of Versailles? Outline the four major provisions of the treaty. Explain how the Versailles Treaty might have done as much to cause World War II as it did to bring peace after World War I.

Appendix U

World War I Interpretive Essay Organizing Tool

Question: German chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, predicted that “some damn foolish thing in the Balkans” would plunge Europe into a large-scale war. Evaluate the accuracy of Bismarck’s statement by examining who and/or what caused World War I?

Thesis Sentence:

Background/context for introduction paragraph:

Three supporting paragraphs:

Conclusion:

Remember, you must use your background knowledge and specific evidence and details to support your argument.

Appendix V

End-of-Year Calendar

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
<p>April 25 (Green)</p> <p>Versailles Treaty WWI Review Intro. to Russian Rev. <u>HW</u>: Study for WWI Test.</p>	<p>26 (White)</p> <p>Viking Time: SOL Review on World at 1500/Exploration Alphabet Review Renaissance → Scientific Revolution (8 letters) due 5/11</p>	<p>27 (Green)</p> <p>Unit Test: WWI Russian Revolution <u>HW</u>: Read Ch. 30-1 Complete term ID's.</p>	<p>28 (White)</p>	<p>29 (Green)</p> <p>Russian Revolution <i>*Dr. Zhivago</i> <u>HW</u>: Read Ch. 30-2. Complete term ID's</p>
<p>May 2 (White)</p>	<p>3 (Green)</p> <p>Rise of Stalin/USSR Totalitarianism <i>*1984</i> <u>HW</u>: Read p. 896 and Ch. 31-2. Complete guiding questions 1-10.</p>	<p>4 (White)</p>	<p>5 (Green)</p> <p>Great Depression <i>*Dorthea Lange *Grapes of Wrath *Dust Bowl Ballads</i> <u>HW</u>: Read Ch. 31-3. Complete fill-in review.</p>	<p>6 (White)</p>
<p>9 (Green)</p> <p>Fascist/Militaristic Regimes: Italy, Germany, and Japan <i>*Walt Disney</i> <u>HW</u>: Read on other 20th century genocides. <u>See related textbook readings.</u></p>	<p>10 (White)</p> <p>Viking Time: Holocaust Poster Activity <u>HW</u>: Alphabet Review Enlightenment → Russian Revolution (10 letters) due 6/1</p>	<p>11 (Green)</p> <p>Holocaust and other Genocides <u>HW</u>: Study for unit test.</p>	<p>12 (White)</p>	<p>13 (Green)</p> <p>Unit Test: Between the Wars & Genocides World War II Causes <i>*Dr. Seuss</i> <u>HW</u>: Start World War II summary reading and fill-in packet. <u>See Ch. 32 in text.</u></p>
<p>16 (White)</p>	<p>17 (Green)</p> <p>WWII in Europe <u>HW</u>: Finish World War II summary reading and fill-in packet. <u>See Ch. 33 in text for more in-depth reading.</u></p>	<p>18 (White)</p>	<p>19 (Green)</p> <p>WWII in Pacific End of WWII <u>HW</u>: Cold War summary reading and fill-in packet, #'s 1-9.</p>	<p>20 (White)</p>
<p>23 (Green)</p> <p>Cold War <u>HW</u>: Cold War summary reading and fill-in packet, #'s 10-15. <u>See Ch. 35-3 & 4 in text for more in-depth reading.</u></p>	<p>24 (White)</p> <p>Viking Time: SOL Review on Absolutism, Enlightenment, and Revolutions</p>	<p>25 (Green)</p> <p>Finish Cold War <u>HW</u>: Independence Movements summary reading & fill-in packet. <u>See Ch. 30-3 & 4 and Ch. 34 and 35-1, 2, & 5. in text.</u></p>	<p>26 (White)</p>	<p>27 (Green)</p> <p>Independence Movements Final Unit Review <u>HW</u>: Study for Final Unit Test. See review packet for details.</p>

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
30 Memorial Day Holiday	31 (White)	June 1 (Green) Final Unit Test: WWII and Cold War <u>HW</u> : Contemporary Issues summary reading and fill-in packet. <u>See Ch. 36 in text for more in-depth reading.</u>	2 (White)	3 (Green) Finish Independence Movements Contemporary Issues <u>HW</u> : Take online SOL Practice Test.
6 (White) Viking Time: SOL Review on Industrial Revolution, Nationalism, and Imperialism <u>HW</u> : Alphabet Review Great Depression → Contemporary Issues (8 letters) due 6/9	7 (Green) Contemporary Issues SOL Review <u>HW</u> : Review for SOL. Get some sleep!	8 (White) SOL TEST World Hist/Geog II	9 (Green) Scenes from: “Gandhi” “Cry Freedom”	10 (White)
13 (Green) Final Exam Review Songs of Freedom: “Diamonds of Anger” “Free Nelson Mandela” “Biko”	14 (White)	15 (Green) G7/G9 Underclass Exam	16 Half-day W6/W8 Underclass Exam	17 Half-day G3/G5 Underclass Exam
20 Half-day W2/G1 Underclass Exam	21 Half-day Grades Available to Students	22 Teacher Workday		

Appendix W: Historical knowledge scores reported by unit assessment

Students (N = 16) Data Point 1: Renaissance	DEBI	EMP	OPVL	DACK	OPA	Raw Scores (0-20) Avg. Scores(0-4)	1 st order % correct	2 nd order WMC's (0-20)
1. David	3	3	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	90	10
2. Jonathon	3	2	2	2	3	12 (2.4)	97	10
3. Bryan	3	3	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	93	9
4. Patricia	4	2	3	3	3	15 (3.0)	87	9
5. Katrina	2	1	2	2	2	9 (1.8)	73	-
6. Ayana	4	4	3	4	4	19 (3.8)	97	9
7. Alex	3	2	2	3	3	13 (2.6)	90	11
8. Abdul	3	3	2	2	2	12 (2.4)	73	-
9. Cynthia	3	2	2	2	2	11 (2.2)	100	14
10. Jennifer	3	3	2	2	2	12 (2.4)	73	13
11. Alicia	3	3	2	3	3	14 (2.8)	83	12
12. Veronica	4	3	3	2	3	15 (3.0)	87	9
13. Juan	2	2	2	1	1	8 (1.6)	57	10
14. Andrew	3	2	2	2	2	11 (2.2)	93	14
15. Kyle	2	3	2	2	3	12 (2.4)	87	10
16. Jessica	3	3	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	87	15
Avg. by analytic category (0-4)	3.0	2.56	2.19	2.25	2.63	12.63 (2.53)	85.4	11.07

Students (N = 16) Data Point 2: Global Encounters	DEBI	EMP	OPVL	DACK	OPA	Raw Scores (0-20) Avg. Scores (0-4)	1 st order % correct
1. David	2	2	2	3	2	11 (2.2)	91
2. Jonathon	3	2	3	2	3	13 (2.6)	97
3. Bryan	1	1	2	2	2	8 (1.6)	91
4. Patricia	4	4	4	3	3	18 (3.6)	69
5. Katrina	3	3	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	69
6. Ayana	4	3	4	3	4	18 (3.6)	77
7. Alex	3	3	2	3	3	13 (2.6)	74
8. Abdul	2	2	1	2	2	9 (1.8)	40
9. Cynthia	2	2	1	2	2	9 (1.8)	89
10. Jennifer	3	3	3	2	2	13 (2.6)	77
11. Alicia	3	3	2	3	3	13 (2.6)	94
12. Veronica	4	3	3	2	3	15 (3.0)	74
13. Juan	2	2	2	1	1	8 (1.6)	63
14. Andrew	1	2	1	2	2	8 (1.6)	97
15. Kyle	3	2	3	2	3	13 (2.6)	66
16. Jessica	3	3	2	2	2	13 (2.6)	74
Avg. by analytic category (0-4)	2.69	2.50	2.31	2.25	2.50	12.19 (2.44)	77.6

**Second-order WMC's not administered in this unit assessment.*

Students (N = 16) Data Point 3: Industrial Revolution	DEBI	EMP	OPVL	DACK	OPA	Raw Scores (0-20) Avg. Scores (0-4)	1st order % correct	2nd order WMC's (0-4)
David	3	3	3	2	3	14 (2.8)	92	8
Jonathon	4	3	2	3	3	15 (3.0)	85	11
Bryan	3	3	3	3	2	14 (2.8)	85	7
Patricia	4	4	3	3	3	17 (3.4)	53	9
Katrina	4	3	3	2	2	14 (2.8)	55	14
Ayana	3	3	3	4	3	16 (3.2)	88	9
Alex	3	3	2	3	3	14 (2.8)	88	12
Abdul	3	2	3	2	2	12 (2.4)	40	10
Cynthia	4	3	3	2	2	14 (2.8)	43	15
Jennifer	4	3	2	3	2	14 (2.8)	70	15
Alicia	4	3	3	4	3	17 (3.4)	93	12
Veronica	4	3	3	3	3	16 (3.2)	83	13
Juan	3	3	2	2	2	12 (2.4)	48	20
Andrew	2	2	2	2	2	10 (2.0)	95	-
Kyle	4	3	3	2	3	15 (3.0)	65	11
Jessica	4	2	2	2	2	12 (2.4)	70	10
Avg. by analytic category (0-4)	3.50	2.88	2.62	2.63	2.5	14.13 (2.82)	72.1	11.73

Students (N = 16) Data Point 4: World War I	DEBI	EMP	OPVL	DACK	OPA	Raw Scores (0-20) Avg. Scores (0-4)	1st order % correct	2nd order WMC's (0-20)
1. David	3	3	2	2	3	13 (2.6)	90	12
2. Jonathon	2	3	2	3	3	13 (2.6)	90	16
3. Bryan	3	3	2	3	3	14 (2.8)	93	9
4. Patricia	4	3	3	3	4	17 (3.4)	90	8
5. Katrina	3	3	2	2	2	12 (2.4)	83	11
6. Ayana	4	3	3	4	4	18 (3.6)	93	12
7. Alex	3	3	2	3	2	13 (2.6)	97	10
8. Abdul	2	1	1	2	1	7 (1.4)	83	12
9. Cynthia	3	1	2	1	1	8 (1.6)	93	16
10. Jennifer	3	3	2	3	3	14 (2.8)	70	14
11. Alicia	4	4	3	3	4	18 (3.6)	83	12
12. Veronica	4	3	2	3	3	15 (3.0)	77	12
13. Juan	1	1	1	2	1	6 (1.2)	57	17
14. Andrew	1	2	1	2	2	8 (1.6)	60	14
15. Kyle	2	3	2	2	2	11 (2.2)	50	12
16. Jessica	4	3	2	2	2	13 (2.6)	63	10
Avg. by analytic category (0-4)	2.88	2.62	2.0	2.50	2.50	12.50 (2.50)	79.5	12.31

Appendix X

Essay Writing Progress Checklist

Organization and Presentation	Knowledge and Understanding	Sources and Perspectives
<p>_____ Write a thesis statement that clearly answers the question/addresses the prompt.</p> <p>_____ Write a 5 paragraph essay (introductory paragraph, 3 supporting paragraphs and a concluding paragraph)</p> <p>_____ Include a clear/relevant topic sentence in each paragraph.</p> <p>_____ Include a clear/relevant conclusion.</p> <p>_____ Use 3rd person voice (do not use I, my or you).</p> <p>_____ Include transitions where appropriate.</p> <p>_____ Give attention to sentence structure (i.e., write in complete sentences).</p> <p>_____ Mechanics—give attention to grammar, punctuation, spelling, etc.</p> <p>_____ Follow all directions.</p> <p>_____ Avoid quaint/colloquial language such as <i>Have you ever wondered, In my essay, I hope you'll agree, As you'll see, etc.</i></p>	<p>_____ Provide context by locating in time and space. In other words, offer some chronological and geographical background for the topic.</p> <p>_____ Write 3 supporting paragraphs that include extensive evidence—facts, examples, and historical details—to support your thesis statement.</p> <p>_____ Show an extensive use of unit vocabulary (and include definitions).</p> <p>_____ Connect all evidence back to the thesis statement.</p> <p>_____ Answer the question/address the prompt completely in order to demonstrate your overall historical understanding.</p>	<p>_____ Select and use a range of evidence (primary, secondary, etc.).</p> <p>_____ Introduce and cite all sources.</p> <p>_____ Examine the question from various perspectives or viewpoints.</p> <p>_____ Carefully/critically analyze all sources used; consider context in which source was created.</p> <p>_____ Balance your arguments and judgments by considering possible counter-arguments.</p> <p>_____ Support arguments with evidence—avoid generalizations.</p>

Appendix Y

Interpretive essay scores for primary informants grouped by common trajectories and net gains

Trend lines	Students (N = 6)	Baseline:	Point 1:	Point 2:	Point 3:	Point 4:
Sharp up, then evening out; endpoint +5 in relation to baseline	Ayana					
	DEBI	4	4	4	3	4
	EMP	2	4	3	3	3
	OPVL	2	3	4	3	3
	DACK	2	4	3	4	4
	OPA	3	4	4	3	4
	<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	13	19	18	16	18
	<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(2.6)	(3.8)	(3.6)	(3.2)	(3.6)
	Veronica					
	DEBI	2	4	4	4	4
	EMP	2	3	3	3	3
	OPVL	2	3	3	3	2
DACK	2	2	2	3	3	
OPA	2	3	3	3	3	
<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	10	15	15	16	15	
<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(2.0)	(3.0)	(3.0)	(3.2)	(3.0)	
Even, up, then down; endpoint -1 in relation to baseline	Kyle					
	DEBI	2	2	3	4	2
	EMP	3	3	2	3	3
	OPVL	2	2	3	3	2
	DACK	2	2	2	2	2
	OPA	3	3	3	3	2
	<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	12	12	13	15	11
	<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.6)	(3.0)	(2.2)
High variation; endpoint even with baseline	Abdul					
	DEBI	2	3	2	3	2
	EMP	1	3	2	2	1
	OPVL	2	2	1	3	1
	DACK	1	2	2	2	2
	OPA	1	2	2	2	1
	<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	7	12	9	12	7
<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(1.4)	(2.4)	(1.8)	(2.4)	(1.4)	
Sharp/steady up, then drop; endpoint +5 to 7 in relation to baseline	Juan					
	DEBI	1	2	2	3	1
	EMP	0	2	2	3	1
	OPVL	0	2	2	2	1
	DACK	0	1	1	2	2
	OPA	0	1	1	2	1
	<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	1	8	8	12	6
	<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(0.2)	(1.6)	(1.6)	(2.4)	(1.2)
	Katrina					
	DEBI	1	2	3	4	3
	EMP	1	1	3	3	3
	OPVL	1	2	2	3	2
	DACK	1	2	2	2	2
	OPA	1	2	3	2	2
<i>Raw totals (0-20):</i>	5	9	13	14	12	
<i>Rubric Avg.(0-4):</i>	(1.0)	(1.8)	(2.6)	(2.8)	(2.4)	
Average scores by unit	8.00 (1.60)	12.50 (2.50)	12.66 (2.60)	14.17 (2.83)	11.50 (2.30)	

Student Work Samples from Projects in
Investigative and More Conventional Units

Industrial Revolution project poster (Melissa and partner):

Eli Whitney: The Cotton Gin

Primary Source

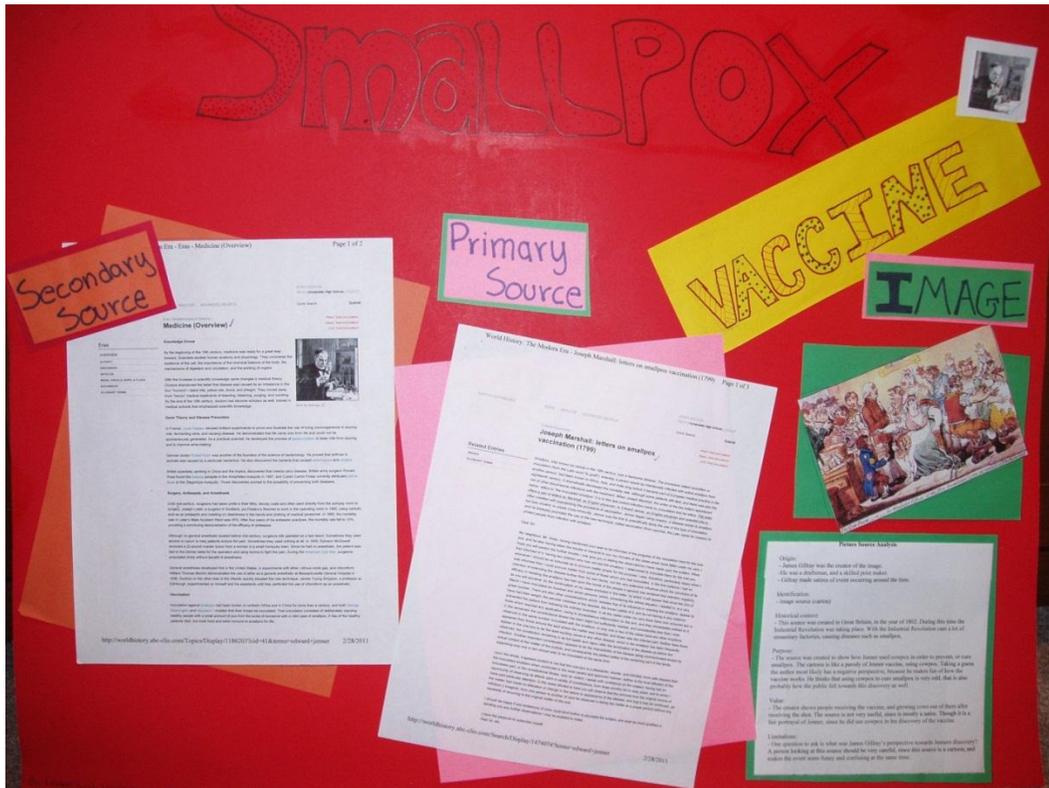
Secondary Source

Image

Cartoon: Cotton Gin? That would have terrified Eli Whitney, you are an idiot.

The poster is a collage of historical and educational materials. At the top center is the title 'Eli Whitney: The Cotton Gin' in a green-bordered box. To the left is an illustration of the cotton gin, and to the right is a portrait of Eli Whitney. Below the title are two sections: 'Primary Source' and 'Secondary Source', both in green-bordered boxes. The 'Primary Source' section contains two articles: 'A Slave Picks Cotton' and 'Masters and Slave Relationships'. The 'Secondary Source' section contains an article titled 'Teaching With Documents: Eli Whitney's Patent for the Cotton Gin' with a red arrow pointing to a document image. Below these is an 'Image' section with a photograph of the gin and a cartoon. The cartoon shows a man in a suit saying, 'Cotton Gin? That would have terrified Eli Whitney, you are an idiot.' To the right of the cartoon is a historical illustration of a plantation scene. At the bottom right is another illustration of the cotton gin with the label 'COTTON GIN'.

Industrial Revolution project poster (Ayana and Veronica):



Veronica's Absolutism and Enlightenment Pamphlet Project:

Quotes

"No arts; no letters; no society; and which is worst of all, continual fear and danger of violent death; and the life of man, solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short."

"I put for a general inclination of all mankind, a perpetual and restless desire of power after power, that ceaseth only in death."

Knowledge is power

Works-Cited

"Thomas Hobbes." *World History: The Modern Era*. ABC-CLIO, 2011. Web. 23 Jan. 2011. <<http://worldhistory.abc-clio.com/>>.

"Thomas Hobbes; *Leviathan* (1651)." *World History: The Modern Era*. ABC-CLIO, 2011. Web. 23 Jan. 2011. <<http://worldhistory.abc-clio.com/>>.

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Miles H. Hodges. "Life of Thomas Hobbes" 23 Jan. 2011. <<http://www.luminarium.org/>>

Restore Order



Thomas Hobbes

Beliefs/ideas

- Absolute Monarchy should control the human nature
- Natural freedom should be exchanged for the security of civil peace
- Human beings are inherent, and selfish
- Christian state, and the Christian church should be united to prevent chaos



Accomplishments

- Completed an English translation of the Peloponnesian War
- Wrote "In the Element of law, Natural, and Politicks"
- Published the "Leviathan" in 1651
- Influenced many absolute monarch rulers



Challenge...

John Locke's ideas of life, liberty, and property

Nature!!...not all men are born equal, there is only one strong in body and mind, and therefore should he be the ruler.

Worked with..

- Met with Galileo briefly while being in Europe.
- Worked with Descartes while being in Paris.
- Invited to be the mathematics instructor of English King Charles II



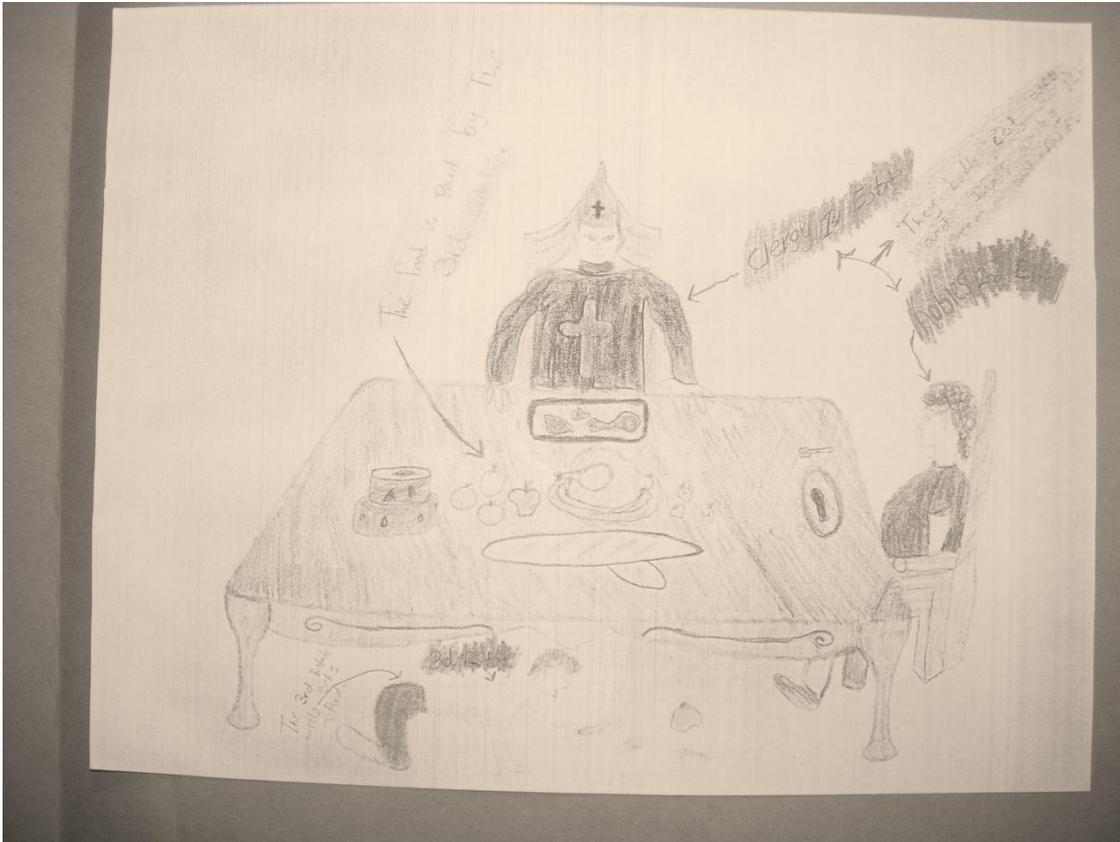
Alicia's Analysis of her own Political Cartoon about the French Revolution:

Alicia presented a neat and colorful drawing, but it was her detailed description and analysis that demonstrated she was learning unit content:

In this cartoon Marie Antoinette is wearing bread on her head, since she is well known for her outrageous hairdos. I put bread on her head because as her country was scarce in bread, their staple food, she had an abundance of bread and neither did she care nor take any action in helping France for the lack of food for her people. In the cartoon I also put cake, cards, and jewelry to represent the lavish and luxurious life she shared while her people struggled financially. The cards represent her gambling that put her country in debt. The jewelry represents her expensive taste in clothes, jewelry, and shoes, which also added to the nation's debt. The cake is in reference to the famous line she supposedly said ("Let them eat cake!") when the mob of fish women were outside her palace in the March on Versailles. The money carpet on the ground represents how money to her is easy to get and easy to waste. Overall, Marie Antoinette is a very wasteful queen who increased France's debt.

Although there are obvious generalizations and missed opportunities to present Marie with more nuance and complexity, that was not the nature of the task. I asked students to "take a stand" as a cartoonist from the era. Alicia is using the project to reinforce first-order content learned through direct teacher presentations, a History Channel documentary, image analysis activities, and textbook readings.

Photocopy of Juan's Political Cartoon on the French Revolution
and his Abbreviated Analysis:



Juan wrote: “This cartoon is telling us how each estate eats. The first and second estates are the most privileged ones, because they get to eat all the good food. The third estate is the one that gets the waste and all the left overs.” During an afterschool help session I pushed Juan to add detail to his original sketch, which he does. I also helped him start the analysis, but without my persistent guidance and support he was unable to extend the analysis. “Great use of images on the front of the cartoon,” I wrote on the back. “Now, how does your cartoon connect specifically to the events of the revolution and the specific circumstances under the Old Regime? You allude to some of this in the cartoon itself—go further with it in the analysis!”

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