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UNDERSTANDING TEACHER'S EXPERIENCE OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY

A STUDY OF TAH GRANT PARTICIPANTS

Connie J. Ables

Submitted to the faculty of the University Graduate School
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy
in the School of Education,
Indiana University
June 2011

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Accepted by the Graduate Faculty, Indiana University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Doctoral Committee

Dr. Lynne Boyle-Baise, Ph.D.]

Dr. Dave Flinders, Ed.D.

Dr. Jesse Goodman, Ph.D.

Dr. James Madison, Ph.D.

June 9, 2011

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Dedication

For the Ables and Blackburn Families

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Acknowledgements

I would like to express heartfelt gratitude to the members of my committee, Dr. Lynne Boyle-Baise, Dr. Jesse Goodman, Dr. James Madison, and Dr. Dave Flinders, for their care and guidance throughout my work as a graduate student. In their own ways, each has been a role model for my work as a scholar and a teacher. I also want to acknowledge the participating teachers of which I feel we are kindred souls. The actual classroom is a different place than when reading and writing about what *might* happen or what *could* be. I admire them and their work and hold them in the highest regard.

The three women who have made the most impact on me are Pat Wilson, my dearest and fiercest friend on this journey, whose family I turned to in times of joy and in times of despair. Kevin Bailey, who has mentored me throughout my life, and who has loved me when I was unlovable and taught me more through actions in her own life than words could ever say. Finally, I want to thank Lynne Boyle-Baise, who spent hours scrutinizing my work and offering advice of which I am forever grateful.

To friends and family, I deeply appreciate the space that I have been given these past three years in order to 'get my work done.' My sister, Cindy; my brother, Kevin; and my mother have done many favors for me and taken up the slack in many areas so that I could get my life directed in a new and positive avenue, and now that time is here. Thank you and I love you from the bottom of my heart. A heartfelt thanks to Kasey, Clint, and Emily who allowed me this time. I am so proud of the young adults that you have become during this journey.

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And Chip, the man in the minivan who drove to my house and changed my life; thank you for constantly reminding me about the D in the Ph. I look forward to walking through the rest of my life with you.

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Abstract

Connie J. Ables

Understanding Teachers' Experience of Teaching American History: A Study of TAH Participants

The purpose of this study was to follow six middle and high school TAH teachers and study their understanding and manifestations of the aims of the grant. Currently, there are few dissertations about the TAH program and none that address it as a qualitative study. This study focused on the ways that teachers experienced the grant including four local aims (use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, historical thinking and inquiry, and big ideas) that were central to the grant. This ethnographic study looked at the way teachers made meaning of the grant and their interpretations of it including but not limited to their composition of knowledge, creation of interpretation, and instructional concepts. These findings contribute to the meaning teachers make about good U. S. history teaching methods.

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Contents

Dedication ... iv

Acknowledgements ... v

Abstract ... vii

List of Tables ... xiv

List of Figures ... xv

Chapter 1 ... 1

What Constitutes Good U. S. History Teaching? ... 1

Statement of the Problem ... 1

National TAH Program ... 2

TAH Grants Today ... 5

Teaching American History: A Midwest Project ... 6

Pre-assessment ... 7

Program Goals ... 8

TAH Participants ... 8

Conceptual Framework ... 8

Aims ... 9

Chapter 2 ... 16

Literature Review ... 16

What Constitutes Quality U.S. History Teaching? ... 16

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Good History Teaching 16
What is good U. S. history teaching? What does it look like? 17
Teacher typologies 20
Pedagogical Content Knowledge 21
Textbooks 32
Primary Resources and Historical Thinking 34
Memorization 37
Teaching American History: National View 41
New Jersey 42
New Hampshire and Maine 43
Illinois 44
Courses of Action throughout the Nation 46
Chapter 3 49
Methodology 49
Teaching American History: A Midwest Project 49
TAH Team 49
TAH Participants 52
Setting 52
Purposive Sampling 55
Data Collection 57

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Field notes 63

Limitations of Study 70

Conclusion 72

Chapter 4: 73

Reid 73

Background 73

Storytelling through lecture 75

"Integrating the story" 76

Clint 80

Background 80

"Making Real-life Connections" 80

In the moment 82

"History Isn't 'Just Read this Book'"" 84

"Starting with the Textbook" 85

"Teaching is Coaching" 86

Emily 87

Background 87

"Generating Thinkers" 87

"Put Yourself in their Place" 90

"Textbook Teaching and using Primary Sources" 92

www.manaraa.com

"Every Student Should Succeed" 93

"Taking Courses" 94

Not enough time and other issues 95

Kasey 96

Background 96

"Bits of Information" 96

"I would have never thought…" 98

"Technology Difficulties" 99

"Getting the Facts" 99

"Not enough time" 101

U. S. history 101

Kerry 102

Background 102

"Teaching Tolerance" 102

"Old-fashioned Words" 103

"Correcting Misinformation" 104

"Exploring" 106

"Question to think" 106

U. S. history 107

Kristen 107

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Background 107

"Uncovering the Question" 108

"Seeing the Other Side of the Story" 108

"Think Historically" 112

"Student Learning" 112

U. S. history 113

Chapter 5 115

Analysis and Implications 115

Historical Thinking, Inquiry, and Presentism 129

National Standards for History 133

Model of Pedagogical Reasoning 134

Content Knowledge 138

Primary Sources 139

Multiple Perspectives 141

Textbook 142

Historical thinking and inquiry 144

Big ideas 145

Lecture 146

Memorization 147

Conclusion and Implication 147

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Appendix 156

Appendix A: Themes 157

Appendix B: Seminar Topics 162

Appendix C: Semi-structured Background Interview 165

Appendix D: Spindler Methodology (partial list) 168

Appendix: E 1 Living History Park 169

Appendix: E 2 Rubric – Living History Park 171

Appendix F: Colonial Painting 173

Appendix G1 174

Appendix G2 175

Appendix G3 177

Appendix G4 179

Appendix G5 180

Appendix G6 182

Appendix G7 183

References 185

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

List of Tables

Table 1. General categories..27

Table 2. List of Physical Features and Human Features..109

Table 3. Teacher Background and Typologies 116

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

List of Figures

Figure 1. Contact Hours 61

Figure 2. Marshmallow War 1 83

Figure 3. Marshmallow War 2 84

Figure 4. Living History Park Project 1 92

Figure 5. Living History Park Project 2 92

Figure 6. Map of Indiana Features 112

المنارة للاستشارات

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Chapter 1

What Constitutes Good U. S. History Teaching?

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to understand what actually happened over the years a Teaching American History grant was in place and how secondary and middle school in-service teachers experienced this professional development. Specifically, this study was concerned with how teachers experienced the Teaching American History (TAH) grant, its value to them, and to what degree it encouraged them to teach in a more thought-provoking way, if at all. The study looked to answer questions such as: Did the grant help teachers consider questions of curricular content? To what degree did it impact teachers thinking about the structure of the courses they taught? Did the grant and its workshops influence their pedagogical stance? Exactly how did participation in this grant impact teachers' thinking and teaching, if at all? The grant served as a catalyst for describing and explaining how teachers were open to aims that encouraged quality U.S. history teaching. This research highlights case studies of three high school and three middle school teachers throughout a year of professional development. I observed, interviewed, and documented these teachers' practices in order to gain a greater sense of how they understood and manifested the aims of the grant as well as their teaching practice in general. This study contributes to the conversation about the teaching of history in general as well as the meaning teachers make from the Teaching American History grant specifically. The research questions that lead this investigation were:

- What does it mean to teachers to teach quality U.S. history?

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- How do teachers understand and manifest the Teaching American History Educators Project experience?
- How, if at all, do teachers perceive and implement the use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry?

The study focused on teachers' own perceptions and meaning made about their teaching and student learning. The aims of the grant on the local level were to encourage the use of: primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry. I first build background information concerning the Teaching American History (TAH) grant's inception and purpose. I then focus on this Midwest project, including its goals and aims as the conceptual framework that underpinned this study. The grant leaders proposed that teaching was more than a transmission of content; it was learning to think and inquire like historians, and in this study I looked to see if this had any meaning to teachers at all. The hope of the project leaders was that teachers not only increased their content knowledge, but also their ability to deliver content in innovative ways in the classroom, and this study looked to see if this happened at all, and if so, to what extent.

National TAH Program

The TAH program started in response to a concern about the lack of content knowledge by U.S. history teachers. Two studies (1997) about social studies teachers found that "…more than 80 percent of those teaching social studies at the middle or high school level possessed neither an undergraduate major nor minor in history"(S. Wineburg, 2009b, p. x). Renowned educator Chester E. Finn, Jr. also found, "An alarmingly low 31 percent of middle school history teachers and 41 percent of high school history teachers

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actually majored in history as undergraduates as cited in (Stotsky, 2004, p. 6). It is suggested that teachers cannot effectively succeed in strategies of historical thinking and inquiry if their content knowledge is lacking. Several other studies indicated that teachers did not know how to practice the discipline of history and lacking that ability, they then could not pass this practice on to their students (Humphrey, 2005; T. D. Slekar, 1998). In a recent study, pre-service teachers noted "that they enjoyed the experiences of using primary documents, object-based instruction, and simulations, but lacked confidence in their abilities and their content knowledge to be able to create a historical inquiry activity" (Fragnoli, 2005, p. 250). This information coupled with teachers' assumed lack of content knowledge led Congress to appropriate $50 million to the Department of Education to improve the teaching of traditional American history through public law 106-54 in 2001 (Humphrey, 2005, p. 3). The Teaching American History Program (TAH) was authorized under Title II, Part C, and Subpart 4 of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. "The stated goal of the TAH Program was to support activities that raise student achievement by improving teachers' knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of American history"(Education, 2009, p. 53). This mandate promoted traditional American history to be taught as a separate subject within the core curriculum. In order to reach its goals, TAH projects were to work with school districts and institutions with expertise in American history and collaborate over a three-year period to ensure that teachers developed the knowledge and skills necessary to teach traditional American history in exciting and engaging ways ("Teaching American history," 2010).[1]

[1] Grants have been awarded to LEAs in all 50 states, as well as the District of Columbia,

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Beginning with *A Nation At Risk* report (1983) that contended that American schools were failing, legislators as well as the general public perceive our nation's school to be lacking in rigor. In response to this perception, The National Endowment of the Humanities formed a committee to review and develop national standards for history. In 1996 the National Endowment of the Humanities recommendations were not accepted by Congress.[2] This led to further debate about *what* actually counts as American history.

Our nation has been inundated with media misinformation that promotes fear that our schools are failing and that they are unsuccessfully teaching traditional U. S. history (R. Evans, 2004; Loewen, 1995; D. F. Ravitch, C., 1987; C. a. j. S. Sleeter, 2009; Takaki, 1993b; Zimmerman, 2002). Therefore, the No Child Left Behind Law (NCLB) included the component for the Teaching of American History. As explained in the book, From Standards to Success, when referring to NCLB, "…educators are to use academic content standards to benchmark federally mandated adequate yearly progress (AYP) toward school improvement goals." Accordingly, "this mandate is the most powerful manifestation of school reform since *A Nation At Risk* was written over twenty years ago" (O'Shea, 2005, p. 1). This standards-based initiative drives the federal government's educational stance which has actually worked in favor of more emphasis on American history. TAH grants were generated from NCLB law which was concerned that the teaching of United States History was deficient. TAH projects around the country have increased the possibility of rigor by providing content in U. S. history as well as allowing enough leniency at the local level to provide ideas and strategies that teachers found lacking in their schools.

Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands (Melendez, 2008).

[2] Lynne Cheney, former head of the National Endowment for the Humanities

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Whether real or perceived, school failure rhetoric has allowed for teachers of U.S. History to receive unprecedented professional development sponsored directly by the federal government. It has led to significant amounts of monies coming available for the purposes of professional development of U. S. history teachers.

TAH Grants Today

During the round of awards in 2009, 123 school districts in 38 states were awarded $116 million dollars in new grants to help schools improve the teaching of American history (Thomas, 2009 July). It was during this round that the TAH grant was awarded to this Midwestern school corporation in which this study took place. It was an exciting time as there had never been more focused attention on the teaching of American History than at that time. This study focused on the meaning- making of teaching, and more studies are needed to ask questions such as such as 'how do teachers experience and perceive grant activities'? Do their actions and perceptions challenge or reinforce the deficiency view of public education? The time is short as the TAH grant has already been amalgamated under the Obama Administration into a new $265 million dollar program called "Effective Teaching and Learning for a Well-Rounded Education" (Brady, 2010, May) which also supports the improvement of education in reading, writing, mathematics and science, arts, foreign language, history, civics and government, and economics ("Department of educational improvement 2011," 2010). The potential for the focus on history to be pushed to the periphery is upon us again. TAH grants no longer stand alone; they are now pooled with the other content areas listed above.

There was only one TAH dissertation that I found written in 2009 about Teaching American History grants. I read Robinson's (2009) dissertation and found it to be entirely

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quantitative. For example, a question looked like this: As regards to the level of authentic student engagement, is there a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of students whose teachers have been trained versus not trained in the TAH Grant program? (p. 83). Her format displayed a standardized structure, and it repeated the same question with a different quantifier each time. This type of study was of little value to me as a researcher who would like to know to what degree the grant impacted the teachers practice, thoughts and actions, if at all, and if so, how and why. This is the space that my research fills.

In order to give a broader understanding of TAH programs throughout the nation, I looked at several programs around the U.S. They were in New York City, New Jersey, New Hampshire and Maine, and Illinois. These are discussed in chapter two and they also tended to be primarily quantitative with minimal attention paid to teachers' perceptions of how the grants had impacted their teaching, if at all. My research fills a void by researching the understanding and meaning-making that teachers experience by participating in these grants. I placed teachers at the center as I chose to be their recorder and they were allowed to tell their story in their own words. I looked at meaning-making, actions, perceptions, challenges, and what reinforced ideas, in essence, how these teachers made sense of participating in a Teaching American History grant.

Teaching American History: A Midwest Project

This study sought to understand what actually happened over the years the grant was in place and how secondary and middle school in-service teachers underwent this learning experience. Focusing on pedagogical content knowledge as well as the teachers' own perceptions about their professional identity as history teachers allowed me to

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discover and contemplate issues as they arose. Four local aims have been stated for this project - the use of: primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry. These were the pedagogical initiatives that were encouraged by the project leaders within the content of U. S. history and they are themes that were investigated during this study. The research notes to what extent middle school and high school teachers perceived and made use of these aims along the way, if at all. When bringing all of the partners together to implement plans, teach teachers, and empower teachers to incorporate new practices and content into their classroom lessons, what exactly was happening? The next section of the paper addresses the project's goals, team members, how teams collaborated, how the work was divided, and who was responsible for what.

TAH Team

The team was made of one local school teacher, three professors, one local history center president, a technology person, an outside evaluator and myself, the assistant to the project as well as a former U. S. history teacher who had been involved in two TAH grants as a participant.

Pre-assessment

According to the TAH pre-assessment survey given to all social studies teachers in this corporation, without exception, elementary and secondary teachers wanted to gain content knowledge that would help them teach to the standards with greater depth, and more illustration. Both elementary and secondary teachers wanted to improve their instruction of U.S. history. Teachers hoped to learn to use primary resources, link national

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and local events, teach inquiry skills, include multiple perspectives of historical events, learn more social history, stimulate higher-order thinking, and make history come alive. A majority of elementary and secondary teachers wanted the grant to provide opportunities for field trips to historical sites and museums. They desired, especially, to learn about city and state events and people related to periods in U.S. history. They attended conferences and field trips, go to lectures, and participate in book discussions. Finally, they were anxious to learn with and from other teachers for their grade levels (Boyle-Baise, 2009).

Program Goals

Program Goals were aligned to fall under the guidelines set by the federal government. The local goals were derived in large part from the data collected from the pre-assessment instrument.

TAH Participants

The team recruited from 133 history teachers, aiming to serve up to 30 teachers who (excepting attrition) would remain in the grant for three years (elementary and secondary personnel). This as well as local program goals and more about the TAH Team and participants are addressed in chapter three.

Conceptual Framework

This grant aimed to promote innovative history teaching using an inclusive history narrative. The four aims that this research concentrated most on were the areas of multiple perspectives, thinking historically and inquiry, primary sources, and big ideas. The project leaders explained and encouraged all of these aims, and asked teachers to incorporate one or more strategies in each of their TAH lesson plans. The leadership team

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wanted teachers to not only attend workshops emphasizing these methods, but also to implement those aims that they found meaningful.

Aims

Multiple Perspectives

First, in defining multiple perspectives, the team leaders didn't define it in the limited sense usually based on race, but rather referred to multiple perspectives more as *differing perspectives* of any given event. The use of multiple perspectives in this sense is more like seeing an event or time period from different lenses. For example, if a group of people see a person robbing someone else, each of those people see the event slightly differently and note different aspects of the event based on their own points of reference. Different aspects of such an event were highlighted by each person and were remembered differently by each. We suggested multiple perspectives in much the same way, as a way to look at competing interpretations of history through different lenses.

Differing points of view help students and teachers develop a sense of empathy for the 'other.' The 'other' may be defined as anyone not oneself. The leaders of the project tried to enact pedagogy that encouraged teaching students to be cognizant of all the players, encouraging teaching students to be critical thinkers, and not knee-jerk reactionists.

As our country is moving out of the Euro-centric mindset of our past, multiple perspectives take priority in shaping our future. According to Jenkins, "With the end of modernity, so its ways of conceptualizing history have also ended. It is not so much the 'end of history' *per se* but the 'end of modernist renditions of history'"(Jenkins, 1995, p.

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10). As we are now solidly in the 21st century, one of the local aims was to be sure that teachers and students used and learned from a broad lens of the past. We know that we are a country made up of African-Americans, Asian-Americans, Hispanic-Americans, Native Americans, European-Americans, and more (Spickard, 2007; Takaki, 1993a; Zinn, 2003), and that is the past that the team leaders wanted taught as well as broadening history's lens about socio-economic groups and our successes and failures of a nation as a whole. It is Barton's contention that "preparing students to make reasoned judgments cannot be accomplished by telling them what to think; preparing them to move beyond their own perspective cannot be accomplished by demanding reproduction of a consensual narrative of the national past; and preparing them to take part in collaborative discourse about the common good cannot be accomplished by tightly controlled, teacher-centered instruction" (2004, p. 260). We know that "no one ever decides anything without making a trade-off, weighing one thing against another, one point against another, one person against another"(Freire, 1998, p. 43). When teachers and students become aware of this trade-off, a broader lens of looking at history occurs. This is what the team leaders meant by multiple perspectives.

Historical Thinking and Inquiry

One of the four aims of this TAH grant was to get teachers thinking as historians in order to teach their students to do so also. The guest historians continually tried to impress upon our teachers that history is not a fixed story. Wineburg found that "under the right conditions, even third graders can grasp something of history's indeterminate nature and thereby arrive at sophisticated interpretations of the past"(S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 82).

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> Historical thinking requires us to reconcile two contradictory positions: first, that our established modes of thinking are an inheritance that cannot be sloughed off, and, second, that if we make no attempt to slough them off, we are doomed to a mind-numbing presentism that reads the present onto the past (S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 12).

He contends that:

> Historical thinking is neither a natural process nor something that springs automatically from psychological development….it actually goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think, one of the reasons why it is much easier to learn names, dates, and stories than it is to change the basic mental structures we use to grasp the meaning of the past (S. Wineburg, 2001a, p. 7).

The team leaders encouraged 'thinking against the grain' in order to grasp the 'indeterminate nature' of history. Inquiry methods were equally important to the project leaders. As VanSledright stated, " In information-laden, pluralistic democracies, capabilities for thinking through, assessing, and evaluating the plethora of political, product, and media claims that appear in startling numbers every day may well be understood as necessities"(2008, p. 130). The TAH project leaders encouraged the teachers to help students think deeply, assess, and evaluate not only their U.S. History, but also to think deeply about events occurring in their everyday lives too.

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The project leaders taught teachers that they could locate several primary source documents that expressed divergent points of view, and then ask students: Which elements in each document are facts? Which are opinions? Which voices are still not present? What questions do we still have? How could we go about finding possible answers to those questions? (Selwyn, 2003, p. 37) These inquiry questions parallel with the National Council for the Social Studies aim to enable students to obtain "skills for interpreting information, drawing inferences from factual materials, recognizing the value dimension of interpreting, and recognizing instance in which more than one interpretation is possible" ("Expectations for excellence: Curriculum standards for social studies," 1994).

Primary Sources

If the project team wanted students to critically think, then students needed to be more than passive instruments taking in someone else's interpretations and thoughts. The TAH team leaders stressed the importance of using primary sources, which allowed students to construct their own thoughts. The team rationale was that once teachers experienced thinking historically and using inquiry methods through the use of primary sources, then they would pass that on to their students in their classrooms. In this grant "the idea [was] to provide students with opportunities to conduct their own investigations that have an authentic purpose"(Ellis, 2005, p. 38).

According to Slekar, "Students begin to construct historical understanding by using debate and by studying historical evidence, always aware that conclusions are subject to change and perspectives of individuals determine historical interpretations"(T. D. Slekar, 2001, p. 68). As students and teachers became more sophisticated at this

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process, then "history as a story or narrative is understood as an outcome of disciplined investigation into the relics and sources and archival materials surviving from the past"(VanSledright, 2008, p. 118). This portrayed a very different understanding of history than simply memorizing what a textbook appeared to write as fact.

Big Ideas

Finally, using big ideas also offered an array of inviting possibilities. Using an overarching theme allowed students a place to hang new information- chunking if you will- and make sense of information in an integrated manner. Unfortunately, it is possible that since "U. S. education has placed so much emphasis on memorization of trivia as the standard for learning that few teachers have any sense of what the generative ideas are because they never had opportunities to learn them themselves" (Ellis, 2005, p. 36). This grant sought to help teachers understand and implement big ideas into their lessons. "Questions reflect[ing] big ideas, trends, or phenomena are generative in nature; that is, the ideas themselves are universal and are not unique to a specific time and place"(Ellis, 2005, p. 34). These teachers were to understand the universal concept of big ideas. The project leaders emphasized to the teachers "when teaching students about big ideas, scaffolding knowledge is an essential tool. Here, teachers take the time to find out what students already know, or think they know about the concept, as well as what misconceptions or erroneous understandings they may have at the onset"(Ellis, 2005, p. 38).

Big ideas "should be sufficiently simple so that students can understand them, yet sufficiently complex so that grasping the concept helps to reorganize the students' understanding of what they have previously learned"(White, 1988, p. 122). Big ideas are

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a way to connect discrete information to a larger format. According to (Ellis, 2005) an Index of Understanding Big Ideas includes:

- making many connections to other ideas
- explaining how idea is affected by various phenomena
- explaining impact of idea on the world
- making effective comparisons with other ideas
- summarizing or explaining gist of idea in own words
- having sufficient knowledge of relevant facts
- identifying different manifestations of idea
- recognizing inappropriate applications or iterations of ideas (p. 36).

Big ideas help students understand what goes on in the world and how things occur the way they do. This TAH project aligned itself with not only promoting the four aims previously discussed but also with the National Council for the Social Studies principles of powerful and purposeful teaching and learning strategies. The National Council for the Social Studies advocates that all lessons are meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging and encourage action. These are engaging methods of instruction that connect issues to students' lives, and NCSS encourages using varied instructional activities and materials (NCSS, Revised 2008). The TAH leadership team considered these qualities to be important, and they encouraged teachers to reflect on these qualities and to really *think* about their lesson planning. TAH lesson plans should support meaningful interaction with the topics in U.S. History as well as implement one or more of the four aims.

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Next, I explain the current state of the teaching of U. S. history followed by how the teaching of U. S. history could look by incorporating the four goals of this TAH project as well as sections about content knowledge and pedagogy, teacher typologies, multiple perspectives, primary sources, textbooks, narrative possibilities, memorization as opposed to inquiry, and lecture. I address teachers' professional identities and teaching styles. Chapter two also situates this TAH project within the context of TAH grants around the nation.

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Chapter 2

Literature Review

What Constitutes Quality U.S. History Teaching?

Good History Teaching

Keith Barton summed up the plight of current history teaching:

No one likes the way history is taught. Conservatives think it's too multicultural, and multiculturalists think it's too conservative. Politicians say it doesn't promote patriotism, and social reformers say it doesn't promote critical reflection. Advocates of social studies fret that history receives too much emphasis, and history specialists fret that it doesn't receive enough. Lawmakers argue schools should teach to the test, and schools argue they should teach the way they think best. Researchers criticize teachers for not using primary sources, teachers criticize students for not wanting to learn, and students criticize textbooks for being deadly boring. What a mess (2004, p. 1).What a mess indeed! With so many issues vying for attention, one has to prioritize and decide which issues demand immediate attention. This TAH project challenged current dominant practices such as textbook teaching, focusing on memorization, and lecture-based teaching. I asked within the realm of U. S. history, what constitutes high quality U. S. history teaching? The TAH team leaders strove to meet the federal guidelines of deepening teachers' knowledge, improving teachers' delivery, and raising student achievement through providing rich content delivered by renowned historians(Education, 2009). They also opted to enact the best practices of using multiple perspectives, primary sources, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry strategies in this project. First, I

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define ‘good teaching’ as defined by our legislators and social studies experts. I also look at teacher typologies as these lie beneath teachers’ actions and choices in the classroom. Finally, I address such concerns as: content and pedagogy, textbook narratives, multiple perspectives and textbook publishing, primary sources, memorization as opposed to inquiry methods, and lecture. I end by situating this TAH project as one among many other TAH projects and what issues these other projects addressed in their localities over and above the three federal mandated goals.

What is good U. S. history teaching? What does it look like?

In an attempt to specify exactly what “good teaching” looks like, NCLB law defines the highly qualified teacher of middle and/or high school as those who:

> Earn a bachelor’s degree; AND are fully licensed to teach the core academic subject, and demonstrate core content knowledge. The core content knowledge component may be proved through holding a bachelor’s degree in the core subject; AND earning 24 credit hours in the core subject, passing the State test in the content area, earning national board certification, earning 100 points on the IN HOUSSE, or providing HQT status in another state ("Highly qualified teachers: Understanding NCLB," 2011).

Through this definition we construe that federal law considers content knowledge in a specific area to be a main indicator of teacher qualification, but is that all that it takes to be a good U.S. history teacher? Gary Nash, head of the

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Standards Task Force recorded that *National Standards for History* says our history students should be able to:

- Evaluate evidence, develop comparative and causal analyses, interpret the historical record, and construct sound historical arguments and perspectives on which informed decisions in contemporary life can be based.

- Explain historical understandings about the history of their nation and of the world. These understandings are drawn from the record of human aspirations, strivings, accomplishments, and failures in at least five spheres of human activity: the social, political, scientific/technological, economic, and cultural (philosophical/religious/aesthetic). Teachers should also provide students the historical perspectives required to analyze contemporary issues and problems confronting citizens today. (Nash, 1996, p. 42)

Therefore, teachers of history must teach these skills and aspects to their students. Nash concludes, "The success of the these standards requires the provision of high quality professional development in United States and World History and in pedagogy for teachers who are not prepared to teach the content or thinking skills presented in this document. Equally important, all students must be provided with the best available textbooks and other curricular material in history" (1996, p. 56). These skills have been defined as determining what good history teachers should be teaching in their classrooms. Wineburg, head of UCLA's history center defines the wise practitioner as one that involves teachers who ponder key ideas, events, concepts, and interpretations of their discipline and those who try to think themselves into the minds of students who lack the depth of understanding that they, as teachers, possess (2001b). It becomes evident that though content knowledge is imperative, it is not the only qualifier necessary for good teaching of history. Nash contends, "Good teaching will often develop two or more of these elaborated standards in a single lesson or sequence of lessons… teachers will

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creatively design their own instructional plans, integrating related understandings in a variety of ways to accomplish these ends"(1996, p. 55).

In order to begin the process of good teaching, we must integrate great pedagogy with a solid foundation of content knowledge. "Other good teaching strategies are the use of examples, analogies, demonstrations, simulations, stories, dramatic reenactments and debates. Each of these attempt to bridge the sophisticated understanding of the teacher and the developing understanding of the students"(S. Wineburg, 2001a, p. 170). Good history teaching; therefore, meets at the intersection of deep content knowledge on the teachers' behalf and the pedagogical knowledge of how to best convey this content to students. Seixas comments, "The notion of history as a constructed account of the past is central to examining the discipline because this construction is the process that historian, teacher, and student have in common"(Seixas, 1999, p. 330). Good history teaching; thus, includes a coming together of student and teacher in the endeavor of examining the past with a critical eye. In addition, "Students [should] learn for themselves why historians are continuously reinterpreting the past, and why new interpretations emerge not only from uncovering new evidence but from rethinking old evidence in the light of new ideas springing up in our own times. Students then can also see why the good historian, like the good teacher, is interested not in manipulation or indoctrination but in acting as an honest messenger from the past-not interested in possessing students' minds but in presenting them with the power to possess their own"(Nash, 1996, p. 67).

Good history teaching acts more like a quest or a puzzle of which one puts together again and again as new information becomes available; thereby, setting the basic understanding that instead of a stagnant past that is set in stone, history is likely to change

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in light of new understandings. How teachers choose to teach history is based in part on their own beliefs, mores, and value system. For the purpose of this study, the following typologies helped me categorize types of teachers in chapters four and five according to their teaching practices.

Teacher typologies

Different teachers have different strengths and weaknesses just as students do. There are many different ways by which to categorize teaching styles. *How* we teach is partially determined by how we identify ourselves professionally. To stay within one framework, I chose Ron Evans' five broad categories that he developed during a research project in 1988 about U. S. history teachers (Ron Evans, 1989). In that study, he identified the storyteller, scientific historian, relativist/reformer, cosmic philosopher, and eclectic teacher. Most teachers in his study, as in this one, possessed elements of more than one typology, though most displayed a dominant stance. Teachers' belief systems are vitally important as they form their teaching identities and practices. In Evans' discussion section of his study, he defined five types as follows: 1. The storyteller who emphasizes transmitting knowledge and using teacher-centered methods. 2. The scientific historian who emphasizes open-ended inquiry into historical questions. 3. The relativist/reformer who emphasizes relating the past to current issues and who are placed in the reflective inquiry tradition. 4. The cosmic philosopher who emphasizes connecting all experiences as part of a larger pattern which has profound meaning. Finally, 5. The eclectic teacher who takes a pragmatic approach to teaching and whose style is a combination of approaches that work. Evans concluded that his data suggested that pedagogy may relate strongly to conceptions of history. The idealist tells stories, the scientific historian

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promotes open-ended thinking about history, the relativist/reformer mixes methods to promote student questioning and to relate past to present, the cosmic philosopher challenges students with cosmic interpretations, and the eclectic opts for variety to build student interest (Ron Evans, 1989). These typologies are discussed in much further detail in the data analysis in chapter five. I found this framework very helpful when analyzing why teachers made the choices they made and how they chose to implement the projects' aims, and to what extent, if at all. I now address issues that continue to lead the discussion as to what constitutes good U. S. history teaching.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Dewey stated:

> …the subject matter, or content, thus becomes inert knowledge, while pedagogy becomes a matter of its 'delivery'. The ideas that mind and the world of things and persons are two separate and independent realms….carries with it the conclusion that method and subject matter of instruction are separate affairs (1916, pp. 164-165).

So as in days of past, we acknowledge that methods and content are intertwined. Goldschmidt states,

> Evidence is mounting that teaching a subject requires content knowledge that goes substantially beyond what is typically taught and leaned in college and university classes. This special form of content knowledge is most commonly referred to as

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> pedagogical content knowledge also referred to as PCK (Shulman, 1987)….the most useful ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others (2010, p. 433).

To teach all students meeting today's standards, teachers need to understand subject matter deeply and flexibly so they can help students create useful cognitive maps, relate one idea to another, and address misconceptions. Teachers should connect ideas connect across fields and to everyday life. This kind of understanding provides a foundation for pedagogical content knowledge that enables teachers to make ideas accessible to others (Shulman, 1987).

Shulman (1986) introduced the phrase *pedagogical content knowledge* to describe the intersection of content and pedagogy. In Shulman's theoretical framework, teachers need to master two types of knowledge: content, also known as "deep" knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of the curricular development. "Participation in professional development that focuses on general pedagogy alone has not been shown to be related to student achievement. Similarly, activities that are content focused, but do not increase teachers' knowledge and skills, have a negative association with changes in teacher practice (Garet et al., 2001; Guskey, 2000, as cited in (R. G. Ragland, 2009, p. 171). The TAH team leaders understood that this project should weave both content and pedagogical practice into each event.

Shulman (Shulman, 1986, 1987, 1992) created a Model of Pedagogical Reasoning, which comprises a cycle of several activities that a teacher should complete for good

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teaching: comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, reflection, and new comprehension. First, comprehension, meaning to teach is to first understand purposes, subject matter structures, and ideas within and outside the discipline. Teachers need to understand what they teach and, when possible, to understand it in several ways. Second, transformation is at the heart of this cycle. Comprehended ideas must be transformed in some manner if they are to be taught. Transformations require some combination or ordering of the following processes:

1. *Preparation* (of the given text material), which includes the process of critical interpretation

2. *Representation* of the ideas in the form of new analogies and metaphors (Teachers' knowledge, including the way they speak about teaching, not only includes references to what teachers "should" do, it also includes presenting the material by using figurative language and metaphors [Glatthorn, 1990].)

3. *Instructional selections* from among an array of teaching methods and models

4. *Adaptation* of student materials and activities to reflect the characteristics of student learning styles

5. *Tailoring the adaptations* to the specific students in the classroom.

According to Shulman and other education experts, good teaching implies that teachers consider the relevant aspects of the students' ability, culture, and prior knowledge. Third, good instruction includes many of the most crucial aspects of pedagogy: management, presentations, interactions, group work, discipline, humor, questioning, and discovery and inquiry instruction. Fourth, evaluation needs to be thought about as an extension of instruction, not as a separate process. Evaluation should be formative, checking for misunderstandings along the way and summative, checking for students' understanding at the end of lessons and units. Fifth, reflection as a process or critically analyzing one's own

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teaching abilities and making changes that lead to becoming a better teacher. Through reflection teachers can better understand their own teaching behavior as well as help colleagues by listening carefully to each other. Finally, new comprehension can be reached and the process begins again (INTIME, 1999-2001).

Teachers could consider several kinds of knowledge about learning. They need to think about what it means to learn different kinds of material for different purposes and how to decide which kinds of learning are most necessary in different contexts. Teachers must be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of different learners and must have the knowledge to work with students who have specific learning disabilities or needs. Teachers could be better informed about curriculum resources and technologies to connect their students with sources of information and knowledge that allow them to explore ideas, acquire and synthesize information, and frame and solve problems. And teachers could foster collaboration–how to structure interactions among students so that more powerful shared learning can occur; how to collaborate with other teachers; and how to work with parents to learn more about their children and to shape supportive experiences at school and home (Shulman, 1992).(INTIME, 1999-2001). Shulman's expertise in the study and research of pedagogical content knowledge is renowned. The interplay of teacher content knowledge and the ability to turn that knowledge into something meaningful and accessible to students is noted as the pinnacle of the art of teaching. This study describes but does not evaluate Pedagogical Content Knowledge, yet PCK is woven throughout all good teaching practices.

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Multiple Perspectives

It is evident that lawmakers as well as educators realize that U.S. history teachers need content knowledge as well as pedagogical content knowledge, but specific to U.S. history is the step of deciding *what kind* and *whose history* should be taught. What exactly counts as U.S. history? Many traditional U.S. history textbooks center on Anglo-American heritage and are not inclusive to the other ethnicities whose stories also formed this nation. Some authors, as well as teachers, go to extremes; whereas, Goodman suggests we " find a way to de-center Anglos, but not demonize them because they have done wonderful things and terrible things"(Goodman, 2010). Perhaps, our country could be held together by commonalities such as themes or big ideas reflecting freedom, ethnicities, diversity, or struggle (Foner, 1998; Goodman, 2006; Spickard, 2007; Zinn, 2003). Barton also gives clarity as to how a national narrative or identity could come about. In his example:

> Citizens of a given country might feel connected to each other because of their shared commitment to a set of political principles, economic institutions, or cultural practices; that is, they might be willing to work together as part of a system of mutual decision making and assistance, because they know other citizens subscribe to the same standards and assumptions about how their country should be run, even if these commitments have no history behind them. From this perspective, national identity could be grounded solely in contemporary concerns, and school could focus on developing attachment to the here and now rather than the past (Barton, 2004, p. 59).

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Barton's call for a national identity sets a whole new understanding of *Current Events* into play. There are several studies that depict countries that are not held together by a heritage-type history. "Not all democracies approach history textbooks or history education from a decidedly collective-memory perspective. For example, in England, there is greater emphasis placed on understanding the textbook as only one of many different textual sources"(VanSledright, 2008, p. 117). When we walk outside our own culture, we have the opportunity to see how history is taught from different approaches. Certainly using different textual sources is acceptable.

The following table depicts those authors and experts who have joined camp either as inclusive historians, moderates, or the traditionalists who cling to the Euro-American version of U. S. history. One must keep in mind that this chart is not anymore stagnant than the making of history; these people fluctuate across lines on different topics and/or change their minds and positions throughout time. At the time of this study these authors appeared to fall into these categories. I continually juxtapose these views throughout this chapter and this chart helps situate the reader with these authors. According to how these authors talk about and view the teaching of U.S. history they have been labeled in general categories of Inclusive, Moderate, or Traditionalist.

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Table 1. General categories

Inclusive	Moderate	Traditionalist
Zinn	VanSledright	Ravitch
Apple	Nash	Rochester
Wineburg	Lowenthal	Schlesinger
Barton	Foner	Stotsky
Hess		Ellington
Takaki		Burach

As mentioned previously, we could generate a national identity that is based on several commonalities, none of which have to concern our heritage (Lowenthal, 1998). "Heritage aims to create faith in mythologies while history seeks to inquire endlessly. The former attempts to stabilize the past; the latter destabilizes it by its method" (T. D. Slekar, 2001, p. 67). The discipline of history requires questioning it. Perhaps traditionalists have been supporting the teaching of heritage and not history. Perhaps the collective memory approach promotes a Eurocentric view and marginalizes others in our pluralistic nation. "U.S. history textbooks outline how authors offer the narrative in largely omniscient voices. The narrative is presented as though there were no alternative or counter narratives possible"(VanSledright, 2008, p. 115). VanSledright continues, "Collective-memory courses, although effective at transmitting a coherent (although simplistic) narrative, come up short at giving that narrative much historical substance, this leaves little room for making sense of multiple historical sources, considering and working from evidence, asking questions, developing one's own interpretation, or writing interpretive

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arguments" (2008, pp. 125,129). Klein argues on the extreme of inclusive history that "peoples 'without history' have been subjugated, colonized, and exploited, but they have neither vanished from the story nor become European"(2001, p. 275).

On the other end of the continuum, Arthur Schlesinger claims that , "Anglo-centric domination of schoolbooks was based on part on unassailable facts" as quoted in (Takaki, 1993b, p. 114). Those purporting that we continue teaching an Anglo-American U.S. history believe that "we should learn who we are before we learn who we are not"(Rochester, 2003, p. 21) Rochester continues that "for better or for worse, DWEMS (dead white European males) dominated much of the political history of the world, certainly the history of the United States"(Rochester, 2003, p. 21). Yet, perhaps these irrefutable facts are refutable if one looks at what is presented as fact from a differing viewpoint. How we remember our history is based on *whose* history we are remembering. There is the concern that "in recent years textbooks and curricula have overcorrected for these defects"(Burack, 2003, p. 49).

In a harsher condemnation, Stotsky says textbooks " manipulate teachers to view the history of freedom as the history of oppression and to be more sympathetic to cultures that don't value individual rights than to those that do" (2004, p. 9). Stotsky's traditionalist or right-wing political viewpoint is in direct opposition to Howard Zinn's inclusive or left-wing political viewpoint. Zinn's popularity is noted as his book, A People's History, sold its millionth copy in 2003. There are those such as Schlesinger and Stotsky who agree with Kazin as he called, " A People History, a doleful narrative that makes one wonder why anyone but the wealthy came to the United States at all and, after working for a spell, why anyone wished to stay"(Kazin, 3-3-2004, p. 4).

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Yet, to complicate this matter further, Eric Foner, renowned historian, wrote in A People's History book cover that "Professor Zinn writes with an enthusiasm rarely encountered in the leaden prose of academic history, and his text is studded with telling quotations from labor leaders, war resisters, and fugitive slaves. There are vivid descriptions of events that are usually ignored"(Zinn, 2003, p. book cover).

Arguments and counter arguments can go on infinitum because people have very different beliefs about America's past. It reminds me of the hopeless and hopeful feeling one gets when finishing Moby Dick and reading the last line, "And the great shroud of the sea rolled on as it rolled five thousand years ago" (Melville, p. 452). One can read for a very long time about the perceived injustices of the way history is written (Bennetta; Schlafly, August 13, 2010; Schwartz, July 31, 2010) yet still, history of some sort is taught. This TAH project addressed many differing perspectives and the leadership team strove to bring awareness to teachers and thus, to their students about this debate. The team leaders envisioned a climate where students could understand that there was more than one story, more than one version, and more than any one person could possibly know. The project leadership team wanted them to convey history as a construct.

Opposing views or looking at U. S. history through several different lenses helps keeps one from oversimplifying American history. Wineburg applauds teachers who are "aware of the importance of interpretation and multiple causation, who can seek out competing explanations for historical events and incorporate those views in their teaching"(S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 151). "Instead of imagining historicity as something that Europe invented and then imposed upon, or bequeathed to, the benighted 'others' of the earth, we might imagine European historicities as some among many, historicities in both

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conversation and conflict with a profusion of narrative traditions"(Klein, 2001, p. 298). It is an unbelievably daunting task when one asks: Out of 300 million Americans in 2011, whose story is the 'main story'? Multiple perspectives become more relevant when we pay attention to our audience, a diverse student population, and we teach deep meaningful history. Viewed as good U. S. history teaching practice, using multiple perspectives hopes to widen and deepen students' understanding about U.S. history and encourage critical thinking about historical events and people.

Not only are textbooks supposed to be objective and factual but they are heavily relied on in U. S. classrooms. Cultivating national identity through heritage may have been an effective way of fostering assimilation one hundred years ago, but today's learners are ethnically diverse and many feel marginalized (Banks, 2008; Bennett, 2007; Boyle-Baise, 1999; Jay, 2005; C. Sleeter, 1996; Takaki, 1993b; Tyack, 1995). "By 2026 the non-white and Hispanic student enrolment in US schools will grow from 10 million (in 1976) to 45 million, comprising an astonishing 70% of the nation's students"(Foster, 1999). Michael Apples states, "From the vast knowledge, only some knowledge and only some perspectives tend to get declared as official or legitimate. In the process other knowledge is declared as popular, as not real, as not important. It is now harder for an individual or a group to simply assert that they have a lock on the truth" as cited in (Hess, 2009, p. xi). The more history uncovered, the more we realize that students should be exposed to multiple perspectives in U.S. history in order to form a history that relates to their experiences and connects them to the larger body of the meaning of being an 'American.'

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The population of our nation is pluralistic and the mood has changed. As Robert Putnam cited a number of studies indicating "without a doubt, America in the 1990s was a more tolerant place than American in the 1950s or even the 1970s"(2000, p. 352). When U. S. history is taught primarily though a textbook, we could lose the bigger story. According to Wineburg,

> Textbooks eliminate 'metadiscourse,' or the existence of places in the text where the author intrudes to indicate positionality and stance. Textbooks rarely cite the documentary record; if primary materials appears, it is typically set off in 'sidebars' so as not to interfere with the main text. Finally the textbook speaks in the omniscient third-person. No visible author confronts the reader; instead, a corporate author speaks from a position of transcendence, a position of knowing from on high (S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 13).

If this is indeed the case, then students who are taught strictly from a textbook are heavily influenced by the author's bias within that particular textbook.

The complexity of what goes into choosing which topics to teach makes this a hot button issue. It is further complicated by having to agree. At the present time, there are many concerns about the teaching of U.S. history in our schools. One needs only to look at Arizona, California, and Florida to find political hotbeds concerning U.S. history teaching. For example, in the spring of 2006, Florida state legislature demanded that "American history shall be viewed as factual, not as constructed, shall be viewed as knowable, teachable, and testable, and [shall] be defined as the creation of a new nation based largely on the universal principles stated in the Declaration of Independence" Florida legislation

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as quoted in (VanSledright, 2008, p. 109) This declaration leaves little to no room for multiple perspectives or interpretations to be explored within the narrative.

The stories should be told, but should we use textbooks as the major source of information? Would this promote good U. S. history teaching as defined by Wineburg or Nash? Does it lead to good pedagogy as advocated by Shulman?

Textbooks

Perhaps teachers have bought into the textbook delivery of information to such an extent, that they have long ago forgotten that a textbook's account of history is just that, an account, a version, one way of looking at an event. As long ago as 1935, "research on a select group of 104 of the 'best teachers' in New York city suburban schools was conducted by Professor Thomas Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia. He concluded that the vast majority continually engaged in traditional recitation and that 80% were 'teaching from the textbook'" (Foster, 1999, p. 252). The subsequent studies conducted in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s proved remarkably similar to Brigg's earlier finds (Foster, 1999).

Chester Finn of George Mason University chimed in "Because these texts end up serving as students' primary sources of information, it's vitally important that they be accurate and interesting, and that they establish a narrative of events with a strong sense of context. They must tell 'the main story' without neglecting lesser stories that form part of an accurate picture of the past. What they must not be is sprawling, drab assemblages of disjointed information in which everything matters equally and nothing is truly important. How many—if any—of today's textbooks live up to that obligation?"(Finn, February

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2004). Most educators and historians agree that 'sprawling, drab assemblages' do not lead to student learning or interest.

It appears that Ravitch's goals are very much in line with many other social studies scholars as she states, "Our goal must be to insist that students encounter a variety of views; that their teachers and textbooks recognize the possibility of fallibility and uncertainty; and that students gain a solid body of knowledge as well as the tools and disposition to view that knowledge skeptically and analytically"(D. Ravitch, 2003b, p. 5). Today, many schools teach a traditional U. S. history and that may be due in large part to the teachers' addiction to the textbook, and in many instances traditional textbooks depict a very Anglo-centric version of history (Spickard, 2007; Takaki, 1993a; Zinn, 2003). In Gilbert Sewalls' study about American history textbooks it was concluded, "To many teachers and almost all students, the textbook is taken to be a well of truthful and expert information"(Sewall, 1987, p. 67). Furthermore, "Special interest groups put enormous pressures on textbook companies not to have their material include ideas that might be offensive to some. Texts, therefore, tend to be highly homogenized and devoid of honest discussions of critical issues"(Ellis, 2005, p. 36).

In 2003, Diane Ravitch looked at history textbooks in The Language Police: How Pressure Groups Restrict What Students Learn. She talked about the rhetorical power textbook publishers exert when telling authors what they may or may not write. She goes as far as to claim that textbook companies are no longer merely producing educational materials for students, rather they are imposing pedagogical approaches as well as setting negative and positive attributes for various groups (D. Ravitch, 2003a). Her claims continued a debate concerning whose history and what history is being taught in

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classrooms. Foster says, “Textbooks appear as gatekeepers of ideas, values, and knowledge” (1999, p. 253), this project team leadership acknowledged teachers as the gatekeepers of the sources they chose to use in their classrooms. As Chappell (2010) stated, “Although textbooks purport to be objective and factual, they are socially constructed artifacts presenting particular perspectives, interpretations, and activities for students”(p. 250).

Understanding that teachers who signed on to a TAH grant are open to new ideas and learning situations, it made sense for the TAH leadership team to promote the aims of using multiple perspectives a well as primary sources and historical thinking and inquiry as good teaching methods.

Primary Resources and Historical Thinking

If one buys into the thought that traditional history instruction failed to demand analysis, reiterated old interpretations and was irrelevant to students, or to the world in which they lived, then the New History movement of teaching not the facts of history, but the skills of the historian makes sense (Osborne, 1986-87). The TAH team leaders encouraged the use of primary sources such as: newspapers, maps, diaries, journals, photographs, ship manifests, letters, moving pictures, interviews, artifacts, etc. Primary sources have the potential of depicting an event as it actually occurred. Textbooks are secondary sources which are written by authors who have interpreted information from primary sources. According to Pappas, “ Using primary sources provides opportunities for students to reach their own conclusions about historical events,”… consequently; it is important for students to learn to evaluate primary sources for accuracy, bias, authority, purpose, and origin”(Pappas, 2006). Today, on the Internet if you Google ‘primary source

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analysis' over two million websites appear. Easily the first twenty or so are heavily used by teachers who help students understand the process from which they could review primary sources in order to make the best judgment about them as possible. There are strong arguments for having students use historical thinking skills (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Seixas, 1993; VanSledright, 2004; Wineburg, 2001;(Bain, 2006). "Historians make meaningful connections among facts, thus yielding more powerful analyses than simply identifying when events occurred, but students regularly trek across vast expanses in the textbooks, films, worksheets, and lectures and rarely stumble over the evidence that supports the evidence that they are encountering"(Bain, 2006, p. 215). This is something TAH team leaders wanted to rectify through using more primary sources in U. S. history classrooms.

When using primary sources, history becomes more than one fact after another; rather it becomes a story pieced together by evidence that has been analyzed and weighed. We know that "Historians have something very important to offer students which is neither the one big story, nor the recall of a common set of facts, but rather a way of using the traces of the past to construct meaningful stories in the present"(Seixas, 2002, p. 414). The TAH project team leaders encouraged teachers to use primary sources as a way of helping students not only think critically, but also to think like historians.

Another issue to address within historical thinking is 'presentism'. Wineburg contends that " 'presentism'- the act of viewing the past through the lens of the present- is not some bad habit we've fallen into. It is, instead, our psychological condition at rest, a way of thinking that requires little effort and comes quite naturally"(S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 19). Historical thinking "grants people in the past the benefit of the doubt by casting

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doubt on our ability to know them as easily as we know ourselves"(S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 22). "Mature historical knowing teaches us…to go beyond our brief life, and to go beyond the fleeting moment in history into which we have been born"(S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 24). Evidently, how historians read text appears to be very different from how students read text. "Historians largely read the source of the document before the document, viewing the text as human creations, but for some students, authors and their accounts were only loosely connected" (S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 77). Good teaching suggests that teachers train students to look to situate themselves as best they can in the era of the document or source in order to avoid using a 'lazy' mind. According to Seixas, "teachers' understanding and ability to use primary sources should be in the center of teacher pedagogical content knowledge"(1999, p. 311). Teachers are charged to not only "examine a document using a protocol that establishes credibility of evidence, but also to consider how useful, interesting, and readable such documents are for students" (Bohen, 1998). Good U. S. history teaching requires teachers to think like historians as well as "think" about how best to teach information. The multiple perspective or differing perspective aim emphasized in this TAH project tried to tell a much larger story than any one textbook could do or any one primary source could offer. The leadership team advocated finding several documents, texts, or other sources (paintings, journals, artifacts, monuments, etc…) from which students could use as evidence when reconstructing the past in their minds and to help students think critically about activities within the domains listed in the National Standard for History (social, political, scientific/ technological, economic, and cultural). Good U. S. history teaching promotes inquiry and decision-making.

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Memorization

Another format currently being emphasized is the memorization of discrete facts. Recitation and memorization are part of the larger high-stakes market of which we are currently living. Most agree that there are certain absolutes that students should probably know in order to chronologically frame events, but many history students have been forced to endure memorization of historical "facts" as their main focus in the history classroom because teachers insisted on this memorization (Adler, 1991; Barton, 2003; Cuban, 1991; van Hover, 2004; VanSledright, 2004; S. Wineburg, 2001a). Yet, this is but one aspect of U. S. history education. There is a definite need to have a base of information from which a class discussion could be held. Some educators find it very hard to get to the discussion and inquiries because their students are so lacking the basic underpinnings of American history. Nevertheless, the TAH team leaders stressed critical thinking and inquiry skills that cannot easily be measured by multiple choice tests and memorization of discrete facts such as dates and places.

At the present time, "most state standards and textbooks leave out the very questions or debates that stimulate historical inquiry and lead to advances in historical knowledge in the first place"(Bain, 2006, p. 215). The high-stakes testing that is currently in fashion does not allow students to excel in thinking for themselves. Cries for improvement from the general public were made and the Bush Administration interpreted these cries into the "No Child Left Behind" legislation which measures its success on standardized, high-stakes testing. Unfortunately, the bulk of testing is determined by a fact-based curriculum that leaves little room for inquiry. A report submitted by the American Council of Trustees and Alumni (ACTA) stated, "The top 55 liberal arts

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colleges and research universities were sampled during December 1999 and using many National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) test questions; four out of five seniors from the top 55 colleges and universities received a grade of D or F. They could not identify Valley Forge, or words from the Gettysburg Address, or even the basic principles of the U.S. Constitution (Neal, 2000). As disturbing as this is, perhaps these students could answer complex current event questions, but a fact after fact questionnaire will never speak to that issue. What counts as quality U.S. history teaching is currently being defined by a political agenda that emphasizes quantifiable testable measures.

Dewey said, “Examinations are of use only so far as they test the child’s fitness for social life and reveal the place in which he can be of the most service and where he can receive the most help” (1929, p. 37). Testing was never meant to place more value on a correct multiple choice item than on giving formative information to the teacher in order to continue helping the child move forward in his or her own learning process. Schmidt (2001) found that “International comparisons have heightened awareness of American texts and curriculum guidelines as a ‘mile-wide but inch-deep’” as cited in (Brophy, 2008, p. 40). Pure memorization and ‘mile wide but inch deep’ curriculum is not looked upon as good U. S. history teaching by historians or educators. Social Studies educator, Diana Hess advises that teachers address “ multiple and competing views about controversial political issues” and they “should be aired, fairly considered, and critically evaluated” (Hess, 2009, p. 6). The TAH leaders’ goal of using inquiry and historical thinking might prompt teachers and students away from memorizing factoids into a more thoughtful inclusive learning situation.

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Lecture

The use of lecture is also debated. On one end of the spectrum are laments that teacher-centered instruction gets no respect… "for most of the last century social studies leaders suggest 'teaching the child, not the subject' according to developmentally appropriate practices"(Schug, 2003, p. 95). Schug is not suggesting that teaching the child is acceptable. Some research for teacher-centered instruction spanning from years 1972 – 1996, by Admas and Engelmann (1996) found 87% of post treatment test score averages favored direct instruction, compared to 12% favoring other approaches (Schug, 2003, p. 96). According to Schug, "Teachers who favor teacher-centered approaches tend to focus on what content to teach, the sequence of ideas, the examples used, the demonstrations performed, the questions asked, and the students' responses, and they tend to be more interested in the details of instruction- all central components of effective teaching"(2003, p. 101). This research is convincing and holds a good argument for the practice of lecture.

Perhaps teachers use the lecture format because they can depend on mostly one source, the textbook, and it is a quick way of disseminating information. Many educators agree, in the right circumstances, lecture is necessary. Thornton explains, "There is a problem when lecture is overused. Most lessons in an instructional unit should feature some knowledge construction by students rather than compliance on someone else's completed act of thought"(Thornton, 2005, p. 82), and there are methods that lead to quality lecturing. According to Bower and Hilgard (1981), "While you are lecturing, you want to encourage top-down filtering and there are several techniques to facilitate this: set inductions, advance organizers, and selective attention"(Parker, 1993, p. 2). These techniques include a stimulating beginning, an explicit explanation such as 'tell them

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what you are going to tell them' and attention getters like, 'this is important, listen up,' in this manner students pay attention and hopefully acquire the content that is being presented.

Another method that is thought to be highly effective when lecturing is what Beihler and Snowman (1993) refer to as elaborative rehearsal. This is what we commonly refer to as chunking or connecting together new information with items that are already stored in long-term memory. As Parker notes, asking "Who can tell me how this relates to what we talked about last week?" is a most effective way to help students remember content (1993, p. 4). Other useful techniques are using lots of detail and making as many connections to other known material and imagery. "We tend to retrieve pictures better than words, and we tend to retrieve pictures with words attached to them better than pictures alone"(Parker, 1993, p. 4). Lecturing, therefore, is not discredited as a method. The TAH project leaders sought to present lecture in its most educative format using some of the strategies mentioned above as well as incorporating other styles of teaching within a class period.

Finally, in the following pages, I provided several TAH case studies and discussed some of the goals of each. None of these or other previous studies examined participant experience and/or perception of their involvement in the grant initiative. The studies did include such things as how the teachers viewed history or how they viewed themselves as teachers, and how they reflected on their lessons.

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Teaching American History: National View

Nationally, TAH programs varied in focus depending on the needs of the community, but the collaboration between historians, history teachers, and other cultural institutions (i.e. museums, historical societies) is a vital part of winning a TAH grant. Imparting historical content knowledge is essential as well as finding ways to take the content delivered by historians and make it meaningful to students via the classroom teacher. According to the federal guidelines, all programs must (1) deepen teachers' knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of traditional American history; (2) improve teachers' delivery of history content as a separate, academic subject; and (3) raise student achievement in history ("Teaching American history," 2010).

New York City

A few TAH scholars have already made some of their research available. For instance, the TAH *Voices of American Project* was a professional development program for New York City high school teachers from 2004 – 2007 (Brainin, 2008, p. 18). These teachers met six Saturdays each year at museums and historical societies. These meetings included lectures, tours, and workshops on pedagogical strategies. A key feature was a classroom lesson presented by a volunteer teacher within the framework of the *Voices of America Project*, an adapted model of the Japanese lesson study (Brainin, 2008, p. 15). This study model enabled teachers to systematically reflect about their own teaching, receive feedback, and then reflect again. At its conclusion, the participants reflected on questions including: What kind of teacher knowledge is essential to improve student achievement? How do teachers manage student misunderstanding? How do teachers decide what to teach, how do they represent it, and how do they question students about

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content? This project generated a number of outcomes. As evidenced by testing, teachers enhanced their content knowledge, students received high test scores, teachers increased their use of primary source material, they increased their ability to reflect on their own and their peers' practices, and they were able to adopt various practices, strategies and materials that they shared in many hours of collegial work (Brainin, 2008, p. 16). This, like the following studies, focused on outcomes using a positivist paradigm. This is typical of the current research about Teaching American History grants. Readers are left wondering, "How did the teachers perceive this grant?"

New Jersey

Conducted much like New York City's experience, Stein's research focused on the West Morris, New Jersey TAH grant, which held its summer institute at Princeton University. As a means of accomplishing the federal goal of providing teachers with content knowledge, helping teachers transmit that knowledge in the classroom, and improving history learning among students, the New Jersey TAH built content bridges. "Content bridges are content-rich approaches that re-format and transform the strong content message from the history professor into classroom usage at elementary, middle, or high school level. This bridge is the history content re-formatted for the classroom, not out-of-context pedagogy"(Stein, 2003, p. 183). This is completely acceptable as the federal guidelines allow for many different frameworks of pedagogy to be used as long as the content stressed traditional United States history and translated into higher student performance; whereas the NYC grantee used a Japanese Lesson Study framework focusing on reflection and teacher practice, the New Jersey Program concentrated on bridging the content from professor to classroom. The reader is left unsure as to how the

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teachers perceived this bridging and in what ways, if at all, did this professional development impact their teaching practice?

New Hampshire and Maine

Another TAH grantee, Supervisory Unit #56 in Somersworth, New Hampshire (including New Hampshire and southern Maine school districts), collaborated with the University of New Hampshire's history professors. This *History in Perspective Project* (HIP) included a strong technology component (Moyer, 2003, p. 186). It also provided books, substitute teachers, and per diems for participation, items which are commonly found in many TAH grant applications. They accepted twenty teachers per seminar (first come, first serve on e-sign-up) who were committed to reading about, thinking about, and discussing recent scholarship on a given topic in United States history. The culminating activity included a lesson plan and a shared activity that would engage students and challenge them to interpret primary and secondary sources (p. 187). "After eight events (six seminars and two summer institutes) this grant was able to service eighty-seven of a possible 120 teachers at least one time. Each seminar featured a three-member team from UNH consisting of an expert historian, a computer-based media specialist who was also a professional historian, and a social studies curriculum/instruction specialist" (Moyer, 2003, p. 188). This grant focused heavily on technology making sure to expose teachers to digital archives of primary source documents, directing them to new interactive tools, and providing them with instruction in the use of Internet-based software such as *Blackboard*.

The evaluation at the time of Moyer's publication showed that "all but six percent of participants had used primary sources with their students at least once, and they were

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often directing their students to relevant Internet sites during research. Eighty-two percent of the participants "agree" or "strongly agree" that the HIP project enhanced their ability to facilitate student use of Internet archives and primary source materials as well as revealing to students competing interpretations of historical events"(Moyer, 2003, p. 194). A large component of this grant was focused on the use of technology, whereas, New York and New Jersey programs had focused on reflection and on bridging content. Under the TAH umbrella, grantees are required to meet the federally mandated goals, but *how* they improve teacher knowledge, understanding, and appreciation; improve teachers' delivery of history content as a separate academic subject; and raise student achievement in history is decided locally ("Teaching American history," 2010).

Once again, readers are left to speculate how the teachers perceived this experience. For example, one can understand that eighty-two percent of the teachers agreed that the project enhanced their ability to facilitate student use of internet archives and primary source materials, but one cannot determine from this study what "drove" teachers to use primary sources or how teachers experienced this training, or if they felt led to continue using this practice and keeping up to date with technology once the grant was finished. These are questions that can better be answered through an ethnographic study.

Illinois

Another initiative in Waukegan, Illinois District #60, was in a high-need school district. The district collaborated with Lake Forest College and the Chicago History Museum. This program based its framework on Lee Shulman's work. Quoting Shulman, "It was key that content knowledge (knowledge of American history) was coupled not

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only with pedagogical knowledge (about teaching in general), but also with pedagogical content knowledge (how to teach history) in order to be meaningful"(Ragland, 2010, p. 1). This study included twenty middle and high school teachers. This program paid teacher stipends and gave professional development credit. One of the key initial findings was that teachers had not conducted historical analysis themselves. This lack of training in history meant that most teachers were not familiar with the work of historians and what it means to "do history." Ragland (2010) found "they did not view 'doing history' as work in creating history based on research with primary documents and artifacts. Teachers also made no mention of the use of teaching historical thinking skills. The majority of teachers also expressed little interest in or use of thematic approaches to history, primary documents, first person narratives, museum resources, or artifact analysis – all of which have been shown to be excellent practices for history instruction" (p. 3). Teachers had limited understanding of historians who see history as a dynamic entity, rather than a static body. The focus of this program was to train teachers how to analyze historically and how to do this with their own students. The limitations of this study were once again that the reader was left wondering how the teachers accepted this training, if at all, and how they felt about the process; how it changed their practice, if at all, and what their overall experience was like.

The TAH research currently available seems to convey a deepening of knowledge and all of this looks positive, but none of the research is focusing on the experience of the teacher. The studies cited thus far show that some schools need to strengthen certain areas whereas other schools need to begin with a conversation that defines history and the work of a historian. A study about teacher perceptions and experiences is important as it

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may indicate whether or not the teachers will continue to practice the skills or ideas that they learned during their involvement in the TAH project. A beauty of this grant is that once a school system receives the grant, it may determine locally the vital needs of that particular group of teachers and address them. One thing lacking in the current research is a descriptive data base.

Such is the state of the TAH program according to the current research. Teaching American history grants are coveted in this hard economic time. The mid-west project is described in chapter three, and it was able to write and offer a program of professional development that met all of the federal guidelines and intends to meet local needs of the school system and community involved in this work. Given the monetary dedication by Congress and the extensive commercial resources available such as the: Gilder Lehrman Institute, Organization of American Historians Distinguished Lecture series, and the Society for History Education, etc… as well as scholars who are willing to teach to teachers of history, there has never been more of a national effort to support the teaching of American history.

Courses of Action throughout the Nation

In conclusion, TAH grants' implementation varies greatly depending on the locality. Communities can set different schedules such as meeting on Saturdays, holding monthly workshops on weekdays, or a combination of both. They also offer summer institutes, some lasting one week and some two. Some programs have as few as twenty participants over a three year grant period and some have hundreds of participants. Some TAH programs offer teacher stipends, some offer college credit, and there is a host of differing amounts of support concerning books, technology, substitute teachers, etc…

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These types of issues are specific to each grant. The overarching similarities are, of course, the federal grant stipulations. All of the districts could benefit from the collaboration of historians, cultural institutions, and classroom teachers. As stated in Humphrey's 2005 report evaluating several other TAH grantees, "TAH projects did a remarkable job of building partnerships, creating an organizational structure, and subsequently offering professional development to tens of thousands of American history teachers. This is no small accomplishment" (Humphrey, 2005, p. 26). Collaboration among partnerships has been one of the strengths of TAH thus far. Of course, there are some weak projects and as distinguished historian and lecturer, Allida Black stated about her personal involvement, "Of eleven TAH initiatives, nine were wonderful experiences. It seems when the programs fail, it is as much the fault of the faculty as it is of the teachers and students" (2006, p. 17). TAH is a collaborative effort and it takes everyone working together to accomplish the goals each project sets forth.

This TAH project team hoped that teachers felt like active participants in determining change. There was an open forum of communication for reassessing local project goals and activities and for modifying them in light of project demands. For instance, in this Midwest TAH project, during Year I, there had been little time for debriefing with education professors after some of the workshops led by historians. Teachers made requests for more time to work with education professors in order to transform this new content into activities and ideas that would work at their students' grade level. The TAH team was able to reorganize the summer institute as well as schedules in Year II and Year III to include a space for this. The project team leaders were not expecting superficial changes, rather practice changing ones, and all team

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members were willing to adapt as issues arose.   In this study, I looked at not only teacher experiences with the grant and its aims, but also at the process of change and adaptation and how, if at all, this is included in the teachers' practice. "Teacher professional development is widely viewed as the most promising intervention for improving existing teacher quality"(Goldschmidt, 2010, p. 432).

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Chapter 3

Methodology

Teaching American History: A Midwest Project

This study sought to understand what actually happened over the years the grant was in place and how secondary and middle school in-service teachers underwent this learning experience. Focusing on pedagogical content knowledge as well as the teachers' own perceptions about their professional identity as history teachers allowed me to discover and contemplate issues as they arose. Four local aims have been stated for this project - the use of: primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry. These are the pedagogical initiatives that were to be encouraged within the content of U. S. history. This research noted how middle school and high school teachers perceived and made use of these aims along the way. When bringing all of the partners together to implement plans, teach teachers, and empower teachers to incorporate new practices and content into their classroom lessons, what exactly was happening? The next section of the paper addresses the project's goals, team members, how teams collaborated, how the work was divided, and who was responsible for what.

TAH Team

A teacher educator professor was the major facilitator in writing and obtaining the grant from which this study stemmed. The team met once a month for six months to flesh out the grant. The team included one local school teacher (also the chair of the history department at one of the schools), two education professors, one history professor, one president of the local history center, one technology person, one outside evaluator, and

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me, as project assistant. The project leaders have held monthly meetings ever since the grant's inception. Each member was in charge of his or her area of expertise. All members were equally committed to delivering a professional development that was second to none. This program was very much viewed as exemplifying the team members' lifelong passion and commitment to excellence in education.

Fortunately, at this university, there has been a good working relationship between the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education for many years. Though nationwide, this is not necessarily the case as Wineburg stated, "Federal dollars have coaxed reluctant historians out of their ivy-covered lairs to work side by side with middle school and high school teachers, often receiving pedagogic aid from teacher educators and other specialists"(2009b, p. x). Many historians guest- lectured and helped with the workshops. Author, Allida Black charged historians to "Teach teachers. Study them. Laugh and work on the cheap"(Black, 2006, p. 17). Even though money is obviously involved, historians were generally paid a pittance to speak and work with teachers. The guest lecturers, all renowned historians, received stipends of $500.00 per session in this Midwest project; thus, they were willing to work on the cheap. At this university, the Department of Curriculum and Instruction is ranked among the top ten in the nation, and participation by Professors of Education provided expertise in pedagogical content delivery. The History Center provided a venue for seminars, offered a state lens on U.S. history, and showcased primary resources. As project assistant, I worked closely with team leaders to maintain the overall logistics of the project, and as a researcher, I worked with middle and high school teachers to see how they experienced the grant.

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The TAH program had three goals as mandated by the federal government's initiative: (1) to deepen teachers' knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of traditional American history; (2) to improve teachers' delivery of history content as a separate, academic subject; and (3) to raise student achievement in history ("Teaching American history," 2010). This TAH project integrated four dimensions of instruction into the teaching and learning of history: thinking historically, utilizing primary sources, teaching big ideas, and posing multiple perspectives. Classroom observation protocols and rubrics for lesson plans have been developed partially based on Wineburg's five-dimension scale for thinking historically: sourcing, contextualizing, evaluating, analyzing, and questioning (S. Wineburg, 2009a).

Written within the grant application this Midwest TAH program also expected: (1) to develop and deliver high quality, enriching, engaging academic content and pedagogical knowledge for teaching American History to elementary and secondary teachers who will collaborate in cross-grade-level teams to create and implement outstanding units of historical study for k - 12; (2) to increase and improve the instructional time spent on U.S. history in elementary grades in order to heighten student learning and boost student achievement, (3) to develop and maintain an active website housing educational materials from the programs for participants and other teachers to utilize in their history teaching, and (4) to establish and sustain professional networks and collaborative efforts within the local school corporation and among college historians, educators, and local community organizations related to exceptional, enduring U.S. History instruction (Wilson, 2009). The local program goals were derived from the pre-

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assessment survey instrument. A three year plan was developed and accepted that advanced all aims and goals (Appendix A).

TAH Participants

Teachers of U. S history were given a pre-assessment survey as documented in chapter one. Twenty-four teachers participated in the grant in 2010-2011. Of these, fifteen were elementary teachers and nine were middle or high school teachers. Of the six teachers in this study, three were middle school teachers of which one teacher was a social studies major, one a political science major, and one a history major, and all are currently licensed to teach social studies. The other three teachers in this study were high school teachers of which two had majored in social studies and one had majored in history. All of the teachers wanted to gain greater content expertise in U.S. history in relation to their particular courses.

Setting

The 2010 census has not been finalized, so as of 2000 the population of this large Midwestern town stood at 69,291 people which includes the university population. There are 13,763 students in this county, of which 1,195 are in middle and secondary schools (Government, 2000). Depicting a community which generally values educative experiences, more than half of the population has earned a bachelor's degree. The town has all of the amenities of a city in that there are many cultural events, restaurants, street fairs and lecture series. The town is home to a large university, so when the school year begins, the town adds almost 40,000 people to its population. There are several large parks and lakes nearby and there is an easy-going outdoors type atmosphere in the town

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which supports bike paths, running trails, and a green environment. I have found the town to be very friendly toward its diverse citizens and guests.

We held most of the Teaching American History Workshops at the county's History Center. This center offered an auditorium, a kitchen, bathrooms, and small conference rooms in which we met. The History Center served as the setting for workshops, but the teachers' classrooms were the setting for observations of teaching of TAH lessons. According to Spindler, "For each social setting (i.e. classroom) there is prior (native) cultural knowledge held by each of the various actors: together these constitute a 'classroom' or 'school" culture'" (1997, p. 71). It was important to me to be in the teachers' classroom, thus, in their own school culture, and this is where I was able to spend one-on-one time observing the participants and their teaching practice.

All six participants were public school teachers within the same school corporation. The classrooms were arranged with student tables and chairs which could easily be grouped together if warranted. The schools were clean, well-kept and up-to-date technologically. Beyond the workshops, we also held week-long summer retreats, book talks, and field study trips. When we began this project, things were very different than they were just a year later. During the course of this research, the school system underwent a major budget crisis and more than forty teachers were riffed (reduction in force). The school system actually raised money from the community to be able to continue supporting the sports teams. The entire system also took upon itself a serious and extensive commitment to Professional Learning Communities (PLC), sending over 200 teachers to a week- long training during the summer. PLC has become a major initiative requiring much time upfront that the school system hopes leads to a change in

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the mindset of the faculty and students. Under the PLC model, students are to be held responsible for their own learning and teachers were to help a student learn no matter how many interventions it took. Commitment to this initiative was very strong. Some schools also had discipline plans that took an extraordinary amount of time speaking with each student about each issue until the student understood and could come up with a plan of action. Both of these initiatives included much more than what I have explained here and there were weekly as well as monthly meetings held for both of these initiatives beyond the school day hours. Along with the budget crisis and these initiatives, teachers had a hard time implementing it all while continuing to teach a full load. This was not a time to ask teachers to do one more thing. They were struggling to keep their heads above water, yet most teachers liked what was going on in the TAH project and appreciated being treated like professionals. They worried about getting much needed teachers back into the schools and how the budget would affect their students. The TAH grant was well-received as teachers thrived on the workshops and seemed to enjoy and take to heart the camaraderie as well as the content and pedagogy shared.

I used data collected from the beginning date of the grant project in August of 2009 through the spring of 2011. Throughout the 2009-2010 school year, these teachers were observed in their classrooms twice by me. These contact hours are in addition to the fifty-six hours spent with them that year at workshops, field trips, and other events. Beginning in the fall of 2010, I focused heavily on the six teacher-participants. These hours are explicitly spelled out in the following paragraphs of this chapter. The teachers have been given pseudonyms as have all people, places, and schools described in this study.

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Purposive Sampling

In creating the proposed study, I used purposive sampling, a major principle of grounded theory to select respondents (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The teachers had to have agreed to participate in the Teaching American History (TAH) project to be considered for this research project. I purposely sought those participating in the TAH grant at the middle and high school levels and asked who would be open and willing to work with a researcher about the TAH grant to help me learn how it might impact their teaching practices. After meeting and interviewing these teachers, I found six willing participants. These teachers had already volunteered to be part of a professional development that would enhance their content knowledge of U. S. history; therefore, these teachers were probably motivated to learn more about the teaching practices represented by the four aims of the grant as well as being open to new ideas and strategies. In short, they were "people of insight"(Merrian, 1998, p. 83); they were people who lived in the school climate and were self-motivated to improve their own teaching practice. I focused on how they perceived this grant's aims and the TAH project as a whole.

Key informants

Three high school teachers agreed to participate in this study: two males and one female. Their pseudonyms are Reid, Clint, and Emily. The three middle school teachers were all female, and are referred to as Kasey, Kerry, and Kristen. The following is a brief history describing as to how each person began his or her teaching career. First, I developed a small biography about each of the high school teachers.

Reid, a white fifty-plus aged male, had a first career in the military. He also spent three years in Saudi Arabia working for a private company. Eventually, he came back to

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America, and as he had a bachelor's degree in history with a concentration in Middle East Studies, he decided to attend college again to earn his teaching license and he began teaching high school social studies. At the beginning of this study, he had taught ten years. He holds certification in U. S. history, government, world history, and geography.

Clint was a thirty-something year old white male. He had wanted to be a sports broadcaster in high school, but he switched to education once he figured that the sport broadcaster jobs were few and far between. He was also the girls' softball coach at this high school. He was in his twelfth year of teaching when this study began. He is certified to teach U. S. History, Economics, Government, and Geography.

Emily, a forty-eight year old white female, had been teaching for twenty- five years. She was twenty-nine, married, and had a two-year old child before she earned her teaching degree and went into the classroom. She was certified to teach: U. S. history, Psychology, Sociology, and Geography.

The three middle school teachers in this study were all white females:

Kristen was in her early forties and had been teaching for eighteen years. She originally earned a bachelor's degree in political science and fully intended on becoming an attorney. As her college career progressed, she found herself more and more determined to work in the public schools, so she became a social studies teacher. She is also the curriculum coordinator for the school system, and she serves as a spokesperson for professional learning communities. She is licensed to teach 5 – 12 U. S. history, Government, Psychology and she held a Master's degree in School Administration for all grade levels.

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Another participant, , had originally wanted to be a doctor. Her father was a physician and her mother had been a teacher. She was in pre-med classes when she decided that was not for her. She then went into teaching and found social studies and English as her strengths. She didn't receive her teaching degree until she was in her thirties. She was in her seventh year of teaching when this study began and she was certified to teach English and social studies at the middle and high school level.

Kerry, a forty-something year old woman, was in her fourth year of public school teaching. She had a history degree and she had gone so far as "all but dissertation" in a history Ph.D. program early in her academic career. She was certified to teach World Civilization, U. S. history, Government, and French at the middle and high school levels.

All of these teachers participated in the grant since its inception and all had agreed to stay in the grant for the duration of the three years. They attended the retreats, workshops, book talks, spring conference, and summer institutes. All of these teachers voluntarily chose to professionalize themselves through this grant. My research focused only on teachers who applied and who taught U. S. history grade level courses of eighth and eleventh grades.

Data Collection

Sufficient time on site:

I was able to observe teachers until they began repeating their methods. The measure I used for determining sufficient time on site was to study long enough "to permit the ethnographer to see things happen not once but repeatedly….so that finally we learned nothing significant by their reoccurrence"(G. D. Spindler, 1997, p. 66). The rhythm of each teacher's practice became apparent before I stopped observing.

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According to LeCompte (1993), "Participant as observer enters into the social life of those studied, sometimes assuming an insider role, but often playing the part of a snoop, shadow, or historian-roles not normally found in the group but familiar enough to participants to allow comfortable interactions" (LeCompte, 1993, p. 94). Having been a teacher for many years myself, they accepted me as such, so I felt as a peer of sorts. They knew I was wearing more than one hat, but they seemed to talk with me as if I understood them on a teacher to teacher basis. I preferred to take a passive type stance even when I was a participant. Teachers didn't seem to notice the difference, but internally my focus was very different depending on my aim. I was always watching the teacher and his or her interaction with the students as well as mannerisms, actions, words spoken, voice tone, and facial expressions. In essence, I took a holistic picture of the teacher while he or she was at work. I tried to write the play as they enacted it.

In ethnography, one is always dogged with the realization that what is happening will never happen again (G. D. Spindler, 1997, p. 68); therefore, I tried exceedingly hard to take detailed field notes as well as audio record when possible. I have collected data from and about each participant and organized this data into folders labeled participant by participant. These folders contain eight or more individual documents that range from hours of transcriptions to hours of observations in the classrooms and written lesson plans by each teacher. Each participant had turned in six lesson plans following the TAH structure and each participant has been observed in the classroom teaching

I used an emic approach when focusing on studying school culture from the inside, understanding it as the members of the culture understand it, and I used an etic approach, when standing back and analyzing the data as a researcher (Gudykunst, 1996; Pike, 1967).

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I have developed a high level of trust with these teachers. As a participant as observer, I have spent over one hundred hours attending planned events with this group of teachers. I also spent one- on- one time interviewing, debriefing, conversing, and observing, which was explained in detail in the *data gathering* section. According to Spindler, "We start with the emic position, the view of and the knowledge of the native (teacher), and work our way to the etic, interpretive position. It is the interpretive product, however, that usually gets us into trouble with the natives (teachers in this instance) when they read it. Interpretation is a cultural translation influenced by our theories and models" (1997, p. 72), and is not necessarily the feeling or interpretation of the native.

Interviews

Before going into the classroom, I used a semi-structured interview protocol with each of the teachers to gain a sense of their teaching philosophy (Appendix C). These interviews took anywhere from one to two hours depending on the teacher and his or her comments. By using a semi-structured interview, I was able to probe deeper into the teacher's words when it appeared that I could gain more information. Some of these interviews lasted three sessions including a part I, Part II, and Part III about their own upbringing and teaching philosophy. The interviews were audio-taped and I transcribed them verbatim. I had access to three teacher-created lesson plans from Year I (2009-2010) and three lessons created in Semester I of Year II (2010-2011) of the grant which included one or more utilizations of the aims of this project which were to use primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, or historical thinking and inquiry. I used these written lesson plans to gain insight as to how the teacher perceived the aims of the grant and to how he or she planned to implement them in the classroom. After going over the written

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lesson plans, I held conversations with the teachers about their actual teaching of the lessons and how these had displayed the aims of the grant.. In this way, I could hear in the teachers' own voices about what they were trying to accomplish.

Observations

As a researcher-ethnographer, I was both a "participant as observer" when attending book talks, workshop lectures, and field study trips, and an "observer as participant" during classroom observations (LeCompte, 1993; Slavin, 2007). When I came into their classrooms to observe, I had more limited interactions with them than I did on field trips and such, and I rarely involved myself with the happenings in the classroom (LeCompte, 1993). I wanted to observe *how* the teacher taught and interacted with the students and content.

I included Year I and Year II observations of some of these lesson plans as well as up to five days or more of observations of lessons that were not specific to the Teaching America History grant. I scheduled with the teachers to observe each classroom for one consecutive week as well as two or more times during the fall and spring semester of 2010 and 2011 when they were specifically teaching TAH lessons. I already had two observations (approximately one hour per observation) from Year I from which to draw data followed by the hours spent in each classroom for the school year 2010-2011. . I spent at least one consecutive week in each classroom. I was also able to make random observations that took place outside of the scheduled one-week time frame. For instance, two of the teachers taught in a Red/White Block schedule, so they only met with a specific class of students every other day. For those teachers, I visited every other day for two to three weeks to be sure I could get a clear picture of those students and that teacher's

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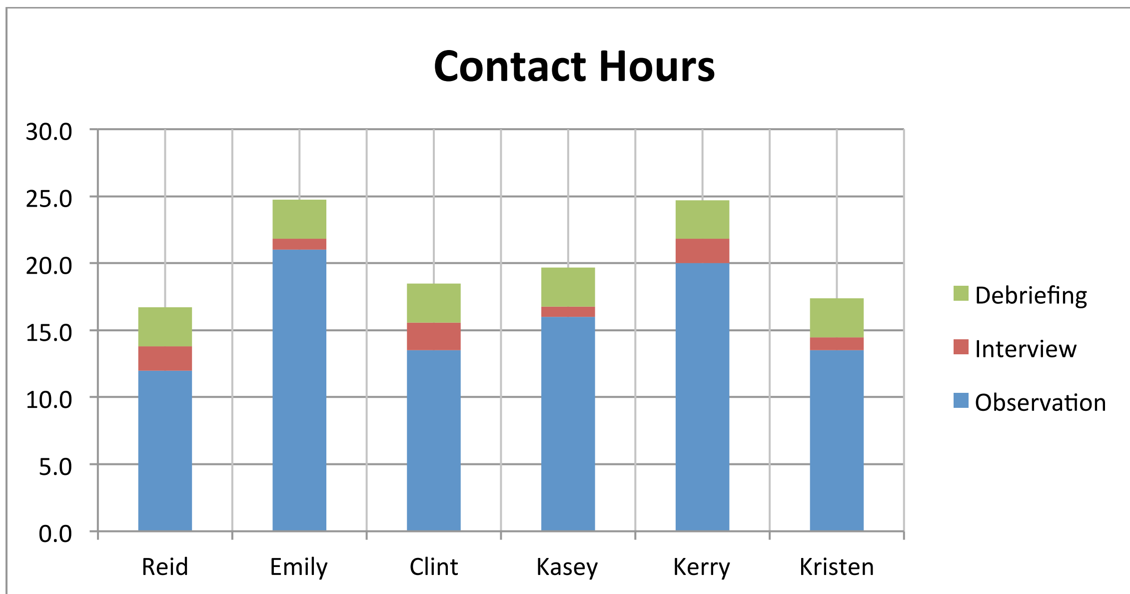
interactions. Out of the six teachers, only one teacher taught U.S. history all school day; all of the others either had half-day or less of U. S. history classes because they taught other subjects for the rest of the day. For instance, Reid taught geography first period, then three periods of AP U.S. history, and then ended his day teaching government. These differing schedules had to be worked out with all six participants so that I could visit as many times as possible during the fall of 2010. I was able to spend the same amount of time or more as if I had observed a teacher for five consecutive teaching days.

Figure 1. Contact Hours



Reflected on this chart are the hours of recorded observations, interviews, and transcribed debrief conversations. This chart depicts only the time spent in those three activities with the teachers during the 2010-2011 school year. Not reflected are all of the times I asked them questions about their practice or how the aims of the grant were working or not working when I saw them in the hall, the teachers' workroom, or at an event. Some interviews lasted longer than others due to the person's responses and

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observation times varied due to their teaching assignments and availability. Workshop, seminar, and field study trip time together (approximately sixty hours) gave me even more time with these teachers. The classroom observations were documented through rich field notes followed by transcription analysis.

I took field notes to document what happened as well as debriefed with teachers after each TAH lesson (this protocol follows and is labeled: post teaching interview). In the audio-taped interview, I tried to capture their thoughts about the lesson I observed. Teachers reflected upon their own teaching practices and how they incorporated the four aims of the grant, if at all. Teachers were asked to critically reflect and discuss the learning situation in their classrooms. These interviews were semi-structured, meaning that some questions were developed in advance with follow-up questions developed on the spot. Listed below are the interview questions asked after each observation.

Post-teaching Interview:

1. What did you plan to teach today, why?
2. What, if anything, did you do to address the aims of the teaching American history grant (e.g., thinking historically, utilizing primary resources, teaching big ideas, and/or posing multiple perspectives)?
3. What challenges, if any, did you face in the creation and implementation of this lesson?
4. How, if at all, has participation in the grant helped you find space to incorporate the aims of the TAH grant? (probes: big ideas, multiple perspectives, use of primary sources, and historically thinking and inquiry)

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Throughout this semi-structured interview, I looked for opportunities to expound on their thoughts, especially if they mentioned the use of primary sources, multiple perspective, historical thinking and inquiry or big ideas. I was also open to emerging themes and any topic on which the teacher wished to speak. The above questions were used to interview the teacher after each TAH lesson was observed. The questions below were more broad and reflective and were used at the end of the semester.

End of Semester Focus questions:

1. What, if anything, did you learn about the content of US history and your participation in grant activities?
2. What, if anything, did you learn about the teaching of US history from your participation in grant activities?
3. What, in your opinion, are the biggest benefits and/or detriments of participation in this grant?
4. What, if anything, is the impact of your participation in this grant on your teaching of US history in this high school?
5. How, if at all, has participation in this grant helped you find space to incorporate the aims of the TAH grant?

Field notes

I took take rich field notes at all workshops, book talks, and retreats. The three year plan including all workshops, book talks and retreats is found in Appendix A and Appendix B. Appendix A is thematic, whereas Appendix B is specific to the workshop speaker and the topic. These same activities can be found as future, current and archival

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materials on the website www.tahindiana.org . When taking thick field notes, I recorded speech acts, body movements, and body postures. I qualify inferences with terms like "as if," "appears to be," and "it seems." I recorded time frequently, contextual information, and kept some verbatim speech acts, and made use of "observer comments" throughout my field notes (Carspecken, 1996, p. 47).

Documents

I was able to use the teachers' lesson plans for analysis as they were supposed to be written to reflect using one or more of the aims of the grant. I collected lesson plans as well as worksheets, handouts, and anything else that went along with the unit I was observing. I also observed student work and took pictures of projects when possible. For instance, when studying Emily, I was able to collect her unit packets as well as criteria sheet and rubric she used to score her Living History projects and took pictures of the final projects (pictures included in Chapter 5). I observed this unit from beginning to end including the student presentations of their projects.

Data Analysis

This research involved six case studies presented in the form of qualitative description using ethnographical methods as its base. I followed through with the use of emic and etic concepts while continually playing roles as 'participant-observer' and 'observer-participant.' Although specific codes emerged, I began with the framework of the four local aims. I transcribed all audio-taped interviews, discussions, conversations, and workshops that were recorded. I then grouped these transcriptions into the four aims of the grant: use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical

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thinking and inquiry. I also developed emerging themes as they appeared and began forming categories and subcategories. The analysis consisted of scouring initial interviews, reviewing written lesson plans, observing and analyzing teachers in the classroom presenting TAH and non-TAH lessons, and analyzing field notes. I also analyzed the semi-structured background interview by reading and rereading transcripts gleaning philosophical statements, self-described teaching styles, the teacher's own educational background and anything else that might give me insight into each teacher's practice. I began categorizing these statements until I drew emergent themes as to that teacher's holistic philosophy about teaching. The post-teaching interviews at the end of each TAH lesson observations were an integral part of the analysis as the participants communicated the meaning that they gave to their actions. As researcher, I moved back and forth from my own interpretation to the participants' interpretations. Through this procedure, the participants had primacy in the construction of their reality. This study was concerned with the experience of the teacher and how the teacher perceived him or herself while moving through this grant**.**

There is no complete set of rules for ethnographic observation, but the validity and integrity of the research must be intact. The job is to find out what people think and feel as well as what they do (G. a. L. Spindler, 2000). "Researchers subjectivities are also essential to establishing and building the intimate relationships with participants that permit trust and confidence (LeCompte, 1993, p. 92). I feel I held a high level of trust among the teachers. Toward the integrity the "participant observer actually employs three methods, not one: participant observer (to describe incidents of which I do in Chapters 4 and 5); informant interviewing (to learn institutionalized norms and statuses of which I did

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to build teacher profiles found in Chapter 4); and enumeration or sampling (to document frequency data of which I did using constant comparison methodology)"(Jackson, 1983, p. 40).

Researcher Role

I decided to work with middle and upper level U.S. history teachers because of my own teacher experience with two previous Teaching American History grant projects as a high school teacher. I have a personal interest in U. S. history as I had taught it at the high school level for nineteen years and was aware of the problems associated with teaching social studies at upper grade levels as well as issues that arise during professional development sessions. Carspecken stated, "The more familiarity you have with the culture of your subjects, the closer your articulated meaning fields are likely to be to what actors themselves report" (Carspecken, 1996, p. 96). My experience as a classroom teacher as well as my established rapport with these teachers gave me this edge. I feel that I observed the classroom and debriefed with "insider" questions that came from my background knowledge.

A real challenge for me was to continually separate myself from practioner to researcher. As a former teacher I found I had to continually check that I was not over sympathizing and identifying with the participants. I strove to keep the research as true to life as possible; therefore, authentic to outsiders, as well as legitimate to the participants themselves (LeCompte, 1993, p. 96). I had to continually keep myself in check that I was a person with a vast amount of classroom knowledge, but that in this study I was trying to understand what *these* teachers felt and experienced through fresh eyes as a researcher.

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I understood that “Advocacy issues often revolve around the researcher’s peculiar stance as both insider and outsider. As outsiders we seek to document and describe the lives of people as dispassionately and fairly as possible. As insiders we seek to understand the lives of others from their points of view. This is inherently a schizophrenic task. We risk losing the outsider’s perspective by over identifying with participants, and we risk losing the insiders’ perspective by under identifying with them”(LeCompte, 1993, p. 97). I was able to separate myself by continually thinking that I must not become one of the people being observed, though from the outside I may seem to have become one. I charged myself to be the mouthpiece for the perceptions and the truths that these teachers experienced.

I was able to be in the natural setting of the teachers’ classrooms. I attended these classes in consecutive days when possible in order to gain a rhythm of the teacher’s practice. I was able to stay until teachers began repeating their methods. I also gave teachers voice when interviewing and debriefing. In some instances, I was able to observe months later to validate or disclaim what I had originally thought I saw and adjust my view accordingly. Teachers did introduce me to their classes, so students knew that I was from the university. I used parts of a list of criteria developed by Spindler for my own research protocol (Appendix D) (G. D. Spindler, 1997).

A main goal was to make the familiar strange. George Spindler said, “ The goal of every effective educator-that is, encouraging a state of mind in which one achieves a sense of distance and fresh perspective in relation to the situation or material under consideration-and it is also the ultimate goal of every anthropologist” (2000, p. 395). It was my hope to gain a fresh perspective from studying this ancient art known as teaching.

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There is a range of ways to do descriptive research and I chose to employ constant comparative methodology. In this study, I was an ethnographic researcher, coding and comparing data as an ongoing process followed by sorting categories which led to even richer and deeper connections between the emerged concepts.

The constant comparative method is understood by most qualitative researchers as essential. Renowned qualitative researcher, Barney Glaser said, "Constantly redesigning the analysis is a well-known normal tendency in qualitative research which occurs throughout the whole research experience from initial data collection through coding to final analysis and writing"(1965, p. 438). By using constant comparison, I was able to devote time to a small set of categories (big ideas, use of primary sources, historically thinking and inquiry, and the use of multiple perspectives) as well as keep an open mind for emerging themes. First I compared a single teacher to the aims of the grant, then I compared that middle school teacher to another middle school teacher and then and then another; I did the same for the high school teachers. I then compared all middle school teachers to all high school teachers. After coding for one participant and taking memos, I was then able to move to the next participant and do the same (Glaser, 1965; Merton, 1957; Strauss, 1998). I used memo writing, reading and rereading, coding and sub coding as strategies supporting the principle of comparison.

The constant comparison of categories was set into place throughout the research. Setting the four aims within the project from the very beginning led to my asking participants about these topics in the initial interviews as well as being aware of these aims in each observation and encounter. This is not to say that the research was limited to these four aims, only that an awareness of the aims was always present. I was always looking to

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see if participants chose to implement the aims or not, and if so, how. I wanted to see how these teachers experienced this professional development. Tesch expounds, "The main intellectual tool is comparison. The method of comparing and contrasting is used for practically all intellectual tasks during analysis: forming categories, establishing the boundaries of the categories, assigning the segments to categories, summarizing the content of each category, finding negative evidence, etc…"(Tesch, 1990, p. 96). In this study, I was looking for commonalities and differences in behavior. This sampling is reasonably homogeneous in that all participants were white middle class teachers. The aim was to develop a rich profile of each teacher and how he or she experienced the TAH project.

First, I compared a single interview to the aims of the grant. Second, I compared interviews within the same group (i.e. high school or middle school) and third, I compared findings between high school and middle school teachers. Next, the observations were coded and that data was analyzed as to how it fit together and supported the interviews. Finally, written lesson plans were analyzed and when these same codes emerged, then this information was added to the holistic picture of the participant. Each participant has his or her own analysis as to the aims of the grant and how they perceived and experienced this project as a whole.

For example, if one piece of information was labeled 'use of primary source', then I studied the interview for other fragments that were coded the same. When a reference was made to 'primary source' then it was marked and compared in order to find new information about this category and determine whether the same information was repeated. The reference was further compared to other participants' experiences in this

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category and aspects were derived that were common or different within the category. Triangulation of data (observations, interviews, written lesson plans) was used to complete the picture, either confirming the previously analyzed data or casting doubt on it.

The setting allowed for an empirical study by placing me in the milieu of the school environment along with all of the students, teachers, subjects, bells, pep sessions, field trips, and announcements. As I observed these teachers, it occurred to me how many things were going on in the school setting each day. It was not my plan to measure success, rather to examine significant ideas and emerging themes that others might find useful, focusing on what teachers *think* makes great U. S. history teachers. As in the tradition of qualitative research, this research is intended to inform and explore the TAH project through my own immersion into the field, in all its richness and complexity, attempting to keep an open mind and to use a flexible approach to collecting the information. I tried to gain an in-depth understanding of purposively selected participants from their perspective (Patten, 2000; Slavin, 2007). This research contributes to work that has previously been written about TAH grants and its participants (Black, 2006; Brainin, 2008; Moyer, 2003; R. G. a. K. A. W. Ragland, 2009; Robinson, 2009). The grant allowed teachers of all grade levels into the program, but this study focused on three middle school and three high school teachers of U. S. history.

Limitations of Study

Certain limitations of this study should be acknowledged. Like all qualitative studies, the challenge of avoiding bias as a teacher myself was examined. I passionately taught high school students and I know that not all teachers work from that space. I acknowledge my background could influence my research and I also understood that my

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presence in these teachers' classrooms may or may not have influenced how they taught while being observed. I was committed to keeping an open mind and recognizing the possibilities of judging or evaluating these teachers on the basis of my own teaching career. I continually asked myself, "What is my emotional investment in this?" and "Am I allowing themes to emerge without regulation by me?" The limits from my own experiences had to be kept in check. "We are always re-presenting experiences through text or other media. In this sense all research is fiction, yet it is not the same as fiction. Researchers strive to tell a story from evidence whereas creative writers have a license to play, distort, and ignore evidence"(Cousin, 2010, p. 10). I strove to tell this story from evidence.

There are also limitations to the study topic itself. First, the proposed sample does not represent teachers across the nation as these participants are in the Midwest and voluntarily agreed to enhance their teaching practice by participating in a TAH grant. The results from this study may not be applicable in other settings or even for different participants in the same setting. The teachers were categorized as either high school or middle school teachers, male or female, and all were white, and all were between 30 and 65 years old, having taught between three years and twenty-five years at the time of writing. Thus, although the participants in this study shed light on experiences and changes that occurred for them during this professional development, and in such a way help educators of teachers understand how these teachers experienced this TAH grant, this experience cannot be transferred to teachers in general. Rather this study could be used in conversation to provide data about teachers' perceptions and actions in regards to an

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innovative Teaching American History project and about what mattered to teachers and what teachers said.

While realizing the limitations of this study, the findings have important implications for consideration in professional development of TAH grants. This study is rich in meaning and in describing what counts to teachers. Perhaps the study informs us that we tried to do too much, or that we tried to do too little; that teachers felt supported and secure, or perhaps they did not feel supported or secure; or that other factors surrounded the effect of this grant, or even that they felt this grant had no effect at all.

Conclusion

This study is an interpretive study which focused on the grant as experienced by these teachers. Taking place in the middle and high school, the study sought to examine questions such as: How did teachers experience the Teaching American History project as a professional development?; How did teachers, if at all, perceive and implement the teaching strategies associated with the four aims of this grant: use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry?; What did it mean to teachers to teach quality U. S. history?; and How did the participation in this grant impact teachers' thinking and teaching, if at all?

This in-depth study followed three high school and three middle school teachers throughout a year and a half of professional development participation in a TAH grant in order to gain a greater sense of how teachers experienced such a pursuit. This study contributes to the conversation about the teaching of history, in general, as well as the Teaching American History grant projects specifically.

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Chapter 4:

Let Me Count The Ways: The many different ways in which U.S. history teachers chose to teach their students

In this chapter, I discuss the thoughts and actions of each of the participants recorded during their local TAH project. These records reveal the histories, passions, and personalities of each person, which greatly affect their teaching styles and methods. While spending time with the participants, themes that resonated again and again became apparent. While all the teachers had an obvious interest in history, it was manifested in many different ways. In the following pages, the three high school teachers are discussed first, followed by the three middle school teachers in the study. All of the teachers were observed independently from each other, yet each of the teachers attended the same workshops, seminars, and field study trips. I liken this to the rearing of children, where all are reared in the same household, with the same food, routines, expectations, yet all turn out very differently. We sometimes wonder how this can be so, and perhaps we should stop expecting sameness. People are individually different in families just as teachers are individually different in cohorts. The teacher-participants discussed below are Reid, Clint, and Emily as high school teachers, and Kasey, Kerry, and Kristen as middle school teachers.

Reid

Background

As Reid put it, he “logically decided to become a high school history teacher” ("Reid", 2010a). This had not been his lifelong dream or a calling, but he claims to enjoy

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his teaching career. He feels obligated to do the most he can for young people. He said, "I knew what I wanted to do from 6th grade on and that was join the army and I did that for twelve years, and then I knew teaching was always in there because as an undergrad I remember taking education classes. Getting a teaching license was not an epiphany; it just seemed like what I should do" ("Reid", 2010a). He didn't appear to have any lifelong dream of becoming a teacher, but no aversion either. He was in his eleventh year as a high school teacher and he viewed himself as a mentor and a teacher. During my initial interview with Reid, he told me that teaching history was a natural fit for him. He said, "I have a love of history. I like the idea of duty or that it is a kind of service in a way, much in the same way that I had a calling for the Army"("Reid", 2010a). Reid explained a scenario that he told his students each year: "I tell the students about plagiarizing and cheating on a test, and say "You get an 'A,'so what? Two years from now when you are sitting in your dorm room at Harvard and you meet your roommate; is it going to be a big deal that you got an 'A' in AP U.S. history? Hopefully not, but it would be a big deal if you could look at yourself and say, 'I have always done the right thing; I have always been honest and had integrity'"("Reid", 2010a). Reid felt mentoring students to be honest decent human beings was part of his calling. As I explored what appealed to him about teaching, he explained, "I have a knack for history and I am kind of a good story teller"("Reid", 2010a).

He was very much the story-teller and the keeper of knowledge of which he imparted to his students. He displayed an almost entirely lecture-based teaching style. He appeared to be reflective about his teaching practice as I recall a conversation in which he pondered why one class as a whole did so much better than another on a test, when he had

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taught them basically the same thing (Ables, 2010c). He genuinely tried to figure this out in order to improve his teaching practice.

Storytelling through lecture

Reid began class many days with “Welcome back everyone!” followed by “What did you think of the reading? Did you find the reading interesting?” A student would answer, which led into the next set of questions, “Anything else you noticed?” he asked the class. He followed immediately with, “What *type* of history is this section?” then leading the class on, “This is a history of *What*?” and he let students fill in the blank. Students shouted, “Culture” and “Social”("Reid", 2010b). Reid was delighted. He definitely set a tone of high expectation about his students completing their reading assignments. He told me that he spent days building the foundation of history that emphasized larger trends and movements found within time periods. Throughout a class period Reid occasionally asked, “Does anybody have any questions over the reading?” and sometimes students did. For example, when talking about the Great Awakening one student asked, “Why did so many women join the church?” Reid answered “To talk about that you have to go back to England….”("Reid", 2010b). He then went into a lengthy but interesting story about women in England. He walked up and down the aisle and spoke on the topic of the *Great Awakening* and social mobility for about a half an hour. Another day, I observed a lecture about *Mercantilism* that went much the same as the lecture about social mobility. At each observation Reid had a pre-set lecture in mind. He talked about aristocracy and asked one of his rhetorical questions, “In New England, what was the problem?” followed by his answer which included, “Well, no Dukes came over to America, so no natural born leaders were in New England” ("Reid", 2010b). I could see

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students thinking about this as he moved on from the topic of social mobility to social institutions. While on this topic, he referred to a specific passage in the textbook chapter and women's issues about power, property, and divorce. He called their attention to a specific page in the book and students were scrambling to get out their books. As the students looked through the pages, Reid quickly reiterated certain points made throughout the past few days.

Reid calls his lectures "storytelling". When I asked Reid to describe his teaching style he said, "I am big on telling a story and trying to personalize it. I love bringing out the role that regular people play in history. It is kind of storytelling and it is also a lot of lecture and discussion"("Reid", 2010a). Another example of his storytelling was when one day after a quiz review, he told a very gory story about hangings and the students were genuinely enthralled in the story. This story led into a lecture about Salem.

"Integrating the story"

Reid spent the first few days of the semester talking about all the variations and interpretations of U.S. history and how one could look at it from different viewpoints. Reid was emphatic when he explained to me that he "… may not teach multiple perspectives in the traditional sense as I don't say, 'Hey, let's look at how white folks have mistreated the Indians or African-Americans or women,' rather I integrate the story. I talk about American exceptionalism and how it had gotten to the point to where American exceptionalism taught that we were exceptionally bad, that we [United States] didn't get anything right, but then he asked, 'How did we get here?' and he answered, 'it was because we used to teach of nothing but how great we are as Americans and then it swung to the other side, so now I teach in the middle, and it is a more balanced

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understanding that is still not complete, because some authors will focus more on one thing than another, but this is what we have. Instead of saying today we are going to talk about Black people, I like to integrate it and make it all part of the whole story. What makes history fun is there is no set answer' "("Reid", 2010a).

He sometimes began lectures with, "It is my interpretation that…." and as I asked him about this, he told me that he really "hits interpretation strong when starting a new year, so that students understand that all people have bias, including him". The current event of the day was about the possibility of a mosque being built at Ground Zero. Reid expounded, "There is not a simple solution…this is about sacred land, freedom of religion and tolerance. It does not protect you from feeling bad, whether it is from the left or from the right"("Reid", 2010b). He didn't hold back his opinion or knowledge from his students.

"How to look at history"

In one of our conversations about his classroom, Reid said, "We spent a lot of time talking about *how* to look at history and ideas like *presentism*"("Reid", 2010b). He was concerned with contextualizing material so his students could think about issues more closely aligned to how they were thought about in different time periods. He began, "Name a famous Chinese explorer," and no one answered. He followed with, "Well, the Chinese sent out explorers and they reached the coast of Africa, but when they returned they reported that every place they went was full of inferior people and inferior civilizations, so they burned the boats so the people would be unable to leave because everywhere they had gone, people had been inferior" ("Reid", 2010b). He followed that story with an explanation, "That's human. It is not confined to one group or another; it is

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human to believe others are inferior and when we study history, we study differing perspectives"("Reid", 2010b).

"You have to know why it happens"

Even though Reid possessed a massive amount of content knowledge, he referred to the textbook many times when teaching his AP U.S. history course. He said that the textbook provided a common frame of reference for all of the students, and he assigned a reading, and a check for understanding section, and then he added through lecture to what they had read. Even though he used a textbook extensively, he seemed to be very intentional about bringing up multiple perspectives and social history aspects. He asked the students, "What were things like for the Yeomen?" and he followed that with an explanation that "With the old textbooks, we wouldn't have spent so much time studying social history, but this is an important one to see." As he continued his story, "In Chesapeake Bay, education would not have been stressed" and then as with the previous explanation said, "If you know these social trends, then you can answer a specific question about it"("Reid", 2010b).

He obviously felt an obligation to these students and to their preparedness to be able to pass the AP U.S. history exam at the end of the year as he related a lot of information back to the test. He also talked to the students about direct quotes and remembering what they had read and he referred to the textbook chapter twice within the first five minutes of this lecture. As this class continued, he quite intentionally moved from topic to topic asking, "Why would the *Great Awakening* occur at this time and place?" Then, encouraging them to think, "What else was happening?" Once again, he was setting a tone.

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He continued, “Come AP test time, you are going to be asked about movements and events that we never ever touched on, yet by understanding social history, you could get an answer”("Reid", 2010b). So Reid not only felt that trends were important concepts, but he explicitly teaches his students test-taking strategies. As Reid went over the correct answers on a quiz, students listened intensely as he spoke generously about the significance of the questions and how to approach test-taking. He emphasized that they had to make the connections in history: “You have to know why it happened, it happened, and what happened as a result”("Reid", 2010a). Reid did re-teach topics which students had not answered well.

Time Constraints

Reid lamented, “I like to grade the tests by hand because it gives me immediate feedback about what they missed and I can write comments to them. I get a sense of where they are. The time it took was worth it to me to see what they are doing, but now that is not going to be the case. I can’t do close to a 100 of them like that”("Reid", 2010b). As noted in Chapter three, this school corporation experienced a reduction in force of many teachers making it a necessity to raise the number of students in each class. Reid wanted to continue teaching in the manner he found most effective, but because of sheer numbers of students, he doesn’t feel that he will be able to do that. He taught three AP U.S. history courses at his high school which included over one hundred students, not counting his other two classes (geography and government).

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Clint

Background

Clint's father had been an educator and his mother was a stay-at-home mom. Clint had been to pre-school and remembers the teacher being very impressed with his math skills. He grew up with a love for sports and early on, wanted to be a baseball player or sports announcer. In college he discovered that he was really good in social studies courses and he decided to teach.

"Making Real-life Connections"

Whereas Reid defined himself as a storyteller, Clint defined himself as a lecturer doing "three shows a day"("Clint", 2010). Clint described his teaching style when he stated, "I am a performer…creating my own stuff"("Clint", 2010). Clint began every class with a *What Happened on this Date* presentation. The categories were sports, births, deaths, holidays and observances. He spent a lot of time on these dates as he has not only presented fun facts, but also images per topic of people or events of which he spoke.

He also made history personal and relevant to his students time and again. For example, while showing *The Patriot* his guiding questions for that film were: What would you do if they destroyed your home and threatened your family? Where would you draw the line? Clint continually related history to the students' personal lives.

He also made history relevant by making past to present connections. For instance, when lecturing about the Second Bank of America, he related that to how the economy is today and how it is pretty bad for some folks. He was concerned that his students not only learn history, but have real-life knowledge about topics. He also said

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that he intentionally said certain things during this class period to set up for later connections to the Great Depression.

During my observations, I was able to see Clint teach an entire unit about the Civil War. He told students, “The Civil War is so fascinating,” and asked them, “Why in the world would a nation would go to war against itself?” The kids listened. They fed off Clint’s energy and interest. He talked about a missing cannon and how people look for it yet today. A student brought up ‘Geocache’ and how you get hints to find the cache, so that student connected the similarity of hunting for an item today with the hunting of the missing cannon from the past. That is exactly the kind of connection that Clint wants his students to make. Another day, Clint also gave a nice analogy that students could relate to when he said, “If you got yourself a fancy new car and you really really worked on it, you wouldn’t use it because you might be afraid that you would hurt it; that is what McClellan did. He built this marvelous army, but he was afraid to use it! He continued with his lecture and interjected as a PowerPoint slide displayed one of the generals with a beard, and said, “The Civil War was the greatest facial hair war of all times”(“Clint”, 2010), students were engaged and laughed with him. Clint consistently threw in silly one-liners every couple of minutes.

Clint is not only a lecturer; he is also a little Leno, Conan, and Letterman. He used PowerPoint throughout all of his lectures and when a picture of Zebulon Pike was shown, he commented, “I might name my kid Zebulon Pike, especially if it is a girl.” Kids laughed and they shared a moment of humor and then continued immediately with the lecture. He used his voice to really guide much of what happened in the classroom. As he continued with his lecture, he said, “Washington leaves after two terms… Whyyyyy?”

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("Clint", 2010), and students immediately chimed that Washington didn't want to be a king. Clint never missed a beat and continued on. He wove a story with intentional points made throughout his lectures, and he kept the mood entertaining as he used humor and relevance throughout his teaching.

In the moment

As Clint continued into a lecture about the Lincoln-Douglass debates, he had his students think about how people had to meet in this time period at a particular place and how debaters had to stand and talk loudly in order to be heard. Once again, these students are native to the Internet and meet there and listen to political candidates on-line, so Clint reminded them that is not at all how it used to be. Clint confided to me about this dilemma, he said, "We try to put our own thought process in the way they thought in the 1800s, but we can never completely do that"("Clint", 2010). Clint was aware of *presentism* and he addressed it.

Clint lectured about the National Road as part of Manifest Destiny with a nice mixture of factoids, maps, and photos. He asked the kids, "What is destiny?" and students called out what they thought. He used their input to further explain this concept (Ables, 2010a). Other days I observed Clint were very much like the ones already described. He started the class period grounding them in the events of *What Happened on this Date* and moved into a lecture with a PowerPoint presentation.

As Clint delved into the story of John Brown, he talked about different interpretations and he expounded, "America is not perfect, but not evil; the same with people, not perfect, and hopefully not evil either" ("Clint", 2010). Clint time and again made U. S. history more than history; he made it a general learning situation about life,

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whether it was about how banks worked, debates then and now, or about the concepts of destiny or good and evil.

The finale of this unit was one of Clint's favorite activities: Marshmallow War. This was a simulation of weaponry used in the Revolutionary War compared and contrasted to the improvements of weaponry available during the Civil War by throwing marshmallows. Clint went into great explanation about how far apart students must stand, and procedures such as closing one eye during the aim and throwing with a non-dominant hand to depict Revolutionary War accuracy of weapons. Then to simulate Civil War accuracy, students kept their eyes open, used their dominant hand and aimed. His greater goal was to get the kids to understand the very high casualty rate in the Civil War as compared to the Revolutionary War in large part due to the major improvements in guns. Students enjoyed this simulation as they got to die dramatic deaths while learning. Clint placed his students in the moment.

Figure 2. Marshmallow War 1

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Figure 3. Marshmallow War 2

Marshmallow Wars: Weaponry from Revolutionary War to Civil War

On the topic of canals, he had students imagine what it would be like to dig a canal from this town to another city about 50 miles away and the students groaned. As he explained the steamboat and its ability to go up river, he emphasized the tremendous change this made for our country and students seemed to get it.

"History Isn't 'Just Read this Book'""

Clint incorporated primary sources into most of his PowerPoint presentations. He didn't use primary sources for the sense of inquiry, rather to accentuate his storytelling. For instance, he showed a painting that depicted "The Prophet" in a battle and pointed out various items in the painting to expound upon their importance. Later, he showed a political cartoon slide from that time period, and he explained it to the students. Next, he showed a photo of the White House today beside an image of the White House that had corner burn marks from the War of 1812. The students looked at both images and compared and contrasted them. There was a discussion about what they saw differently in these pictures, but no discussion about the authenticity of the images or why they would

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have been taken. Later during this lecture Clint showed a picture of a prison ship at Fort McHenry where the *Star Spangled Banner* was written. He told students that Francis Scott Key was on the prison ship trying to get a friend off of it when the battle started. Again, as a storyteller, he told fascinating information that kept the student's interest. Clint continually threw this type of information into all of his lectures, and freely used primary sources to shore up his lectures and keep students interested.

During another lecture, Clint showed a picture of Andrew Jackson as hero and he acknowledged that "it probably didn't happen this way," getting kids to question the depiction of this image. He told them, "Remember there was no twenty-four hour news cycle, so others at the time think, 'Wow! Jackson is really cool.'" In this manner, he encouraged students to question versions of truth and how the time period and the context of the situation played into the history that is remembered. Both Clint and Reid have a high level of content knowledge and are able to tell story after story about many time periods in U.S. history. During an interview with Clint, he stated , "History isn't just 'read this book and that is all there is'…it was a normal day, like any other day, and then something happened and Wow! So even a mundane thing can turn into a major historical event that any one of us could be in, and history is telling that story! When you tell a story, it is never the same story twice and I think that happens with teaching the way I do"("Reid", 2010a).

"Starting with the Textbook"

Like Reid, Clint used the textbook as a starting point to get basic information for the lecture. They also both conceded that such a condensed version of U.S. history was missing different viewpoints, but if it included all viewpoints it would include volumes of

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reading. Clint said that the textbook was " handy and a good source to get the ball rolling, and that it sickens him that people want to take certain things out because it makes us look bad…like the triangular trade…we should include everything that happened…the idea of leaving things out because we don't want to talk about it is ludicrous" ("Clint", 2010). He acknowledged that he, like Reid, informed students that "the winners tell the story."

Reid and Clint agreed in the need to inform the students about 'versions of history' though Reid claimed vehemently that he believed in integrating history and not having a black history or women's history section; whereas, Clint didn't speak about that at all.

"Teaching is Coaching"

Clint dominated his class through a question and answer type lecture with heavy emphasis on disseminating information through PowerPoint. He knew his subject matter very well, and he was very confident with his content knowledge. Even though Clint was an avid storyteller, he also weaved present to past connections in his lectures; thus, appearing to have a heart for relativist/reformer activities. He said, "Teaching is coaching and coaching is teaching, just with different clientele and different subject matter"("Clint", 2010). He described himself as doing standup comedy, three shows a day (block scheduling). When conversing with him, he brought his thoughts to the students' needs again and again. He was concerned that his students not only learn history, but also have some real-life knowledge about their topics.

I observed that six students had dropped their heads down during class so I asked him what he thought about that and he said, "I tell them they are big boys and girls now. I treat them like grown-ups, so after the first test when they don't do so well, I say to them 'how about starting to pay attention?' I am not their mother, and if I go pat them on the

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back, how long would that last?"("Clint", 2010). Clint's desire to teach them a life lesson about decision-making is apparent in his philosophical statement. Clint acknowledged he "fully knew that there were kids that don't learn well the way I am doing it, but I can sell this. If someone else came in to try and lecture, they might not be able to sell it like me"("Clint", 2010).

Emily

Background

Emily has lived in this Midwestern town all of her life. She knows everyone and everyone knows her. She said she believed in weathering changes, not complaining, and being thankful for having a job. Her father had been police chief and her step-mother was a stay-at-home mom. She has three siblings and she said that valuing education as well as obeying parents and doing what was expected were norms for her growing up.

"Generating Thinkers"

Emily taught very differently than either Reid or Clint; whereas they were both storytellers of sorts, Emily was inquiry-oriented. Emily told me, "I want to generate thinkers"("Emily", 2010a) as being one of her main goals in teaching. She planned a variety of lessons using different teaching styles every day. She either had a handout waiting for students to pick up or a question on the board that needed to be answered as the students entered the classroom. She prepared and organized all her materials well ahead of the class time.

Her most favored teaching style is through the use of inquiry and she has incorporated the use of primary sources into nearly every lesson. Unlike Clint, she didn't

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use primary sources to support her lecture, rather she used them to encourage open-ended thinking. For example, when starting the unit on the early 1800s, she introduced the time period with the Lewis and Clark journey. She paired the students and had them brainstorm about what it would require to take such a large trip. The discussion was rich and interesting and students listed all sorts of items such as: dried food, medicine, weapons, repair materials, jerky, whiskey, and more. After this brainstorming session (about ten minutes), she conducted a mini-lecture using PowerPoint stressing the point about how no one really knew what was in the frontier. She placed the students in the time period through scaffolding questions that went with the lecture. The class then went to the computer lab to take a virtual journey with Lewis and Clark. This particular website had many journal entries and primary source materials such as maps and journal entries that students read in order to choose their next move in the journey. There was a lot of student choice on the website and students had to interpret primary documents in order to make decisions that affected the path of their journey.

Emily explained to me that she intentionally used this website because it was based on primary sources and historical thinking. She said that the *Living History Park* project featuring Native Americans was the culmination of this unit. She found it challenging to get kids to understand the setting of Lewis and Clark in America *and* that all the while the Great Awakening, a surge of utopian ideas, transcendentalism and anti-transcendentalism efforts were going on too. She noted that before being involved in the TAH project, she would have just lectured on utopian societies, the Great Awakening, etc… but now she felt compelled to have the students read primary sources pertaining to these events emphasizing other big events occurring at the same time in the nation.

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One of the days spent preparing for the *Living History Park* project required students to research in the school library. Emily had reference books already collected and she asked student groups, “What are you thinking?” and “What are you going to build?” I recorded her work with one group and it went like this:

Emily: What group did you choose?

Students answer: Pueblo

Emily: Do you have a book?

Students answer: Yes

Emily: Are you going to use clay or mud?... maybe put some grass in it to hold its shape…

Students talked about their design

Emily: You could use legos…I will show you a book about Pueblo Indians and their dwellings (Emily retrieved several books and returned to the group) She said, “Here is a small book, and I have this one that can be checked out, and here are some other pictures, so this may help… remember don’t use the other closely related tribes, only the Pueblo.”

Students discussed their tribes again ("Emily", 2010b)

Emily stayed in their midst listening and after a few more minutes, she named some important people in the tribe and told the students where they could find biographies. She also explained a bit more about ceremonies and that corn was sacred to this tribe. She finally said, “I just wanted to make sure that you were okay with this.” She went to the next group and the process began again. Her care and concern for her students’ learning was evident.

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On the day of the *Living History Park* presentations students struggled to address all of the points on the rubric that they had been given before designing their presentations and Emily gently nudged them on with a smile. At the end of the presentations, Emily asked each group, “Did you like doing your project instead of writing a paper?” and “Did you learn something?” and “Did you have fun?” Students’ responses were positive. It appeared that she valued their desire to learn as important as what they learned.

Another observation that is typical of Emily’s teaching style follows. On the board Emily had written: Our society is not perfect, so think, if you could change anything, what would you change? She let the class read the prompt and then instructed, “Think about what you would change and then write it on the board and put your initials by it.” A lot of students went up to the board immediately. The students were talkative and excited. Emily then allowed students to speak about the changes they proposed. After about fifteen minutes, she moved the topic into the time period of Manifest Destiny and the great changes that were being made in society during the 1830s. This exemplifies Emily’s teaching style as one that is continually concerned about student interest as well as inquiry using the open-ended question technique. She checked for their understanding and guided them to materials that could help them.

“Put Yourself in their Place”

On the day that she introduced Manifest Destiny, she had four statements on the board and students had to *Agree* or *Disagree* with the statements. This exercise got students thinking about the time period; thus, supporting her inquiry style of teaching. She also used primary source paintings and asked open-ended questions such as: “What about slavery?” and “What are we going to do when new states come in under the

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Northwest Ordinance?" Students pondered what it would be like to live in that time period and how it would feel to move across the continent. She told students, "These people are a product of their time; I don't know how I would have felt, so put yourself in their place"("Emily", 2010b). She asked students a rhetorical question, "When we think about groups and their ancestry, are you as a white person still living in a log cabin making soap? 'No,' so do not hold Native Americans in that light, their culture changed just like the whites did ("Emily", 2010b)." She was adamant that students understood that cultures are not static.

Students created 3-D exhibits depicting a specific Native American tribe. This project is referred to as the *Living History Park*. The packet she passed out to them required that as designers of the park, they would create a visual model of life for their selected civilization. Factors to consider were: geography, subsistence strategy, government, warfare, religion, arts, family structure, gender roles, housing, clothing, major events, stories, population, and anything else they deemed relevant. They also had to give a brief account of the tribe's current status. She not only expected that they realized that Natives did not act as one culture, but she taught them that there were hundreds of different tribes and within a tribe there could be subsets of the tribe. Once again, she gave open-ended type factors and students had to think and decide what they deemed important to know.

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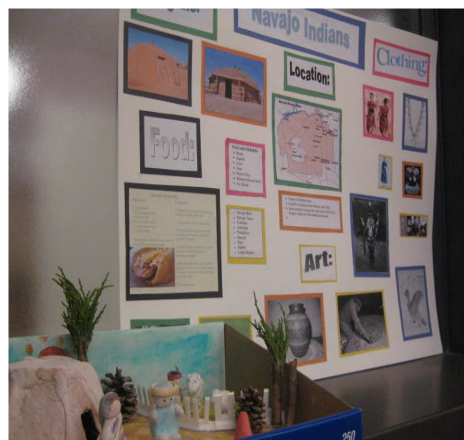
Figure 4. Living History Park Project 1

Figure 5. Living History Park Project 2



"Textbook Teaching and using Primary Sources"

She wanted students to be skeptical because she had learned that "Sometimes paintings were painted one hundred years later than the event it depicted" and she added "so who knows if the painting is really what happened or not"("Emily", 2010b). This skepticism is part of a higher level of thinking that is related to inquiry skills. Her skepticism was apparent again when watching film clips of *The Alamo* she informed

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students that Davy Crockett, the star of this film, is not mentioned in other accounts of the battle and that he is *this* movie's focus, but not the focus in other accounts.

Rarely, did I see Emily with a textbook or even refer to one. Emily explained, "For the first ten years, textbooks were *invaluable*, I couldn't have made it without them. Now I use the textbook maybe five times a semester" ("Emily", 2010b). She said that she based her unit plans on how the chapters are laid out, so students could read the textbook to gain a better understanding if they wanted. She estimated that maybe ten percent of her lessons were from the textbook now. Instead, her lessons come from experience, workshops, past use of books, and ancillaries sent when adopting textbooks. For her, it seemed a matter of gaining more content knowledge before she was willing to let the textbooks quit driving her teaching.

"Every Student Should Succeed"

She strove to offer a range of activities to build on the strengths of her students. Emily said "A student has to try to fail my class" meaning that she will do everything and anything to work with a student if they will just try. I saw her on many occasions talk to failing students about what they needed to do, explaining and re-explaining projects until she got some indication that the student understood. She preferred to teach using mostly projects, collaboration, inquiry, and discussion. It seemed that she had a heart for the kids' succeeding in school, and she was willing to work with all of them, low ability to high ability. Emily described her own teaching style when she said, "I don't want to put a label on it. I am organized and set up in such a way that every student should succeed. I don't care what their ability level is, I have expectations and they should succeed" ("Emily", 2010a). She was great with inquiry and teaching students to construct their own

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thoughts. Her extreme organizational skills allowed this project-based classroom to function quickly and effectively. She got far more accomplished with this type of learning and teaching than many teachers who would not have had the packets pre-labeled, books ready, and past examples to help students visualize what she was expected.

"Taking Courses"

Emily also shared her own scholarly knowledge. In reference to learning about Native Americans she told the students, "I went to Oklahoma last year and all of the counties are named after Indian tribes, Creek County, Apache County, etc…" and she followed this by telling the students that she had taken an anthropology course last year and she had studied the Sioux Indians. She said, "I read a book about each of the seven sects of Sioux"("Emily", 2010b). She went on to share the differences about each sect of the Sioux with her students.   Another time Emily told me, " I read 1491 and learned new facts about Native American history, and how I taught it, not that it was wrong, just that new research has been uncovered, so then I looked at our textbook and I couldn't believe they were still printing the old versions. I told students, "Don't take this [textbook] as set in stone." For example, when talking about the dying of Native Americans, our textbook said they died by the thousands, but I said, 'They died by the hundreds of thousands.' It is going to be interesting to have students look at 1491, our textbook, and other primary sources and see history as not just a set of facts" ("Emily", 2010b). Emily's own growth mindset is openly shared with her students.

"This is what I think students should learn"

Emily went into detail about how she planned her lessons. She said, "I am a long range planner; I want to have units, not just a lesson for the next day" when she plans a

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new unit she said, “I read the chapter, jot down notes and say to myself, ‘okay, exactly what is it that I think the students should learn,’ then I write down three or four main ideas and then I will look at how I am going to present those ideas, how they are going to learn it, review it, enforce it, and then be assessed on it because you can’t just spit out a bunch of facts and do everything”("Emily", 2010a). She continued, “ I keep trying new things; there are going to be negatives and positives, tweak it, try it again, and having the years in [of experience] allows me to know what works, what doesn’t work; it is easier to do than explain”("Emily", 2010a). Emily’s reflection into her own lesson planning enables her to plan intentionally through an entire unit.

Not enough time and other issues

Teachers are really stretched thin especially this year while experiencing the learning curve that the Professional Learning Communities (PLC) initiative requires as well as continuing with teaching full loads. Emily was conscientious that she kept up with each student’s progress (or lack thereof), which either allowed her to compliment students on their work or require her to turn in a student referral for academic intervention. The interventions had to be formally written and a meeting with a counselor had to be held. Emily seemed overwhelmed at times and stated that she simply couldn’t make all of these student/counselor meetings except that she had a student teacher who could take over while she attended conferences.

She was also very concerned with the new interventions (guided study hall) in place and commented, “I have written interventions for about ten students per week, so six weeks into school, I am following about sixty students’ progress; this is for every assignment, every test, everything, and it is a lot to do” ("Emily", 2010b). There was no

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more time for debriefing the lesson this day, as she left the room and went to the counselor's office with paperwork for two more students and their interventions.

Kasey

Background

Kasey's father was a physician and her mother was a middle school social studies and English teacher. Earlier in life, she had wanted to be a police officer, a veterinarian, or a pediatrician. She entered college in a pre-med program and soon found that she wanted something different. She began studying English and social studies and obtained her certification in this state for teaching at the age of thirty-three. She said, "Social Studies is my passion. The most interesting thing about teaching is having a kid get it." She also said, "It is very important for kids to understand what it was like for the time period you are studying and to get some idea of what life was like at that time ("Kasey", 2010).

"Bits of Information"

She was adamant that her favorite thing to do was dole out bits of information that students wouldn't normally hear such as the story about "the British soldier at Fort Ticonderoga who literally did not have his britches on" or "the true story of the postal dog that became the mascot of the U.S. postal service and is stuffed in the Smithsonian"("Kasey", 2010a). I found that she was intrigued by fascinating detail as well as trying to relate curriculum to real-world experiences. She used many primary sources and differing perspectives with her students. Her teaching style seemed to mostly be about what she thought students could understand. The students presented one of three

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ancient civilizations in the Americas, and at the end of one period, she had the students pass up their participation papers with three memorable facts on them. As Kasey and I discussed how she felt those presentations went, she thought she would "probably take the quote requirement off next year or come up with specific quotes and have them choose"("Kasey", 2010b). She felt that it was too difficult for them to find a primary source quote, though she did think that it would give them a different perspective as they would have to wonder why someone would say such a quote and wonder about what it meant. She felt it was important to bring up previous civilizations because of the influence they have in North America and because this is one of the state standards.

When starting the *Three Civilizations in the Americas* project, she had handed out a guideline for the project. As she explained the expectations of their research, she gave them an example of how a stipulation could be met. For instance, when reading the *find a leader* requirement, she said, "For example, you could find a picture of a leader; it could be from a mural or it could be a statue"("Kasey", 2010a). Since the information they were looking for was of past civilizations, obviously there were no cameras, so she warned them that there would be no actual photos. The guideline sheet was to be used to create a poster. The criteria called for a map of the civilization during the height of its reign and a map of the same area of land today. To help students, she said, "For example, the Yucatan peninsula would include what civilization from the past?" She answered with "Mayan." She also stressed that they must get a quote from someone living at the time of the civilization and explain how the person and/or quote related to that civilization. She told them, "For example, you could get a perspective in your quotes from the Aztec point of view and then from the Spanish point of view"("Kasey", 2010a). Her information to them

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was very matter of fact and choppy. Students did not ask questions as she gave one example after the next for each requirement. After all of the instructions had been given, the students were taken to the computer lab where several resources had already been uploaded for them. She was prepared to begin this new unit with her students.

"I would have never thought…"

"I like to show the students differing perspectives"("Kasey", 2010a). For instance, "In the Native American world…was Sitting Bull wrong?" When reflecting on her teaching, Kasey said, "History is told by the point of view of the winners, but what was the point of view of the losers or people who were sort of forgotten like women and children?"("Kasey", 2010b). Kasey was the only participant of the six who specifically mentioned one or more TAH lectures as memorable. One of the TAH sessions included a historian who presented "Ten Ways to Interpret the Constitution" and Kasey commented "I would have never have thought of it in those ten ways." She found the session very interesting and got ideas and information that she would definitely try to use when teaching. Another TAH session that really caught her attention was a lecture about the "Back Country" in America and how when the British citizens were here, the land was referred to as the 'Back Country,' yet after Independence, that land became the new and exciting "Frontier." Once again, she commented, "I don't think I would have ever thought of it in that way"("Kasey", 2010b). She said that the TAH project also gave her access to resources that she had tried to use such as the *Library of Congress*, which before she had found too hard to navigate. She also appreciated learning about local history because it gave the kids a connection that was relevant to their lives.

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She taught the *Three Civilizations* lesson because it was a standard that was required for middle school history. Kasey said, "I am more aware of using primary sources since being involved with the TAH grant"("Kasey", 2010b). She also said that she didn't know if she ever used a lot of inquiry strategies, but she did use KWL charts and taught students that, "You may not have found your answer," but would ask them, "What did you find?"("Kasey", 2010b). She thought today's lesson went well. She had purposely incorporated primary sources and differing perspectives into the project because of the TAH aims.

"Technology Difficulties"

Kasey stated that her weakness in teaching was her lack of how to use technology. I observed her twice in the computer lab, once when students were investigating North and South issues of the Civil War and another time when they were researching for a project about *Three Civilizations in the Americas*. She walked around and answered content and organizational questions, but the students seemed to be on their own to figure out how to get the computers to do any certain task, and they were able to do this without her help. Kasey conveyed more than once that she had a lot of trouble finding primary sources. She was out of her comfort zone, yet willing to try to use the Internet to find these sources.

"Getting the Facts"

Student groups presented their *Three Civilizations in the Americas* projects. They were also required to write about other people's presentations, what they liked, what could be improved, and what three things were worth remembering. She wanted to keep students involved to keep their attention as well as to help them remember facts about the civilizations. The first group presented about the Aztec Civilization. The kids were

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nervous. One student of the three led this group and the other two students stood there. Kasey interjected, “Does anyone have any questions?” There was no response, so she said, “Did you all [to the class] get three memorable facts?”(“Kasey”, 2010b). Once again there was no response from students, so Kasey moved on to the next group. Kasey consistently worked to meet the aims of the grant and her pedagogy was spot on, but there seemed to be a missing *Why are we doing this activity*? kind of feeling in the classroom. Perhaps she was missing the connection process needed for the students to connect new information to prior knowledge.

Kasey consistently used primary source pictures. In one lesson about Colonial America, students were to list three things that were happening in the picture (Appendix F). Kasey continued teaching using more PowerPoint images: a slave dwelling in contrast to a free person’s cabin. Kasey moved on to a very interesting slide about wigs of colonial times and told students about who could wear them and who could not according to social status. For this particular slide she had interesting information and the students were actively listening. She ended the class period with a documentary called *Colonial Life.* This documentary showed real-life families from today living in a community as if they were in Colonial America. It revealed the harshness of frontier life and the work needed for a community to survive. It was very interesting and the students were engaged.

Overall her lesson was organized and thoughtful. She used different activities throughout her class, and she continually offered differing perspectives. For example, during the Colonial America unit, an entire lesson evolved around three perspectives of women’s roles: as an indentured servant, hired servant, or aristocrat. She also brought out

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points about property ownership and how in America property denoted power and social status.

"Not enough time"

One morning I observed Kasey as she juggled the tasks of a teacher. She listened to students present *Current Events*, while she also responded to a note from the office, administered make-up tests to several students, and listened to a student explaining why she didn't have her work. She was keeping lists of all of this…this all happened within five minutes of her first period class. For those researching teacher practice, it is worth remembering that while teachers are trying to accomplish meaningful and deep teaching practice, there are a plethora of other responsibilities and duties. Kasey did not mention this to me at all, but I, as the observer, was overwhelmed by what she was trying to accomplish within the first five minutes of the day.

U. S. history

Kasey said that she loves teaching, but that her ultimate goal is to teach at a college. Today she teaches part-time at a middle school, and she is in her eighth year of teaching. She admitted that she prefers teaching older students. Kasey wrote a good lesson plan which depicted all of the kinds of things that were listed as aims and goals within the grant.

She said that she tried to vary the way in which she taught and she was in favor of allowing students to use their books when giving a test. She said she didn't think that students needed to memorize everything which I found odd since she used list of three things a lot in her practice. She said she felt that she had excellent content knowledge in history, yet later she said that her "weakest area was American history." Later, when

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talking about how the TAH project helped her, if at all, Kasey said, "It gave me greater knowledge in areas that I consider myself to be weak … like Native Americans"(Ables, 2010b). As I observed Kasey teaching, her written lesson plans seemed well-planned and she tried to incorporate the strategies of the local TAH project.

Kerry

Background

Kerry's father was a professor at a university and her mother was a stay at home mom. It was her family's practice to have quiet time for an hour and half each day and she would spend this time either reading or napping. She had wanted to be in the Foreign Service but didn't really know how to go about it, so she thought she would become a history professor at the university level. This teacher has an extensive academic history background as she originally attained a bachelor's degree in 1979 in History and French, and she was in graduate school from 1980 to 1985 and majored in European History and minored in French literature. She has a Master's degree and was a graduate assistant for a *U.S. History Survey* course and also for a *Historical Background to Contemporary Problems* course. She said what finally got her into teaching at the middle school was a horrific shooting that occurred in this town.

"Teaching Tolerance"

Several years ago, a student was shot and killed because he was foreign (and mistaken as a person of Middle Eastern descent). Kerry had long been involved with international students and this hate crime motivated her to try to do something. She said, "I could make a difference; I could teach history and tolerance of other cultures"("Kerry",

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2010), and that is when she decided to get her teaching license. She continually stressed that it was important for students to grasp the relevance of history to the present. She told me about two life experiences that I think show her reformer spirit. One was the experience mentioned above, and the other was about a time when she lived abroad. Kerry lived in Romania and said that she remembered an epiphany came to her as she was living there studying eastern European history. The Vietnam War was at its height and she was hearing about it through an opposing view about her country (United States) and it made her have to think 'my country was the bad place,' and she realized at that moment that there could be differing positions, yet both could be true. She said, "It still shapes the way I look at things." For example, when teaching her unit on discovery she said to students, "Columbus didn't know there were two continents on the way to Asia, so he didn't *discover* it, he *ran* into it and its people. Do you see the difference between those two stories?" and they shook their heads, yes, they did.

"Old-fashioned Words"

Kerry claimed that old language used in many historical primary sources were very hard for middle school students to understand. Kerry explained, "I knew I was in trouble when reading Thomas Paine's brief excerpt about why the colonies should go to war with Britain and as we discussed it in class the 'articles of war' phrase was misunderstood as meaning 'article' like a 'magazine article' and then they weren't able to understand the rest of the list." Kerry began adding small vocabulary lists to the primary source documents, and it cleared up a lot of misunderstandings. Another time when I was observing, she used the *Mayflower Compact* and *Rules for the House of Burgesses* as primary source materials when teaching about the colonies. The students struggled when

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reading them and found it very difficult to understand. It was very slow-going because she needed to explain almost every sentence.

When asked if involvement in the TAH grant had helped her find space for these things she said, “The grant has been very good as far as encouraging me to use more primary sources and mix up the way I teach, but using primary sources can be difficult because of the language involved, the wordy sentences and old-fashioned words are difficult and the students are lacking in the reading and vocabulary skills necessary to access that”(“Kerry”, 2010). That issue seemed to come up time and again.

Kerry taught a unit where student groups presented the thirteen colonies. They created PowerPoint Slideshows where they tried to “sell” their colony as the best one in which to live. The students were to act as real estate agents and let us know why we would want to live in that colony. She explained that not only were students to present their colony, but they were to be active listeners and decide three colonies of which they would like to visit and give at least two reasons why they would like to do so. She gave them a graphic organizer listing the thirteen colonies to help keep them focused.

“Correcting Misinformation”

When one group finished presenting (Connecticut), Kerry added more information that had not been part of the presentation because she wanted the students to know it. As another group presented, Kerry interjected, “I need to qualify that,” as a way to clarify misinformation that the students had just presented. Another period when a different group was speaking about South Carolina, Kerry added a lot of information about slavery and how that was vital to that colony’s economy. The kids were interested and listening.

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At one point, the group about the Pennsylvania Colony was presenting and Kerry interjected, "They actually called it a holy experiment." After the group finished, she asked, "What were the negative aspects of this colony?" and students were able to answer.

Another example during the presentations of colonies was when one of the groups had printed a map of Georgia, a former area of the Soviet Union instead of a map of Georgia, the American colony. Kerry recognized this mistake, and assured the group that it was okay, that these things happen, and then encouraged the group to continue presenting. She addressed the student misinformation, corrected it quickly, and moved on. Kerry commented, "The most interesting part about teaching is trying to figure out how to get a positive reaction from the students and be creative enough that it is not boring to them, and I struggle with lessons, trying to make them more 'hands-on'"("Kerry", 2010). She did not embarrass the group by making a big deal about the former Soviet Georgian map that they had chosen; instead, she talked about Georgia within the colonies and about how prisoners had been sent to that area from England. Her intention had been to keep a positive spin on the whole situation. At the end of the class she asked, "What is typical colonial life like?" and a few students called out answers. Kerry's inclination was to correct misinformation and to charge students to interpret primary documents and think through decisions such as which colonies they would visit and why.

There were times when students gave misinformation, but Kerry did not clarify, and I am not sure why that happened. Perhaps she thought the misinformation was minute, or that she shouldn't continue to correct small mistakes again and again; she conveyed that this was a learning process and they were trying and she didn't want to squelch that initiative. The students had a criteria sheet from which to develop their

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projects, so Kerry usually asked them questions that pertained to that sheet at the end of their presentations. For example, she questioned one group, "I didn't see a map?" which was one of the requirements of the project. She also asked, "Do you have anything about social life and customs?" to another; thus, another attempt to keep the students focused.

"Exploring"

I debriefed with Kerry about this project and asked her what the intent was. She replied, "I planned to teach about the colonies and I wanted the kids to explore and present to each other"("Kerry", 2010). As for thinking historically, she said that she discussed slavery and how we view slavery today as a negative but back then it would have been looked at differently and that perspectives do change over time. She explained, "I think there are some Native American points of view and some colonists' points of view and some of the kids are realizing that a sea of middle class people didn't share the same background as the leaders." She lamented that the students "lack so little understanding and sometimes they are just reading the words and don't see how it fits together." Even when developing this project over the colonies, Kerry said that she "worried about all this stuff and giving up control to the kids."

"Question to think"

"I would rather students have a question to think through together or part of a chapter to summarize than just give them a homework assignment out of the textbook." Even though Kerry didn't appear to use the textbook for homework, she did make it clear that she thought her students should preview and read ahead so they would better understand her lectures.

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Kerry talked about developing future projects like giving students a historical problem and a few lectures and readings about an issue, and then having the students find primary resources about the chosen historical problem. In this way, Kerry could incorporate historical thinking and the use of primary sources as well as research skills into her class. Kerry would like to start a project called 'My own history' much like a project called 'My own science' that the students are already familiar with. Students would make a family tree of four generations and tell a story about each generation, or about one person per generation. She felt this would "connect the family history with important happenings of the same time period."

U. S. history

Kerry used her intellect and interest in history to develop outstanding history lesson plans. She claimed to be a lifelong learner and enjoyed reading about history. She had a good understanding of historical thinking and the use of primary sources, but the intellectual curiosity of her middle school students had been less than what she hoped for so far.

Kristen

Background

Kristen comes from a family of educators. Her father was a principal and administrator and her mother was an elementary teacher. She said, "My father is my hero. He is truly an advocate of public school education." Kristen had been teaching eighteen years and her undergraduate degree was in Political Science with a teaching license for U.S. history, government, and psychology and a Master's in School

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Administration. She taught four preparations this school year including both seventh and eighth grade classes. This teacher had an essential question displayed in a large banner along the front wall of the classroom. It said, “How can studying the vast differences of our landscape and climate help us gain a greater appreciation for our nation’s history and development?” This big idea guided everything for the school year. Her room was decorated with motivational posters and items students had given her. There was also a large kite hanging from her ceiling that swayed. The room had an organized, yet playful feel to it.

“Uncovering the Question”

Kristen’s teaching style appeared inquiry driven. She said, “There are no two days that look exactly the same in my classroom; we are always doing something different.” When talking about student inquiry projects, she said, “I don’t think research is just going to a computer or going to an encyclopedia and finding new information, but it is kind of uncovering or discovering a question or understanding that you are trying to find, so my lessons, activities and group work build on helping them [students] be able to answer a question in a coherent intelligent manner”("Kristen", 2010). When describing how she motivated students, she replied, “I really love my job; it is almost like I take on a persona, a character, which isn’t that different from who I am as a person, but I script a bit; I know what I want to cover, the goals of the class; I go over those before class then I am ‘on.’”

“Seeing the Other Side of the Story”

Using many perspectives was pervasive in Kristen’s teaching. She said that she liked to get the kids to see the other side of a story. She also felt that for so many perspectives, there was no record, but imagination could take her students pretty far. For

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example, she said, “If you can show the kids a sketch or a drawing of a factory of the times and say, ‘What do you imagine it might be like to……….?’ it gets kids thinking.” Kristen’s unit was a culmination about geographical physical features and human system features of our region. She told the students that they would be pairing, so they should get with a buddy. They then brainstormed a list of features that they had talked about previously. Students were encouraged to write one word, without repeating, on the T chart in the front of the room. The list generated is below:

Table 2. List of Physical Features and Human Features

Physical Features	Human Features
Lake	man made boundaries
Glacier	canals
Plate tectonics	roads
Rivers	railroads
Mountains	bridges

After going over the generated list, Kristen talked about man’s response to physical features and she showed a humorous YouTube clip called *Man vs. Bear, Save the Antelope.* Afterward she commented, “Note its rawest form: eat or be eaten. But then we take into account man’s interaction with nature, mankind continually lives in that circle, trying to do the right thing, and so many times we don’t understand the other elements or effects of our actions” (“Kristen”, 2010). Kristen used this geographic teaching moment to incorporate a larger concept about life. She then displayed two questions: Where are you from? And what does that mean? These two questions formed a big idea. She used a student in the classroom as an example, and as the rhetorical scene began she said to her,

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"When you are at a sporting event and another kid comes up to you and asks, 'Where are you from?' What do you say? A kid from this town might name the town, then the next question might be, 'Well, where is that?' and you would answer, in the Midwest, and that could go on and on *or* you could have said your town's name, and then your school's name, and then your family's name, so we can move from specific to general or general to specific. So what words would you use?" I saw kids literally playing out this scenario and thinking about how they would answer. Kristen got them thinking about where they were from in a very real way.

This had all been a lead- in to her next question, "Where is history from?" and her response "All history happens somewhere." She continued, "Our study into the history of the United States is a study including land and man's interaction with it. She passed out their project packets that listed six topics and helped them understand that all topics included features. They were to create a map of this state focusing on pre-European contact, before human interaction, in its most natural state.

Kristen had gathered materials to be used in this unit. Before showing a selected film, she told students that the DVD was produced locally about ideas and events throughout the state and that she helped with this as part of a grant. The DVD was an in-depth look at Indiana's physical features pre-human to present. She explained, "This DVD is research, it is not internet research, it is not book research; this is media research." The film started, "Four million years ago…" It became apparent that the same six topics found on the guided worksheet were also found in this film and she identified new sections as they appeared on the film. She also instructed the class to, "Take notes on each topic, not only the topic of your group, as you will have an upcoming writing that

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will require you to know more than just your topic." Immediately after the film ended, she guided students by saying, "Start getting a visual for how this map is going to look" and continued "Decide what you should depict about your topic and how you are going to do that." The class maps were fairly detailed and interesting and addressed the six major topics The students seemed to have embraced the project and really tried to do their best.

I also observed Kristen teach another unit about the big idea of transportation and specifically about the time period of the canals. This unit consisted of a primary source of a ship's product load, quotes by Washington and Jefferson concerning the Erie Canal, maps of canals throughout our state as well as connecting to the Erie Canal, primary source of a young woman's diary about the event opening of the canal, another primary source of a canal bond. The song "Erie Canal" sung by Bruce Springsteen and a writing assignment by the student as a person present at the time of the opening (Appendix G1 – G7). Through her thorough planning she is able to address the big idea of transportation and its importance throughout time, and use primary sources as a way to investigate how canals work as well as what people thought about them at the time, and use maps as a way to orient students to their home region, and a song sung by a current artist; thus, encouraging a connection between the past and present, and a writing assignment that addressed presentism.

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Figure 6. Map of Indiana Features

"Think Historically"

When debriefing with Kristen about the above shown project she said, "I wanted to highlight our state throughout the year and this activity helped transition students from physical geography to human geography for the rest of the year. I hoped that they got to think historically that everything happens in a place and that geography dictates what might happen or develop in a particular place." She also explained that she liked to go through the whole assignment herself so that she could see where the holes were before finalizing the lesson. Kristen valued reflection and refining her lessons and seemed to be more confident with her lessons after she had gone through them.

"Student Learning"

This teacher is a lead teacher in the initiative to use Professional Learning Communities and common assessment throughout the school system. She said, "I think

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shifting the focus from teaching to learning and really noticing where the kids are struggling and where they are achieving and being able to track that will really help me help them. I plan to spend my time sitting and reflecting and looking at student work and really seeing where they are and knowing what my next move is in response to that ("Kristen", 2010)." It is interesting to note that two teachers went out of their way to explain to me how they make curricular decisions, Kristen and Emily. Kristen used backward design, first thinking about what she wanted students to know, and then deciding how she was going to evaluate them and how she would teach them the content.

U. S. history

Kristen's head was always spinning with new ideas and innovative ways to try out lessons in the classroom. Whenever we had a chance to debrief, she talked about new ideas and things that she will try next time. She expected students to achieve. She also used group work, inquiry, role play, lecture, and discussion effectively and students appear to be engaged during their class time with her. She was a "no-excuses" kind of teacher who would keep a student after class to make sure that the student understood the subject and was living up to his or her potential. For example, her "Where are you from"? and "What does that mean?" questions she used as a catalyst to also explain to the students that they could talk about things from specific to general or general to specific. Kristen had an amazing way of making material relevant to the kids' real lives and in getting them to think deeply about a topic. This teacher's well-planned project and organization led to an engaging and worthwhile class period that was filled to the brim with intention and excitement toward this new project. Kristen introduced it in such a way that it was relevant to the students, modern, and worthwhile. Her lead-in with the YouTube clip set

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the tone of nature and its own agenda, and then man and his interaction with nature and how that could change things for the better or the worse was depicted. She then pulled the students back into a time before human interaction and charged them to illustrate on their state map a map that informed *before* humans. This was a culmination of all of the physical geography that they had learned up to this point.

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Chapter 5

Analysis and Implications

This study was undertaken to address the following questions:

1. What does it mean to teachers to teach quality U.S. history?
2. How do teachers understand and manifest the Teaching American History Educators Project experience?
3. How, if at all, do teachers perceive and implement the use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry?

My study talks about these questions within the realms of Evans' typologies, Wineburg's historical thinking and inquiry, Nash's work about the standards for quality teaching and Shulman's pedagogical content criteria. Furthermore, the study tried to answer these questions under the parameters of the local TAH aims of using primary resources, big ideas, multiple perspectives and historical thinking and inquiry. Key themes emerged about issues of teacher engagement, student engagement, and content coverage which included teachers' perceived need for control. Other themes that ran throughout this manuscript were the issues of acceptable inquiry which pitted time for research and projects against time for analysis as well as the issue of lesson planning that many times lacked the cohesiveness that an explicit big idea might have encouraged. These themes emerged from the data drawn from and about these six teachers who strove to teach quality U. S. history.

What does it mean to teach quality U. S. History? According to Evans, it meant different things to different people, and different types of teachers implemented teaching strategies in various ways. I found that most teachers possessed elements of more than

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one type, though most displayed a dominant tendency.   Evans defined five types: storyteller, scientific historian, relativist/reformer, cosmic philosopher, or eclectic as found in chapter two (Ron Evans, 1989). I used these types as the framework from which to categorize the six teachers in this study.

Table 3. Teacher Background and Typologies

Teacher Participant	Dominant	Sub-dominant	Sub-dominant
Emily	Scientific-historian	Eclectic	
Kerry	Eclectic	Storyteller	Relativist/Reformer
Kasey	Eclectic: activity-based	Storyteller	
Kristen	Scientific-historian	Relativist-reformer	
Clint	Storyteller	Relativist-reformer	
Reid	Storyteller		

In this study of six teachers, two appeared to be dominant in the eclectic teaching style because they focused on student interest and on a willingness to move in all of the teaching styles described by Evans. Two of the six were dominant in the scientific-historian mode emphasizing inquiry and open-ended questions, and two of the six had a dominant tendency toward storytelling. Five of the six also had strong secondary typologies which were perhaps more interesting than their dominant category as the sub-dominant teaching style helped individualize their teaching. These teachers crossed over the groupings at points during my observations, but in large part they fell into the above categories. I found three distinct camps: The inquiry driven teachers, Emily and Kristen; lecture-centered teachers, Clint and Reid; and eclectic teachers, Kerry and Kasey. These

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categories seemed to influence the manner in which these teachers approached incorporating the four aims of this grant.

For purposes of this manuscript, I decided to discuss each of these camps at length. First, I address those teachers who displayed dominant tendencies in inquiry-driven teaching practices and how those teachers displayed quality U. S. history teaching as defined by experts in this manuscript. Evans described the scientific-historian as “those who emphasize open-ended inquiry into historical questions” (chapter 2, p. 35), which is important because this type of teacher played well within the aims of this grant. Kristen and Emily were both seasoned teachers with approximately twenty years each of teaching experience and both used a type of backward design when developing lesson plans. As seen in chapter four, Emily talked at length about how she decided what to teach and how to teach it (pp. 108-109); Kristen also explained how she first thinks about what she wants students to know and then she decides how to get them there (p.124). Both of these teachers creatively designed their own plans and made assessments specific to their teaching goals. Nash (1996), as found in chapter two, contended that good teaching included two or more standards within a sequence of lessons. These teachers gave ample opportunity for students to evaluate evidence, interpret historical records and construct perspectives and sound arguments as suggested in *The National Standards for History* advanced by Nash and his colleagues. As you may recall, Kristen said in chapter four (p. 121) that she wanted her students to be able to “answer a question in a coherent intelligent manner” and a main teaching goal of Emily’s was to “generate thinkers” (p. 101). Within the typologies listed by Evans, these inquiry-driven teachers were the only two of the six to consistently comment about their effort to help students think for themselves.

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Kristen, a scientific/historian as well as a relativist/reformer according to Evans's typologies, was inquiry driven both in matters of history and in relevancy to today. According to Evans, a relativist/reformer calls for a "rigorous reliance on evidence and critical attention to primary sources so that historian and student may objectively attempt to discover truth"(Ron Evans, 1989, p. 220). This type of teacher emphasizes thinking about questions from history and provides different theories from which the student decides. As seen in chapter four's example of human and physical features, Kristen had gathered materials for her students to help them decide what this area of the United States was like before human contact. Kristen also emphasized the importance of relevancy from history to the present. During this same unit, Kristen showed a humorous YouTube clip that depicted a man of today intervening in the natural process of hunting and eating among animals. She not only had students investigate what things might have been like four million years ago, but she also brought home the point of human intervention today. In chapter four, Kristen also referred to her teaching style as "…a kind of uncovering or discovering a question or understanding that we are trying to find" (p. 121). This inquiry driven stance is well supported as quality teaching by Wineburg (2001b) and VanSledright (2008) as ways for students to find meaning to the past.

As a reformist, Kristen also asked her students to reflect and be aware of how their own living practices influenced the natural environment and to 'think' about their actions and its effects. Kristen's reformist mindset was apparent even within her reflection about her own teaching practice. She said when talking about teaching in today's society that, "We need to redefine what being ready for tomorrow means. Is it just pushing on to the next topic, or is it looking at what the children did today and monitoring that and figuring

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out who did get it and if they did, what can I do to enrich their learning about this topic? And what about those kids who didn't get it? What is my responsibility to them? What do I need to do to make sure they get it?" ("Kristen", 2010) Her reflective practice enabled her to rethink her lessons and her students' needs in every unit. She not only expected her students to think about their actions and their realm of influence, but she expected that of herself; exemplifying the essence of Shulman's definition of reflection that is necessary for good teaching (p. 39). This reflective practice for teacher and student is part of a larger hope that TAH leaders had when forming the aims of this grant. The grant seemed to have opened a space for Kristen to think more deeply about getting her students to 'think' about their subject as personal and relevant today.

Emily too made sure to not only have students complete inquiry projects such as the *Living History Park* about Native American tribes, but that she also connected that assignment to the present by having the students address the current state of the tribe studied (see rubric in Appendix E1, E2). Emily had entire units planned with evaluation rubrics to guide students' efforts and color-coded paper so in her project-oriented classroom, students were comfortable and organized and did not lose instructional time to those type of issues. Emily was not only categorized as a scientific-historian, but also as eclectic as her concern "toward a practical orientation toward getting students interested"(Ron Evans, 1989, p. 233) was always evident which spoke to her commitment and ability to teach 'failing' students and to do whatever it took to help a student succeed (chapter 4, p. 107).

Emily and Kristen met much of the criteria acknowledged as outstanding by Nash, Wineburg, Shulman and other experts found throughout chapters one and two. These

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teachers and their practice will be referred to again later in the chapter as I continue to discuss the camps found in this study. These teachers strove to incorporate meaningful, interactive, value-based, challenging, and action-oriented lessons within their units. They continually allowed their students to build or construct their own thoughts and make their own decisions about what this meant to them.

The next camp included the storytellers. Both high school male teachers were dominant in this style, but two middle school female teachers also marked high with the same traits as defined by Evans. Reid and Clint found it first and foremost their responsibility to transmit knowledge (chapter 2, p. 39). To start with, Reid**,** a self-defined storyteller, was the epitome of the 'sage on the stage'. As Evans described, "Storytellers emphasize fascinating details about people and events. These teachers run a teacher-centered classroom in which teach talk is dominant, and storytelling is a common mode" (Ron Evans, 1989, p. 215). Reid was rich in content knowledge as displayed by his Military Historian certification which he received in the U.S. Army and by his undergraduate focus on Middle East Studies and History while at the University of Texas. As you recall, during my initial interview with Reid, he told me that teaching history was a natural fit for him and that he liked the idea of duty or service (chapter 4, p. 89) He also said, "I have a knack for history, and I am kind of a good story teller" ("Reid", 2010a). His self-description matched my observations.

On a day in, day out basis, storytelling could be exhausting. Reid said, "I try to come back to that first stuff because you are enthusiastic back then and everything is new, and you want to try new stuff and then after a while, you get like…I don't want to work that hard" he followed with, "Getting out of college you think, 'I am going to be a good

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teacher from day one and then the realization that, oh wait a minute, it doesn't work that way; it takes years.' Stuff can be pretty boring, but if the person [teacher] is enthusiastic about it, it helps, I know (to be enthusiastic), and so sometimes it is a bit of an act, but most of the time, it actually isn't"("Reid", 2010a). Reid really loved the content of U. S. History and he was enthusiastic in his classes as well as very knowledgeable.

Clint saw himself as a performer who told a good story; thus, the storyteller typology is at work, but so is the relativist/reformer that Evans described. According to Evans, "The relativist/reformer suggests that it is most important for students to grasp the relevance of history to the present" (1989, p. 224). Reformers are generally inquiry-oriented, so even though Clint liked to tell fascinating stories using details and events, his lectures allowed for a lot of question and answer time as well as some real-life learning situation. What set Clint apart from being labeled as only a storyteller was his overwhelming concern that students connected history to the present; thus, his sub-dominant category. Connecting past to present was very important to Clint as represented by his *What happened on this date* presentations and his connections to present-day banking when lecturing about the Second Bank of America (chapter 4, p. 95).

Clint continually used humor (p. 95, *facial hair*) to move his classroom lecture along as did Reid somewhat, but Reid had more of a pre-set lecture in mind while Clint allowed for more leeway in the question and answer format of his class. Humor is one of the many instructional techniques touted by Shulman (p. 39) as good and necessary in teaching instruction. Planning, another necessary component of teaching, was described very differently by Clint than it was by the inquiry-driven teachers who used a backward design model and who thought long-term units out before beginning them. Interestingly,

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Clint appeared to oppose planning as he said, “If I came in and it was all planned, it would be so boring…I create the problem for myself, so that I will have the problem (of planning) to deal with. Clint said, “For me, the first five years I had no idea what I was doing; you don’t get out of school year one and know how to teach”("Clint", 2010). Clint was still figuring out what worked and didn’t work for him.

He had figured out that not planning units ahead kept out boredom. He liked the rush of preparing as the time approached. Even though Clint sounded as if he didn’t prepare, he did because I observed his teaching and saw his lesson plans. He just didn’t do long- term unit planning because he needed the pressure of planning to create excitement for himself. It appeared that planning by Reid and Clint included a component of excitement or enthusiasm for themselves; whereas, the inquiry-driven teachers never mentioned this. Perhaps lecture-based teaching required humor and fascinating stories in order to keep the attention of the students more so than inquiry-driven classrooms that are not so dependent on teacher-centered performance.

This goes along with the discussion of the engagement of students, when, as you recall (p. 100), Clint talked about students who chose to put their heads down and, in turn, were unengaged in an entirely different manner than Emily did. While Emily saw the responsibility of student behavior falling heavily on her shoulders, Clint saw it almost entirely on the students’ shoulders. Perhaps this is a difference between teacher-centered and student-centered classrooms, as both teachers were genuinely concerned that their students do well in ‘real-life,’ yet they took very different stances on how to get them there. Their own teaching philosophies as well as their own life experiences had gone into their decisions. Perhaps both camps adapt, storytellers by making sure they have

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fascinating stories dotted here and there with antics that kept their students engaged, for the most part, and scientific-historian types by making sure they had well-organized and well thought out activities planned that connected students thinking to the inquiry. Good U. S. History teaching involves a continual transformation of one's teaching practice (p.39), and these teachers seemed to strive to reach their students, yet both drew from different belief systems, Emily offering extra help and Clint requiring student responsibility.

By using Evans' typologies I was able to make a more holistic analysis of the teachers and their practice. It appeared that the two inquiry-driven teachers, Kristen and Emily, worked much differently than Clint and Reid, yet all teachers were trying to reach the same goal: increasing student knowledge. Their teaching styles appeared to influence much of the way that they chose to incorporate aims, if at all, and how. Teacher perspective counts as they each see the aims of the grant through their own perceptual screen. Teachers seem to want to be intellectually engaged, leading to a certain kind of excitement or energy about their own work that comes into the classroom; thus, engaging the students. Gaining content knowledge was the one unanimous expectation that teachers gave for joining the TAH grant in the first place. They found it of utmost importance to allow students a high rate of content coverage in the classrooms, and gaining more content knowledge themselves led to each becoming a more well-educated teacher; thus, a highly engaged teacher, who has been intellectually challenged and will, in turn, challenge their students.

Finally, the third camp found prevalent in these six teachers, the eclectic. Evans described the eclectic teachers as those who take a pragmatic approach to teaching and use

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a combination of approaches (chapter 2, p. 35). Kerry's conception of teaching seemed to fall under the eclectic realm as she used lecture (storyteller) and inquiry (relativist/reformer and scientific historian) freely (Ron Evans, 1989). Kerry defined her teaching style as a combination of lecture and collaboration…sprinkled with everything else. She said, "Lecture is an easy way to convey a lot of information, and I stop and ask students to jump in. I want them to feel comfortable to work together and come up with questions and talk about it" ("Kerry", 2010). Kerry is obviously concerned with content coverage and she also seemed to talk to the students with concepts and words that they could understand. She was continually reworking her plans to meet the level of her students' understanding. As you recall, there were several occasions when Kerry corrected misinformation during the presentations of the colonies (chapter 4, p. 117-118), and educators from Dewey to the present agree that deep content knowledge is needed by teachers, so that it may be passed on to students.

As you recall, Kerry tried using primary sources, became frustrated, and then adapted the language of the documents by adding vocabulary lists to the primary sources, exemplifying yet another way that teachers adapt lessons to meet student needs (chapter 4, p. 116). Kerry seemed to like inquiry, but she remained frustrated that students didn't understand enough vocabulary and basic information to use that method a lot of the time. Kerry said that she lectured so that she could control the content and explain concepts in ways that students could understand. Her pragmatic side felt responsible to the students' correctly understanding the material, much as Reid felt obligated and duty-bound to his students also correctly understanding the material. Both of these teachers felt they knew more (and indeed they do) than the students and from their perceived definitions of what a

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teacher is, they needed teacher control of the content to ensure correct understanding. Teacher engagement alleviates their own possible boredom, yet Kerry is willing to give up the control some of the time. Kerry said, "I tell students, if they thought of history as kind of a soap opera, an ongoing soap opera, this it is fun; it can get dry sometimes, but I really like it when a kid challenges my interpretation or how I present something"("Kerry", 2010). Kerry brought up the enthusiasm factor just as Reid and Clint did as lecturer, yet she liked student thinking and inquiring minds just as Kristin and Emily.

Another middle school teacher, Kasey, would also be categorized as an eclectic. Her teaching style seemed to be mostly about what she thought her students could understand. I would have added one more typology to Evan's work as I found this teacher was essentially activity-oriented. She is labeled as eclectic here to keep in the format used by Evans, but based on the evidence of this study, I found Kasey to be activity-oriented as opposed to using the other typologies as a mix as an eclectic might. She was not as inquiry-oriented as one might think even though she used projects because the point of her projects were mostly that there was an activity for the students to do, not that they were to delve into a deep meaningful learning situation. She also lectured, but not for meaning as much as for the high-interest moment of the telling of a bit of little known information. This activity-based teacher appeared to like to keep things moving. She was also very concerned about student interest and she constantly tried to find materials of interest to them. I found that she was intrigued by fascinating detail as well as trying to relate curriculum to real-world experiences. Kasey said, "The most interesting thing about teaching is have a kid "get it" and seeing the light bulb go on. Actually the

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way I teach is to try to give them bits of information that they aren't usually going to hear"("Kasey", 2010).

Kasey used many primary sources and differing perspectives with her students, and she didn't seem to have a preferred style. She allowed her students the space to notice that they may not have found the answers they were looking for, but acknowledged that they did find something worthwhile (chapter four, p. 112). Evans conceded that some teachers may not have a definitive approach to teaching (Ron Evans, 1989), and Kasey appeared to be in this group. For example, as Kasey placed a picture of a house on the overhead, she told students to write down three things that they saw happening in the picture. She then went over the picture with them and they called out things that they noticed (Appendix F). After this activity, she moved into a slideshow that she had developed about colonial times. It was at this point that I noticed that she had not explained before or after the previous activity *why* the students had looked at the home or what it had to do with the topic. Even though she was trying hard to get the students' interest and to make the learning relevant, the activity appeared to be 'one more thing to do.' The picture had depicted an interior of a colonial era home but there had been no explanation to link that picture to the next activity. Unlike Emily or Kerry (also eclectic teachers), Kasey seemed to be still finding a preferred style and still forming her own prevailing philosophy about teaching that would guide her in her practice. Student engagement and an attitude toward inquiry will most likely be evident in her future teaching practice.

Kasey tried very hard to incorporate primary sources into her history lessons, yet she was also overwhelmed at times trying to find these materials, so this may have led her

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to use what she could find. Kasey lamented, "If you can't find them, then you can't incorporate them"("Kasey", 2010). She seemed to be one of the most determined teacher-participants to incorporate primary sources as she felt it would lead to better lesson design. She was genuinely willing to learn and use the various strategies promoted by the team leaders in this TAH project to become a better teacher. The historians who gave the workshops talked about their primary sources in deep and meaningful language, and Kasey commented several times that she would have never thought about an issue in these different ways without the workshops such as her new thinking about the Constitution or the frontier (p. 112). This activity-based teacher seemed to be searching for meaning in her teaching.

The underlying factors that drove these teachers to use the afore-mentioned styles undeniably played a role in how each teacher perceived and implemented the use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry, if at all, as well as how they understood and manifested the TAH project experience. The inquiry-driven teachers seemed to flourish in this experience as the aims allowed them more to explore with their students; the storytellers seemed to experience the TAH grant within their current way of teaching and content delivery continued to dominate their practice; the eclectic teachers perhaps experienced and implemented more of the aims as a new way to approach teaching U. S. history. Both eclectic teachers seemed the most committed to incorporating the aims as part of their practice even when they found it uncomfortable. As is true in life, none of these teachers entire identity can be pegged into one hole; they all had dominant tendencies, yet strategies of other kinds ran through their teaching practice. How did this help us understand what made for good U. S. History

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teaching? Knowing the stance from which these teachers operated helped situate them within quality teaching practices that are generally agreed upon throughout the education field. It appears that teacher types do matter in ways that teachers perceive and choose to implement new strategies and content. TAH grant teams as well as professional development in general need to consider teacher typologies and design ways which stretch teachers from the categories of which they fall into places of new ideas, strategies, and implementation to carry into their classrooms. Those teachers who find it very hard to 'sell' another technique or vision could be worked with within their dominant domains to come to believe in a wider variety of teaching strategies of which students may find engaging. We need to find ways to engage these 'set mindset' teachers that stretches their own understanding of teaching and learning, so they can 'sell' new ways of looking at material and information to their students. These 'set' teachers must come to see the worth in new practices, so TAH team members must explain and model such practices so that these teachers grow and accept a variation of teaching methods. For those teachers who are more able to stretch and grow, it is equally important to explain and model the use of primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry in ways that promote good research-based strategies. It is imperative that definitions of all aims be explicit and that all members understand how best to incorporate these aims using the intended definition and application of the aims. In this way, teachers can focus on not only surface level use of aims, but also deep and meaningful strategies that can become pervasive in all of their teaching.

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Historical Thinking, Inquiry, and Presentism

Wineburg praised good teaching strategies such as examples, analogies, simulations, and demonstrations (chapter 2, p. 34). Several participant-teachers chose representation of content through these means. In fact, three of the six used these often. Kerry had been highly motivated to teach through events that happened in this town and she strove to help change students' perceptions of the limited world in which they live. She related many of her teachings to present day life for her students and she tried to help them think more globally. The three teachers who shared a relativist/reformer type were the three teachers who consistently used analogies, simulations, and demonstrations. For example, Kristen's scenario that introduced "Where is history from? first got her students thinking, "Where are *you* from?" as displayed when she got the student thinking about being at a ballgame and how she would answer if asked "Where are you from?" by another student at the game (chapter 4, p. 122). Similarly, Clint's analogy about McClellan's leadership skills in the North were likened to a fancy new car that you wouldn't want to use (chapter 4, p. 95) and his simulation of weaponry with the Marshmallow War (chapter 4, p. 97) portrayed Wineburg's good teaching strategies. Both of these teachers were sub-dominant in relativists/reformers typology, yet one was inquiry-driven and one was a storyteller, and both took pains to relate history to students' lives. These examples display criteria of high caliber found in the NCSS standards for meaningful instruction (p. 30). Students could wrap their heads around these examples and hook the new history content to something in their real-lives (p.55).

Wineburg is known as an expert in historical thinking and inquiry in which he also talks about 'presentism'. Historical thinking requires us to "grasp the meaning of the

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past', but not succumb to the tendency to think about the past through the present lens" (p. 26). Two of the six teachers, both storytellers, warned students that they could never fully understand past ways of thinking. Also several of the teachers addressed 'presentism'. For example, when referring to the Great Awakening, Reid had asked, "Why would the Great Awakening occur at this time and place?" getting students to think, but not actually allowing them time to talk it out. He *told* them to think and then, according to my observation, he did a quick scan to check to see if students were with him and then he continued speaking (chapter 4, p. 93). This wasn't exactly what Wineburg was calling for, but it did show an attempt to bring out the concept of 'presentism'. *Telling* students feeds into teacher control whereas scaffolding questions so that students come to an *understanding of their own* about presentism is more in line with Wineburg's idea. The theme of teacher need for control is displayed time and again by Reid and also by Clint. In fact, when Clint talked about doing inquiry, he would only allow it "if it was not an important unit"("Clint", 2010). Furthermore, Kerry wanted to do more inquiry, but had a hard time giving up the control too. This really leads to the issue of content coverage and how teachers at these grade levels are insistent that content is covered. I am not sure if that is Standard's driven or test driven, but teachers found content coverage very important, and more important than allowing students the time to form *understanding* as opposed to coverage. The TAH project called for using Wineburg's historical thinking platform of sourcing, contextualizing, evaluating, analyzing, and questioning sources (p. 66). I agree with all of Wineburg's platform and I could not improve upon it at this time. I do think that as a TAH team, that explicit definitions and examples of sourcing, contextualizing, etc… would have been helpful so that all members of the team as well as

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all of the teachers in the grant would have been more aware as to how to actually incorporate Wineburg's platform with depth and meaning to the students. All six teachers used some, but not all, of these platform components. Contextualizing was the favored strategy chosen, as all six teachers used this to help 'historically think' about documents. For example, Reid talked specifically about how he talked to students about' presentism' and context (p.92), and Clint took pains to talk about the 'loud' debates of yesteryear (p.96), and Kasey stated how important it was for kids to understand what life was like at the time (p.113). Teachers often placed students 'in the time period' and they were good at it. As for encouraging historical thinking, it appeared the teachers were more inclined to 'tell' students instead of 'show' students or let them figure it out for themselves. Perhaps it took too much valuable time or perhaps students weren't interested in that (or maybe teachers weren't interested in teaching that skill), so for whatever reasons, historical thinking was more talked about than actually done. Contextualizing information was the dominant component all six teachers used to get students thinking more deeply about history and maybe teachers thought that was enough. 'Telling' speaks to the teachers' need for control. By 'telling' students about historical thinking and how it is done, the timeframe is calculated by the teacher, not the students, and the teacher can move forward in content coverage. If teachers allowed students the time to historically think or figure things out for themselves, they couldn't have as much control over how much time this would take.

Sometimes teachers chose to source the document and sometimes they did not. During my observations, evaluating, analyzing, and questioning documents were not standard practice. They would quickly go through the process if they did it at all. The

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TAH team aimed to get teachers to allow students the opportunity to historically think about the evidence, and the majority of teachers were inclined to use general inquiry methods and primary sources as a tool from which to historically think. The TAH workshops were led by historians who read the documents as historians read them (p.51), and the teachers may have also read them as historians, but they had not yet been able to incorporate that into their lessons with the students. Even if the teachers found reading documents and asking questions about sourcing, validity, audience, etc…of worth, they usually did not take the time in class to do this with their students. Remember that two of the six teachers were history majors, yet one of those teachers used storytelling almost exclusively and the other one was frustrated when trying to use primary documents because she found that the reading skills were not sufficient. It appeared that the two 'trained' historians were as unlikely as the others to have the students use the techniques historians used when reading documents. I found this very odd, as I would have thought that historians would take their training into the classroom, but at this point in their careers these teachers found that due in large part to time constraints, content coverage became the marker for accomplishing good history teaching. The inquiry component was much more accessible to the teachers and there were lots and lots of research projects in which students used disciplined investigation and got to make decisions about which pieces to include and how to set up their presentations (VanSledright, p. 28). Perhaps the inquiry skills were more important to teachers than thinking like historians. One of the three high school teachers was inquiry-driven; whereas, all of the middle school teachers used inquiry much of the time, so four of the six teachers were strong on using this approach. This speaks to what is acceptable inquiry? Teachers, especially inquiry-driven teachers,

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were open to research and projects, but allowed much less time to analyze a photo, picture, or document as a historian would. They tended to define inquiry as including those activities where students had to dig to find information, but not activities of analysis.

Wineburg's good history teaching recommendations were encouraged by the TAH team leaders and the majority of teachers tried to incorporate his findings at some level. There was one outlier, Reid, and even Reid 'told' students about historical thinking and inquiry even if he didn't allow them to experience it themselves.

National Standards for History

The National Standards for History recommends that teachers have a comprehensive understanding of all facets of history: social, political, scientific, economic, and cultural (p.32). Of course, not one person could know all of this or teach all of this, but it could be used as a way to plan lessons striving to include these facets. For example, teachers of Advanced Placement U. S. history are trained to think in terms of social, political, and economic conditions, and one of the six teachers taught A.P., and all six of the participants taught at least one or more aspect of this facet. Perhaps this is why the outlier, Reid, an A. P. U. S. history teacher, felt he only had time to disseminate information because all of these factors were to be taught in that course and tested, and taught seemed to mean to him that he is doing most of the talking and students are doing most of the listening; thus, the teacher gives information and the student learns. This becomes perhaps a very narrow definition of what teaching is. When taking this national standard apart, it is easy to recognize that it encompasses everything and everything is a lot to teach.

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The other standard that Nash helped author was advocating "teaching students new interpretations of history and as old evidence was thought of in new ways and as new evidence emerged" (p.34). Three of six teachers talked about their own scholarly knowledge as Emily talked about her Native American class, Kristen about physical geography, and Kerry mentioned new evidence as a possibility to her students. All six teachers were open to this idea, but only three explicitly told their students about new studies or evidence that they had taken part in during my observations. Once again, maybe it didn't occur to teachers to tell or show students new evidence or maybe they did, and I didn't observe it, or maybe this speaks to the limited time that teachers have with students and they don't find this something worthy to mention. Of course, teachers are held to state standards, state testing, and school-wide goals as well as trying to match National Standards. Most state standards are duplicated within the national standard framework and the comprehensive nature of the national standards enabled them to take more an idyllic notion of perfect teaching as something to strive toward.

Model of Pedagogical Reasoning

The TAH project addressed Shulman's Model of Pedagogical Reasoning by employing expert guest historians who lectured on deep and meaningful content of U. S. History and by including professors of teacher education to connect strategies to content. Shulman's circle of pedagogical reasoning includes comprehension, transformation, instruction, evaluation, and reflection leading to new comprehension that starts the cycle of thinking about teaching all over again. These same historians made connections to the classroom for teachers when possible and the breakout sessions with education professors held after every lecture addressed how elementary, middle and high school teachers might

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transform this newly acquired content into usable material (chapter two, pp.38-39). Teachers used this time to debrief from the day's lecture and activities. Many times teachers wanted to talk to other teachers about how they would use material in the classroom. Teachers would write down suggestions from others and they appeared to be genuinely interested in others' ideas. Teachers mentioned how much collaboration and camaraderie with other teachers were important to them. They experienced this time as something unusual as they are not accustomed to sharing with others as much as they are accustomed to working alone in their classrooms. The TAH grant allowed them the space to comprehend and transform the lecture materials into material they could use. All teachers commented how much they enjoyed the lecture and discussion with the expert historian, once again bringing home the theme of teachers intellectually engaging with the content.   According to Shulman, teachers must comprehend their content areas first. This is proven at some level before teachers are allowed in the classroom. The state teacher tests are mandatory and show proficiency in content areas. For our state this requires a bachelor's degree, twenty-four hours in a content area, and the passing of a state teaching exam (p.32).

Shulman's second attribute is transformation. Transforming content into pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) by way of preparation, representation, instructional selections and adaptations to the class as well as to particular students is expected of teachers. Four of the six teachers appeared to prepare in a traditional manner in which they studied the material, developed a plan and implemented it. This speaks to the overarching theme of teacher planning with a sub-component of teacher engagement. As you recall, Kristen and Emily used the model of 'backward design' and that tended to allow for more

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student-led activities. On the other hand, Reid and Clint were much more lecture-oriented, yet all four mentioned their own teacher engagement and their need for their own enjoyment. Reid and Clint were concerned that they not be 'bored' when teaching and Kristen commented on how much she loved teaching and found it to be fun (thus engaging), and Emily mentioned this to a lesser degree to me when talking about her job as a teacher in general. It appears that good U. S. history teaching includes not only content coverage, but also teacher engagement as well as student engagement. The TAH team leaders addressed PCK by choosing the four local aims of using primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry.

How do good U. S. history teachers instruct? The instruction varied widely due to the different teaching styles of the participants. Kristen intentionally set up certain activities and statements so that they connected to the next activity and discussion. She touched all of the attributes described by Shulman as well as the NCSS recommendations for meaningful, integrative, value-based, challenging and action- oriented instruction as seen when teaching the transportation unit (chapter 4, p. 123). The unit included several primary sources, points of view, and an interpretation of the song *Erie Canal* which helped clarify to students why the canal was so important. The culmination of the unit was an assignment that asked students to write as if they were s on the opening day of the canal. This lesson exemplified a teacher who incorporated several strategies, pondered ideas and concepts and addressed the notion that history is constructed through primary sources (Nash, 1996; NCSS, Revised 2008; Shulman, 1992; S. Wineburg, 2001b). In fact, her lesson plan for this two-day unit addressed eleven state standards (Appendix G1-G7). The transportation unit taught by an organized and thoughtful teacher like Kristen

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represents the pinnacle of good U. S history teaching. She is not the only teacher of the six to represent such a lesson. Good history teaching makes room for overlapping standards and integrating history with math, science, and literature as well as using more than text when teaching. Emily's Native American unit addressed the many facets suggested in the National Social Studies Standards by Nash too (p. 32). Many varying instructional strategies are used by the eclectic teachers and two of the six teachers intentionally set up for later teaching topics from which they 'hang' new content. Clint also spoke about intentionally setting up topics when for example, he spoke about the Second Bank of America, he would later connect some of those same ideas to the Great Depression (p. 95). Many good instructional strategies have already been addressed in the first section of chapter five when analyzing teachers' typologies.

Evaluation also was addressed in Shulman's pedagogical reasoning model. Evaluation not only referred to testing, but also to formative evaluation. All six teachers used some form of formative evaluation which enabled them to understand what students 'knew up to now' and helped make curricular decisions for what to do next in the lessons. For example, Kerry's ability to correct mistakes without embarrassing students was crucial to teaching in an inquiry- oriented classroom as well as Reid's writing on every test so that he could really get a handle on how well the students knew the material. He wrote helpful comments on every test and quiz and he went over the most missed questions in class, re-teaching those concepts one more time in hopes that students would get it that time around ("Reid", 2010b). Evaluations set up such as Emily's and Kristen's rubrics were ready for students *before* activities started. In this manner, students knew what to expect from the beginning as well as what was expected later. All six participants

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were very much in tune with the importance of evaluation in this test-oriented era. I observed effort on their part to develop tests and evaluations that reflected the aims of their lessons. The grant's aims were Within good U. S. history teaching, teachers should by implementing quality teaching practices expounded by Shulman for overall good teaching.

Content Knowledge

Gaining Content knowledge was a major motivator for all six participant-teachers as all six mention it as one of the main reasons that they joined this grant. Content knowledge is the base from which a teacher works when teaching a content area (Haycock, 1996; Nash, 1996; D. F. Ravitch, C., 1987; S. a. W. Wineburg, S. M., 1988). With or without research backing the importance of content knowledge, these teachers wanted to know more. The majority of these teachers scored at the mastery level on a pre-project content knowledge test about U. S. History[3]. This begs the question, 'Did the teachers who really needed more content knowledge join this project?' All six teachers in this study scored average to mastery in content before beginning the project. Perhaps those who know a lot want to know more, and those who don't know U.S. History content, just get by.

The background of each teacher played into the choices they made. Most of the teachers were intentional about their teaching most of the time. Through the teachers' chosen teaching style, perhaps we can begin to see how teachers enacted or chose not to enact the pedagogical aims of the TAH project as well as how they taught when trying to be good U. S. history teachers and how they understood the local aims of the project. The

[3] Most test questions came from A.P. versions of U.S. history tests

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fours aims of the local grant project were set up to address pedagogical aims that the teacher educators on the project valued and that the needs assessment pointed out. Teachers volunteered to join this project and they were well informed that four aims were a major part of the project. That implied that the six participant- teachers were willing to include primary sources, multiple perspectives, big ideas, and historical thinking and inquiry into their practice if they weren't already doing so. The four local aims are only a part of a criteria that can lead to good U. S. history teaching and there are other methods not addressed in this grant that are equally valued.

Primary Sources

All six teacher-participants were willing to incorporate primary sources into more of their lessons and, in fact, they were looking forward to some help with that. Five of the six teachers used primary sources quite often. The one outlier, Reid, could not seem to expand his teaching practice past the use of lecture. He is an example of how a teacher can be 'set' and how professional development must find a way to reach these 'set' teachers and help them see the worth of expanding their practice. Two of the teachers spoke of being overwhelmed with information, and some spoke about how they couldn't find what they needed to use and that they didn't have time to look. What I found was that teachers incorporated primary sources sometimes differently than anticipated by the TAH team leaders. The leaders had anticipated using primary sources in conjunction with historical thinking, yet most of the time, teachers did not use the primary source for students to construct their interpretations of the past or to examine the past with a critical eye.

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Reid used primary sources already found in the A.P. textbooks and on practice A.P. tests. He did go through a protocol with his students that called for 'noticing who the audience was.' And 'why was this written, painted, made, etc…," "what point was the author trying to make?" And "what else was going on at that time period that would make this important?," so he did take the students through the process when there was a primary source given and he expected them to do this kind of analysis on their own ("Reid", 2010b). Reid decides there simply isn't time for analyzing photos or documents in class. Students are expected to do this kind of thinking on their own as Reid is 'telling' them, not 'showing' or working with them. His understanding of how to use primary sources could also be related to his storyteller paradigm and how he perceives what teaching means, which is to tell not show. Kerry and Kasey also incorporated many primary documents into their lessons, each finding it a bit more difficult for their students to understand than they had anticipated. One teacher, Clint, used primary source images in nearly every PowerPoint lecture he presented, but he rarely dissected it, rather he used the source to shore up his own renditions of history and the students in large part took it as truth or at least as Clint's truth (p. 99). He sometimes asked students for interpretation or comments and he would further explain and interpret a primary source to make his point, so his thoughts and knowledge were transmitted to his students.

Two teachers, Kristen and Emily, used them to increase historical thinking and inquiry and were more in tune with Wineburg's thoughts on historical thinking and the use of primary sources which made sense since they were inquiry-driven teachers. It is evident that the understanding of the aim of using primary sources was interpreted and

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manifested differently by the teachers. Still, good U.S. history teaching took place simply because incorporating primary sources at all is a first step of using them more deeply.

Multiple Perspectives

All six teacher- participants were already using multiple perspectives or differing perspectives before the grant project began. One teacher even thought that this debate was over and that everyone in the nation taught different perspectives ("Reid", 2010a). What the team leaders did to offset a possibility of Anglo-centric narrative or ethnic-centric narrative was to encourage TAH teachers to consistently use the phrase, “According to…” thereby initiating a sense of bias no matter who the author. Teachers had not picked up this habit of talk during my observations, but all of the teachers valued different perspectives even if they did not explicitly use the phrase “According to…” to frame their words. They all *told* their students about different versions or renditions or focuses that could color an event one way or another. Three of the teachers told the students that ‘history is told by the winners’ thereby alerting them that there was at least one other side to any story, if not many other sides. The teachers were aware of what Wineburg called “competing explanations” (p. 44) and informed students of this. Also, trying to cover every perspective was impossible as Emily said, “I probably use more multiple perspectives and primary resources than I did before the TAH project, tweaking lessons here even more to reflect that, but it is frustrating because it shows me that there is way too much information, but in a good way”("Emily", 2010a). Reid explained, “Multiple perspectives for me a lot of times is about regular folks. I like to integrate it all and make it all part of a whole story instead of just one viewpoint. I try to bring it down to an individual level, that is how I like to do it, that is an important part of seeing

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history"("Reid", 2010a). He also talked to his students about how some authors focused on one thing more than another (p. 92) as did Emily (p.108). Kristen added, "I wasn't aware that I was giving multiple perspectives before the grant, but then I started looking at my lesson plans and it was there in some way or another. Whether it was using a primary source or just getting kids to see the other side of a story; being aware really made a difference"("Kristen", 2010).

My passion had been to incorporate multiple perspectives not fully understanding that this group of teachers as a whole had been doing this for years, whether they called it that or not. The traditional narrative that runs through many textbooks weren't really an issue as most of these teachers did not rely heavily on their textbooks. This particular region is probably more liberal than many Midwest areas and; therefore, they were more open to multiple or differing perspectives, even though one teacher did say she was 'more aware' now than before the TAH project. The debate on whether this is good teaching practice or not is still out as the graph on page 42 depicts the varying degrees of acceptable content within U. S. history. The aims of this project called for multiple perspectives to be used and my findings were that all six teachers incorporated this aim before and during this project. Many teachers chose to use primary sources that showed differing perspectives like Kristen's transportation unit did.

Textbook

All six of the teachers had used the textbook extensively in their early years of teaching. In fact, Emily had been adamant that textbooks had been invaluable when she first started teaching (p. 106). Currently, only one of the six teachers referred to the textbook each lesson and that was Reid. Reid, the AP teacher, required daily reading of

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the textbook from his students but even then he told them that this was that author's rendition of history ("Reid", 2010b). This awareness alleviated somewhat Wineburg and VanSledright's concern about an omniscient third-person narrative that is found in many textbooks (p.46 and p. 42).

Five of the six teachers felt that the textbook was a good base as Kristen commented, "The textbook is very handy for setting the stage on many topics, and it is a good place to start as it is relatively accessible to struggling readers ("Kristen", 2010)." She used the textbook for each unit but not necessarily for each chapter. She also said that she never found misinformation, just a lot of missing information. Five of the six teachers chose to use the textbook on occasion and not as a regular practice, so the issue of textbook bias or omniscience was not much of an issue. The teachers used lots of ancillaries and pieced together their own units from years of experience, books and materials collected over time, and from workshops such as the TAH project provided. The TAH project has offered two years of workshops up to this point, and numerous primary sources have been located and modeled for the teachers to use in their classrooms. It seems that when teachers have access to this kind of authentic material, they are willing to forgo using the textbook and insert instead more meaningful and interesting pieces. Kasey and Kerry, the two least-experienced teachers were also the two eclectic teachers. Maybe this is due to them still finding their way and gathering appropriately-leveled materials that are meaningful to them and their students.

These teachers have access and initiative to find information outside of the textbook's realm. The problems plaguing other states around issues of state-mandated textbooks or state-legislated teachings have not reached this area as such. These teachers

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are aware of the textbook bias and inform their students of such. Even more could perhaps be done here, but these six teachers have found ways in which to broaden their knowledge base and it has allowed them to grow in content knowledge in ways that alleviate complete dependence on textbooks. Several teachers acknowledged that they had gleaned much of their early teaching content from textbooks. This research found that teachers moved away from dependence on a textbook for the most part once they established their teaching practice over a span of years, except for Reid. Reid used the textbook daily, but he interjected many of his own stories throughout his lectures. Perhaps he did this to hold his students accountable to their reading assignments as content coverage is high priority for middle and high school teachers. Good U. S. history teaching does not necessarily imply not using textbooks, but rather it is encouraged to diversify and include other evidence for students to examine.

Historical thinking and inquiry

I have already discussed this aim at length in the historical thinking section at the beginning of this chapter and in the primary source section that preceded. One of the six, Reid, declined moving toward this aim as there was only so much time to teach (lecture) content , and he didn't feel he could take the time for them to construct their own knowledge. He definitely felt pressure as an A.P. teacher to get his students ready for the A.P. test. Reid did address 'presentism' early in the semester and referred back to this idea time and again in his lectures (chapter 4, p.92). Clint only allowed inquiry projects on time periods that he didn't feel were vitally important for students to have the content about. His belief was that the students would not get as much out of it and the misinformation or left out information from other students presentations would make it

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less than worthwhile ("Clint", 2010). So, five of the six incorporated historical thinking and inquiry some of the time, but Emily was the only one who disrupted the narrative all of the time through her use of inquiry. Every time I was in her class, students were researching and constructing their own knowledge and making up their own minds about issues and events. She held a minority stance that made inquiry as important as content coverage.

As for historical thinking, teachers were definitely situating their students within the context of the times that they were studying (imagine if…p.121.), but thinking like a historian and using evidence, checking sources, or thinking about what else was going on at the time appeared less often. There were few instances where all steps of elaboration that historical thinking requires took place as Wineburg suggested. If time were infinite, I think most of these teachers would have delved deeper into historical thinking concepts. As it was, content coverage reigned as students had tests to take and teachers as well as students were accountable for large bulks of information. Teachers had to make conscientious curricular decisions about what to accomplish and how acceptable inquiry was perceived to include projects and papers, but not necessarily analysis of artifacts.

Big ideas

Three of the six teachers appeared to intentionally incorporate big ideas by either writing them in lesson plans or commenting about them. Clint implied big ideas in his discussion of destiny, as in Manifest Destiny (chapter 4, p. 96). Kristen used backward design incorporating big ideas and enduring questions to drive her lesson planning as did Emily. All of the teachers taught chronologically and covered state standards as they interpreted what that meant in their own schema of teaching. All six teachers implied big

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ideas by virtue of topics that transcended time such as racism or ethnocentrism. For example, Reid's story about humans thinking other humans inferior implies a big idea, but it was not designed to carry the whole unit (chapter 4, p.92). Kristen is the only teacher who mentioned big ideas as a method that she always used. Emily described a similar process when she explained how she thought about planning, but sometimes it was a theme, but not a big idea. Using big ideas and explicitly talking about ideas that transcended time did not appear often in the majority of these teachers written or observed lessons. Perhaps the content driven classrooms didn't lend itself to teaching these overarching ideas as much as the all contained classrooms of the elementary schools. The big ideas were usually incidental. For the most part, the tendency here was to 'tell' or 'imply' big ideas, not use explicit or intentional thought-provoking teaching to thread an idea throughout a unit.

Lecture

In the middle school, Kerry was more prone to give lecture than either Kristen or Kasey, but both Kristen and Kasey gave lectures when they felt it was appropriate. Four of the six teachers were storytellers (dominant or sub-dominant), and Reid and Kerry, the history majors, would have been the most trained as historians, yet, as mentioned before, they consistently chose lecture over historical thinking and inquiry. As explained in chapter four, Reid began many lectures with "It is my interpretation that…" (p. 92). As for reflecting about his own teaching practice, he said that he lectures because he can "sell this." There is some truth to doing what you believe in because if anyone can tell you are faking something, it would be students. Either you need to believe in what you are doing

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(the activity of choice), or you should not do it, because kids at the middle and high school level will not buy in if you, as the teacher don't.

As some research indicates, it doesn't really matter on test scores if students are taught by direct instruction or through inquiry and some research suggests that direct instructed students score better on tests (Grant, 2003; Parker, 1993). Who can argue with Reid's teaching style when there is no fool-proof answer for or against lecturing when a main goal is content coverage.

Memorization

Two of six teachers made memorization a part of their teaching practice. Reid and Kasey both expected students to memorize certain factoids, but Reid also expected his students to be able to make educated guesses due to an understanding of trends and time periods (p.93). Kasey consistently asked students to list or write three things (p. 113). I am not sure if this was with the intention of having them memorize things or the intention of keeping students on task. All six teachers expected students to memorize pieces of history, but I didn't observe the drills or rote memory exercises of the past.

Conclusion and Implication

All in all, these teachers addressed the aims of the local grant, and at the very least were in the first phases of implementing new strategies. Projects such as this give teachers opportunities to learn new ideas from experts and from each other. We should not expect teachers to be at the mastery level using these strategies because then we would need to ask, "Why did TAH team leaders choose strategies that teachers already used well?" The Teaching American History grants were intended to help teachers gain content

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knowledge and, in turn, deliver that knowledge to their students. This did happen as all teachers in this study wanted the content knowledge and I observed them directly using some of this new content in their classrooms. Teachers were very concerned with content coverage and that seemed to drive everything else.

Once a topic was studied at a workshop, most teachers immediately started thinking about how they could use that content in their classes. How this transferred into their actual teaching practice could be very different depending upon their dominant teaching style, student needs, state standards, and time constraints. I did find that teacher typology appeared to matter the most when pedagogical decisions were made. Teachers who were inquiry-driven were more likely to incorporate the aims of using primary sources, historical thinking and inquiry, and big ideas into their practice. Maybe this is because these aims lend to that type of teaching or maybe because those types of teachers knew how to incorporate these things into their classrooms because they had already been doing it somewhat. Much of the time, lecture-based teachers *told* their students about these things and what to look for without actually having students find and use evidence. Implications for TAH projects would be to define more thoroughly what was meant by the term "use primary sources" or "thinking historically" and model how to "do" this in the classroom with students.

Multiple perspectives was the one strategy that all six teachers used consistently and proficiently. The teachers were conscientious about including the aims of the grant when making curricular decisions, especially when they were designing TAH lessons. When designing other lessons, they were aware of the ability to use these techniques and sometimes they chose to use them and sometimes they did not. If they had used them for

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every lesson, then the strategies could perhaps have become just more of the same for the students. They thoughtfully chose which topics they wanted to incorporate more primary sources into as well as historical thinking and inquiry though few of the lessons were driven by big ideas.

The teacher typologies appeared to play a large role in whether or not the teachers were open to students getting to "think like historians." They inquiry-driven teachers had this component in nearly every lesson all of the time, but the storytellers had to stretch to allow their students the opportunity to construct their own knowledge. Even Kerry, who really wanted to do more inquiry had a very hard time giving up the control that lecture allowed (p. 119). Teacher need for control is perhaps bound up in that almighty content coverage, even evident when teachers made decisions about what may or may not be acceptable inquiry. Pedagogical stances, perhaps closely related to teaching philosophies and maybe even personality, seemed to drive how teachers experienced this grant and implemented its aims. Those teachers who were open to new teaching practices did incorporate lots of new strategies and materials into their lessons. The majority of teachers were willing to develop large new units, try them out, refine them, and try them again. This required an enormous amount of effort, and the teachers willingly took upon the extra work that comes with participation in a grant project. The grant employed expert historians who delivered stellar workshops and teachers walked away with content that they could use and sometimes the content helped form new comprehensions.

The life-long love of learning is apparent in teachers who volunteer to work outside the normal parameters of the school work day. This study was about teachers' experiences in a TAH professional development, and I found that given the opportunity,

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the majority of teachers were open to new ideas that they could try in their classrooms. Professional development should be over a significant period of time and aims should be brought up in regular increments so that teachers have a chance to reflect on new strategies and content, try them, refine them, and reflect again before deciding whether or not certain strategies work with their students. There are times when new activities do not go so well and teachers need time to dissect what the problems were and figure out how to redo the activity in a different engaging and meaningful manner or as teachers would say "work out the kinks." So what does it mean to teach quality U. S. history? Perhaps it means that a teacher is willing to try new things year after year so they and their students can lead the way into the 21st century. The next century is certain to be driven by factual text; therefore, inquiry, as well as critical thinking, including analysis, are skills that would benefit young adults in order to successfully navigate throughout the rest of their lives.

The less-experienced teachers had a smaller repertoire from which to pull ideas, materials, and content. Harris found in a preliminary analysis that when [pre-service teachers] [we]re encouraged to attend to pedagogical issues while learning history, they begin to develop (or discuss) the types of connections found in earlier studies of more experienced teachers, as well as sharpen their capacity to 'see' teaching"(Harris, 2011, p. 16). Given a new project, I would not only define terms as to how they were meant to be used, I would also have teachers note *how* they were being taught and connect that to how they could teach their students the content that was also being delivered. At the very least it would call attention to the teaching strategies that the workshop experts modeled, and we could have rich discussions about how that could or could not work for them as teachers and why. This could pull along those teachers who were not thinking in those

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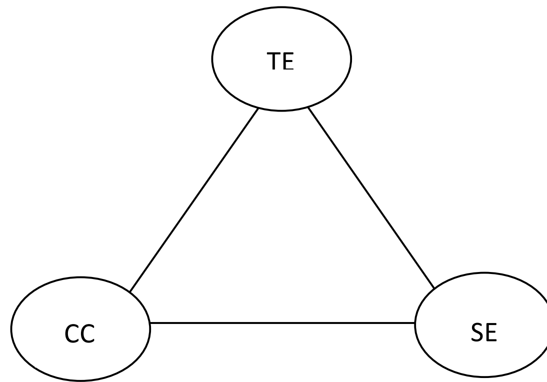
terms on their own. Seasoned teachers who stay current are always thinking about how to use something they come across in their classrooms, but perhaps new teachers don't think like that yet.

Imagine, if you will, a professional development model for U. S. history teachers that includes the emphasis on Content Coverage (CC) that this study suggests is a priority among teachers, as well as a concentration on Teacher Engagement (TE) and Student Engagement (SE),



Intellectual stimulation through delivery of meaningful and challenging content and discussion with the teachers could lead to high teacher engagement which equals enthusiasm, passion, and excitement for topics which is then taken into the classroom and entices more student engagement. These core components could drive the way for future TAH grants and help make more of an impact in the classroom. Teacher Engagement was mentioned as either a need for 'keeping things fresh' or 'not boring' as well as 'having fun' in the classroom. Under this umbrella, teacher engagement and intellectual curiosity could be encouraged through broadening the definition of acceptable inquiry for teachers that includes more analysis driven activities and materials for them and their students, better preparing students for 21st century thinking skills. Student engagement was also a

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top priority and through teacher enthusiasm as well as highly engaging content, teachers could build lesson plans around big ideas that students could revisit.

Future research could look at the cosmopolitan citizen as we now live in a global society. Our students gain information from worldwide sources, and there is a high likelihood that they may work in an international setting. In an age when reading informational text is such an important thing, if history teachers could get students to read primary source materials with understanding and a critical eye, then students would be much better prepared to read and understand sources in the real world. One idea that I find intriguing is to teach a new U. S. history survey course that could internationalize American history. Osbourne called for following four basic steps when developing lessons. "First, prepare and distribute global and national chronologies for the topic to be covered. Second, open each topic with a vignette that lifts the subject matter out of traditional context and situates it in a broader, spatially and temporally expanded, international framework. Third, search out connections between happenings in the United States and developments beyond America's borders, and fourth, consider American exceptionalism (how U S is both similar to and different from other nations) by exploring historical features that may be unique or merely distinctive, defining, or unusual regarding the United States"(Osbourne, 2003, p. 166).

Imagine a U.S. history class that situated America in the global context and the metadiscourse that it would allow. In this age of travel, people can get nearly anywhere on the face of the earth in one day's time. Imagine the understandings we could gain as cosmopolitan citizens if we taught from a global lens. According to VanSledright, " In

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information-laden, pluralistic democracies, capabilities for thinking through, assessing, and evaluating the plethora of political, product, and media claims that appear in startling numbers every day may well be understood as necessities (chapter 1, p. 27). To bring about such an undertaking in history, we would have to have students who could comprehend, interpret, and analyze things in a sophisticated manner. Strategies like the ones employed in this grant lead to depth and connection and ways of thinking that surpassed surface learning. No more inch deep and mile wide curriculum.

Teachers should also model using primary sources and explicitly talk about how they found their source, why they believe it is valid, what bias there may be in the source and how they know things, in short, *talk aloud* about how they analyze and evaluate items when they are making choices about what to believe to model to students how intelligent decisions can be made. Students could glean much from learning more about the thinking process that goes along with learning and how important it is to decipher information that is valid and has integrity from information that does not. There is a great emphasis on reading informational text and this connects to reading non-fiction text in the social studies classroom. We simply must find the time that it takes to allow students to make meaning from text, such as sourcing, contextualizing, evaluating, analyzing, and questioning it (chapter 2, p. 67). The same could be said of photographs and images. For example, today's world allows for Photoshop and its easy capabilities to alter images so they 'appear' to be something they are not, so it is more important today than ever to critically think about the information that we see presented. We can teach these skills in the classroom.

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New findings in the field could lead to more ideas as to how to teach using these aims or other strategies to pre-service and in-service teachers. As teachers are exposed to and experience new strategies and content, they could implement them as easily as these six teachers did. It appears we must take into consideration how important content coverage is to teachers and work within that realm. Their jobs simply depend on this, at least for the time-being. More research could be done that could inform legislators about the needs in the 21st century that include analyzing information that is presented instead of knowing fact after fact after fact.

We might need to respect wide variation of teaching styles just as we respect the wide variation of learning styles in our students. These six teachers worked from a place that was true to themselves and a study about teaching styles and how to broaden the comfort zone for teachers entrenched in certain stances would be worthwhile. A study about school systems and obligations at that level beyond teaching content is also needed. Politicians are currently setting agendas within schools without understanding the overall duties and expectations of teaching that encompasses far more than content. A mixed study of TAH projects could also be beneficial. Using quantitative data and matching that with qualitative material would certainly lead to research that could be helpful to others beginning a grant project or to teachers of social studies who want to know how students learn best. Having deep and rich descriptors help us understand the complexity of teaching history.

Teachers have the power to help people see their potential and the classroom discourse can powerfully shape who students think they are and who they can become. "History is the best at teaching those virtues once reserved for theology-humility in the

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face of our limited ability to know, and awe in the face of the expanse of human history" (S. Wineburg, 2001b, p. 24).

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Appendix

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Appendix A: Themes

Year One

- *Thinking Historically:* The project begins with an introduction to historical thinking, which is fundamental to national and Indiana standards for U.S history. The focus on primary sources as the raw material of history will move teachers toward developing the skills of historical thinking and analysis that can allow them to revise, deepen, and broaden their content knowledge in regard to the following themes.
- *A New Nation:* Focusing on the founding and early development of the nation, a key content goal is to connect eighteenth-century North Americans to the larger trans-Atlantic world and examine how colonials built, within that larger world, an independent nation and a distinctive people. The Indiana case selected to illuminate this process is the Northwest Ordinance, Thomas Jefferson's plan to create a representative government west of the Appalachians.
- *Antebellum Government and Economy:* Because building on the founding generation's political and constitutional achievement proved so complex, content in this session centers on political controversies and turning points. Teachers will study several key political documents to understand the challenges of creating democratic government in a nation deeply divided, yet sharing basic ideals. The Missouri Compromise, the Kansas-Nebraska Act, and the Indiana case of Mary Clark will offer primary sources and contexts for understanding the debate over slavery.
- *Pioneers: Red and White:* Pioneer stories are central to history teaching in Indiana schools. The workshop will build on that interest and on the need to introduce teachers

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to more sophisticated ways of thinking about early settlers beyond the standard log cabin stories. Teachers will learn about black settlers and Native Americans as well as majority white pioneers. Gender will be introduced into the story through the Indiana Constitutional Convention debate of 1850 - 1851 over granting women the right to vote. Comparisons to "pioneers" in other national regions will offer comparative contexts.

- *Book Discussion:* Sam Wineburg's widely-respected book, Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts, will provide theoretical perspectives for a key feature of the project. A second book, *Frontier Indiana*, will offer insight into leaders and ordinary people.
- *Field Trips*: These thematic workshops will integrate with field trips to Historic Harmony, a premier utopian community; Wylie House, an antebellum museum; and the Eiteljorg Museum, a museum of Native Americans, highlighting Miami and Potawatomi peoples.

Year Two

- *Slavery and Anti-Slavery:* Teachers will study key sources in the political debate over slavery. Indiana was a central location for the Underground Railroad, which resulted in the creation of numerous free black communities where definitions of black and white were often debated. Teachers will also learn to work with artifacts, images, and documents from the Monroe County History Museum and from on-line sources.
- *Civil War:* Partisan conflict and even disloyalty and treason tested Indiana as they did the nation. Indiana's governor and the nation's president worked together to save Indiana for the Union, even as they each pushed toward their limits of constitutional

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powers. The *Ex Parte Milligan* case offers excellent opportunities to introduce teachers to these complex issues. Teachers will also work with letters and diaries of soldiers and home front civilians in the Monroe County Historical Society collections.

- *Progressive and New Deal Reform:* Content will center on constitutional and legal issues, to help teachers understand the ongoing American struggle with change and continuity within the boundaries of the founding principles. Waves of reform run through the nation's history, as exemplified, for example, in the Brandeis brief. Indiana reform movements include those led by Senator Albert Beveridge. Mixed with reform are cases of tradition and continuity, including the Indiana Ku Klux Klan. All cases produced classic documents for analysis.
- *Book Discussion:* Because Abraham Lincoln grew up in Indiana, cases from Lincoln's life will weave through all seminars in Year Two. We will read *There I Grew Up: Remembering Abraham Lincoln's Indiana Youth,* which focuses on Lincoln's years in Indiana. The book's author, William Bartelt, will guide the discussion. The other book will be *Citizen Klansmen,* a compelling analysis of a subject that continues to intrigue teachers and scholars.
- *Field Trips:* At Conner Prairie, an outstanding living history museum, teachers will experience life as pre-Civil War Hoosiers did. Teachers will participate in an award winning program on the Underground Railroad, "Follow the North Star." A second field trip will visit the Civil War Museum, constructed within the largest Civil War monument in the nation.

Year Three

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- *World War II:* Content will focus on economic and social change brought by the war, with particular attention to selected primary sources showing women's roles in war industries, rationing, and family life. Because of the abundance of oral history sources, teachers will learn how to use these primary sources and help their student do oral history interviews.
- *The 1950s and 1960s:* Recent scholarship allows more thoughtful means of understanding these two key decades, which are becoming increasingly important in classroom teaching. Including analysis of music and film, this workshop not only will help teachers understand Indiana notables, such as Hoagie Carmichael and James Dean, but also will enhance teachers' ability to use such sources. In addition, teachers will examine ethnic diversity.
- *Global America:* Hoosiers have long prided themselves on their independence, but like other Americans they recognize connections between local and global. Indiana cases will include analysis of the significance of three Japanese auto manufacturing plants in the state. Teachers will examine how over the last three decades global and local have integrated (or not) and how change has allowed and challenged adherence to the nation's founding principles.
- *Book Discussion. A Lynching in the Heartland: Race and Memory in America,* an Indiana case study, will be used as a window into issues of race in America. The book's author, James Madison, will guide discussion. We will also read *Our Towns*, which uses Indiana sources to understand the value of oral history and links between local and national trends.

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- *Field Trips.* The Indiana State Museum's field trip, led by the senior curator, will focus on twentieth-century artifacts and exhibits. The Indiana Historical Society's library will offer hands-on experience with examples of our most precious documents and also participation in the new "Indiana Experience," which includes "The History Lab" and "Destination Indiana."

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Appendix B: Seminar Topics

Year	Theme	History Seminars
I	Thinking Historically: An Overview	• Dr. James H. Madison, "Primary Sources, Local History, and Learning and Teaching American History" • Elaine Larson, "Locating and Using Digital Primary Sources"
	A New Nation	• Dr. Konstantin Dierks, "Colonial People in an Atlantic World," • Dr. Sarah Knott, "The New Americans in the New Nation" • Dr. Glenda Murray and Jill Lesh, "Using the Monroe County Historical Society to Teach American History"
	Antebellum Government and Economy	• Dr. Wendy Gamber, "Political Documents in Antebellum America" • Dr. Kristin Sword, "Slavery and Indentured Labor: Mary Clark" • Dr. Eric Sandweiss, "Using Local Places to Teach American History"
	Pioneers: Red and White	• Dr. James H. Madison, "Life in the Log Cabin and Beyond" • Dr. Christina Snyder, "Native Americans: Resistance,

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		Adaptation, and Removal" • Dr. Lynne Boyle-Baise and Leana McClain; Pat Wilson and Connie Ables, "Powerful Strategies for Teaching History"
II	Slavery and Anti-Slavery	• Dr. Amrita Myers, "Black Americans, the Underground Railroad and Abolition • Dr. Ed Linenthal, "From Lincoln's Bloody Pillow to the Corydon Constitutional Elm: Using Objects to Teach American History"
	Civil War	• Dr. James Madison, "President Lincoln and Governor Morton: Copperheads, Civil Liberties, and the Trials of the Union" • Dr. Glenda Murray and Jill Lesh, "Using the Monroe County Historical Society to Teach American History"
	Progressive and New Deal Reform	• Dr. Michael Grossberg, "The American Constitution and the Challenges of Reform" • Dr. Lynne Boyle-Baise and Leana McClain; Pat Wilson and Connie Ables, "Powerful Strategies for Teaching History"
III	World War II	• Dr. James Madison, "American Homefront during the 'Good War" • Dr. Barbara Truesdell, "Oral Histories as Primary Sources in Teaching American History"

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	The 1950s & 1960s	• Dr. John Bodnar, "The Fifties and Sixties" • Dr. John Nieto-Phillips, "Ethnicity and the Ties that Divide and Bind" • Dr. Glenda Murray and Jill Lesh "Using the Monroe County Historical Society to Teach American History"
	Global America	• Dr. Nick Cullather, "From Small Towns to a Global World" • Dr. Lynne Boyle-Baise and Leana McClain; Pat Wilson and Connie Ables, "Powerful Strategies for Teaching History"

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Appendix C: Semi-structured Background Interview

Background /case study interview

Past and Current Pedagogical Stance

Q. 1. Tell me about growing up and how you remember education being a part of your life?

Q. 2. How did you figure out what you wanted to do as a career?

Q. 3. What appealed to you about teaching?

Q. 5. How did you sign up for this TAH grant?

Q. 4. How do you feel about your choice?

Q. 5. What do you find most interesting as a teacher?

Q. 6. What do you find least interesting or motivating in your job?

Q.7. How would you describe yourself or label your style of teaching?

Q. 8. Tell me about a typical day in the classroom when you were first teaching.

Q. 9. Tell me about a typical day now in your classroom.

Past and current efficacy of teachers

Q. 1**.** Before the grant began, how were you handling multiple perspectives in your classroom?

Were your students aware of the multiple perspectives found in history?

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How effective or confident do you currently feel about multiple perspective use?

Do you think using multiple perspectives is essential in the history classroom?

Are you open to increasing this approach?

Can you tell me more about that?

Q. 2. Before the grant did you incorporate primary sources?

Did you spend time analyzing these primary sources with your class?

How effective or confident do you currently feel about primary source use?

Do you think using primary sources is essential in the history classroom?

Are you open to increasing this approach?

Can you tell me more about that?

Q. 3. Before the grant in what ways did you increase your own content knowledge in American history?

Would you have considered reading scholarly historical literature from journals, etc…?

How effective or confident do you currently feel about content knowledge?

Do you think that reading scholarly journals and articles is essential to your professional development?

Are you open to increasing this approach?

Can you tell me more about that?

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Q. 4.Before the grant began in what ways did you use historical thinking and inquiry in your classroom?

How effective or confident do you currently feel about historical thinking and inquiry use?

Do you think using historical thinking and inquiry skills are essential in the history classroom?

Are you open to increasing this approach?

Can you tell me more about that?

Q. 5. Before the grant how did you incorporate big ideas into your units or lessons?

Did you try to pull things together thematically and explicitly inform the students or draw them back to the big idea routinely?

Do you think big ideas are essential to the learning process?

Are you open to using this approach?

Can you tell me more about that?

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Appendix D: Spindler Methodology (partial list)

I. Observations are contextualized, both in the immediate setting and in further contexts as relevant

II. Hypotheses emerge *in situ* as the study continues

III. Observation is prolonged and repetitive.

IV. The native view is attended through inferences from observation and through the various forms of ethnographic inquiry (interviews, other eliciting procedures); however, places are made from which native voices may be "heard"

X. Collect more live data

XI. The presence of the ethnographer should be acknowledged and his or her social, personal, interactional position in the situation described. (G. D. Spindler, 1997, p. 74).

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Appendix: E 1 Living History Park

Your assignment is to construct a living history park depicting the culture of a specific Native American group. As the designers of the park, you will create a visual model of life in your selected civilization. This exhibit should include many types of configurations such as a diorama, maps, pictures, examples of specific aspects of the lifestyle, and a timeline. Factors to consider are geography (including climate); subsistence strategy (food sources and trade); government; warfare; religion; arts (music, dance, sculpture, painting, etc…); family structure; gender roles; housing; clothing; major events; stories; population; and anything else you deem relevant. Depending on your civilization, some aspects will be more important than others so you will have to choose what to emphasize. After setting up your living history park, you will present this project to the class.

The exhibit **must** include: (100 points)

- Where group was/is located
- Timeline up to the present
- Shelter
- Clothing
- Major food sources
- Spiritual beliefs
- Artistic endeavors
- Encounters with others (trade, warfare, etc…)
- Family and gender structure
- Short biography of a member of the native group

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Current status of the tribal group (10 points)

Bibliography – minimum of 3 sources (10 points)

Presentation to the class: (20 points)

Appearance of the exhibit: (30 points)

Adapted from *World History Continuity and Change*; Holt, Rinehart and Winston 1997

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Appendix: E 2 Rubric – Living History Park

Exhibit Requirements:

1. **Group location** – description, map, past, current	2	4	6	8	10
2. **Timeline** – past to present	2	4	6	8	10
3. **Shelter** – types, materials used,	2	4	6	8	10
4. **Clothing** – materials used, types	2	4	6	8	10
5. **Major food sources** – main products, agriculture, hunting	2	4	6	8	10
6. **Spiritual beliefs**	2	4	6	8	10
7. **Artistic endeavors** – stories, music, painting, sculpture, etc…	2	4	6	8	10
8. **Encounters with others** – types and treatment, trade, warfare	2	4	6	8	10
9. **Family and Gender structure** – who has what roles, chores, etc…	2	4	6	8	10
10. **Short biography of member of the group -**	2	4	6	8	10

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may be past or present					
Current status of the tribal group – may include web site, federal or state recognition, size	2	4	6	8	10
Bibliography – minimum of 3 sources, correctly cited	2	4	6	8	10
Presentation to the class – all members participate, knowledgeable	2	4	6	8	10
Appearance of the exhibit – neatness, color, placement of objects, variety of forms, correct spelling, punctuation	10	15	20	25	30

Total Points _________/170

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Appendix F: Colonial Painting

An artist who lived in the 19th century made this somewhat prettified portrait of an early colonial kitchen. A real 17th-century kitchen was probably barer and dirtier than this, with less furniture and fewer utensils and pots.

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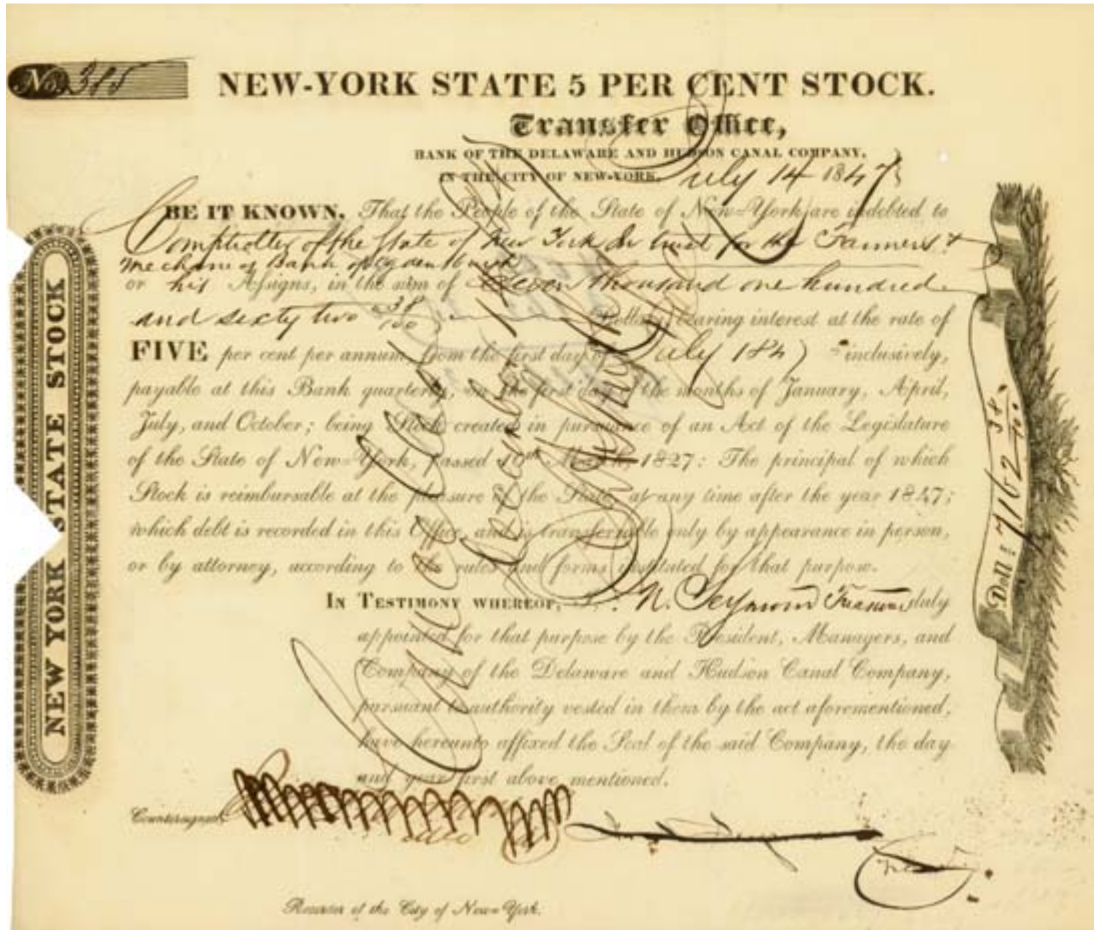
Canal Bond: New-York State 5 Per Cent Stock; New York, 14 July 1847, 5 % Bond of $ 7,162.38, issued by the Transfer Office of the Bank of the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company. These bonds were issued for financing of the building and the enlargement of the Erie Canal. The


No. 345

NEW-YORK STATE 5 PER CENT STOCK.

Transfer Office,

BANK OF THE DELAWARE AND HUDSON CANAL COMPANY,

IN THE CITY OF NEW-YORK. July 14 1847

BE IT KNOWN, That the People of the State of New-York are indebted to Comptroller of the State of New York in trust for the Farmers & Mechanics Bank or his Assigns, in the sum of Seven thousand one hundred and sixty two 38/100 Dollars, bearing interest at the rate of FIVE per cent per annum from the first day of July 184 inclusively, payable at this Bank quarterly, on the first day of the months of January, April, July, and October; being Stock created in pursuance of an Act of the Legislature of the State of New-York, passed 10th March 1827: The principal of which Stock is reimbursable at the pleasure of the State at any time after the year 1847; which debt is recorded in this Office, and is transferable only by appearance in person, or by attorney, according to the rules and forms instituted for that purpose.

IN TESTIMONY WHEREOF, N. Seymour Treasurer duly appointed for that purpose by the President, Managers, and Company of the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, pursuant to authority vested in them by the act aforementioned, have hereunto affixed the Seal of the said Company, the day and year first above mentioned.

Countersigned

Recorder of the City of New-York.

NEW YORK STATE STOCK

Doll.s 7162 38/100

New York State provided 5 per cent interest on the invested money.

From: http://www.stampcircuit.com/Closed_Stamp_Auction/showitems

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Appendix G2

Diary of Rachel Wilmer

Travel Journal (1834)

Here is more of Rachel Wilmer's diary. Like many others, Rachel toured the Canal to see the marvelous sights.

Rachel was impressed with what she saw, but she found Canal travel slow and boring, and by the end of the trip she was anxious to get home to her family.

What did Rachel say?

Here is what Rachel Wilmer said:

"...We arrived at Rochester before 6. Went immediately on board boat and now in the Canal moving slowly but delightfully one retired and had a tolerable nights rest. Tuesday awoke lying at Palmyra. Now about 12 at a town called Lion which we passed in the night

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before. In this boat the Ceres we often stop so I amuse myself fishing but oh! how heavily time goes in advancing towards home.

...The gentlemen amuse themselves gunning here there is an advantage in this manner of travel. We have much amusement in the maids who cordially hate each other. We are now at the salt works and have got a piece in the crude state. Now at Syracuse a large and thriving town. Stop to weigh the boat which was curious. Edwin gone shopping for fruit.

...This evening we went on shore and took a long walk in attempting to get on the boat Anna's foot slipped and she fell in and had a narrow escape from getting her feet mashed but with the assistance of two gentlemen got off with only a ducking.

...Still on this great canal 3,300 boats on here and about 6,800 horses. There are about 85 locks. This evening about 11 miles from Utica lying on the Canal in company with 40 boats and scows waiting for some repairs in the locke. In consequence of which we cannot get along. Oh how tedious and tasteless the hours which hinder me from seeing my children."

From: http://www.archives.nysed.gov/projects/eriecanal/ec_questions1830_wilmer3.shtml

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Appendix G3

George Washington

One of George Washington's dreams was the connection of the Ohio River with the seaboard. On the one hand via the Potomac River and on the other hand via Lake Erie and the St. Lawrence. In a letter to Secretary of War Knox, he mentioned the very short portage between the upper waters of the Wabash and the Maumee near the site of Fort Wayne as *"the most feasible point for water communications between the Ohio and Lake Erie*." *Old Towpaths. Alvin F, Harlow 1926 D. Appleton Co.*

From:http://www.terrypepper.com/w&e/background.htm

Thomas Jefferson

Thomas Jefferson's best known connection with the Erie Canal is his famous quote warning that the whole project was... LITTLE SHORT OF MADNESS. He couldn't have known then, that one of the most valuable contributions of his presidency - namely the purchase of the Louisiana Territory from France in 1803 - had the unexpected outcome of creating an economic crisis in this country sixteen years later that greatly contributed to the Erie's completion.

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"Why sir," Jefferson said, "here is a canal for a few miles, projected by George Washington, which if completed, would render this a fine commercial city, which has languished for many years because the small sum of 200,000 dollars neccessary to complete it, cannot be obtained from the general government, the state government, or from individuals--and you talk of making a canal 350 miles through the wilderness--it is a little short of madness to think of it at this day." (Hosack, 346)

From: http://www.lowbridgeproductions.com/videos.html

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Appendix G4

[This return is to be made by the Collectors at New-York, Albany, West Troy and Waterford, and is to correspond with and accompany each weekly abstract.]

WEEKLY STATEMENT

Showing the quantity of the several articles First Cleared on the Canals at, and the quantity Left at West Troy for W. T. *during the* 4th *week in* Oct *186*3

MERCHANDISE CLEARED.

ARTICLES.	On Erie Canal.	On Champlain Canal.	TOTAL.
Sugar at 2 mills, ... pounds,			
Molasses, " .... "			
Coffee, " .... "			
Nails, " .... "			
Iron, " .... "			
Railroad Iron, " .... "			
All other merchandise at 2 mills, ... "			
TOTAL, ...			

	Left from Erie Canal.	Left from Champlain Canal.	TOTAL.
Flour, ... barrels,	33.1114		33.1114
Wheat, ... bushels,	1.040.860		1.1140.860
Corn, ... "	131.583		131.583
Barley, ... "	150.607		150 607
Rye, ... "	18.113		18.113
Oats, ... "	639.976	3.1111	642.976
Bran and Ship Stuffs, ... pounds,	1.2111.6111		1. 2111. 6111
Ashes, ... barrels,	32		32
Beef, ... "	88		88
Pork, ... "			
Bacon, ... pounds,			
Butter, ... "	1.087.4111	300	1 .087.700
Lard, ... "	40.1111		40.1111
Cheese, ... "	1.659.1111	1.500	1, 659. 0111
Wool, ... "	15.900		15.900
Domestic Spirits, ... gallons,	30.585		31.585

I CERTIFY the above to be correct,

W. L. Sunderlin

Collector.

From: http://www.laguardiawagnerarchive.lagcc.cuny.edu/eriecanal/Rules.html

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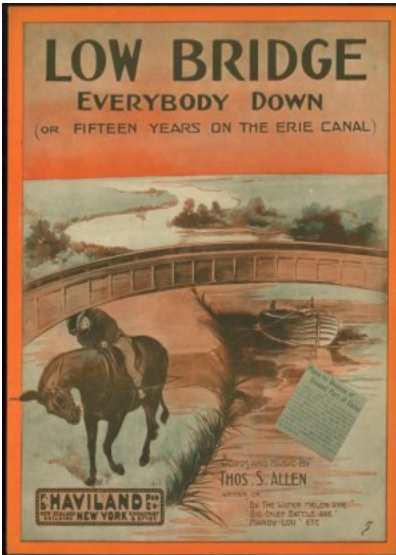
Appendix G5

Erie Canal Song



Written by Thomas S. Allen

The Erie Canal Song, as it is commonly known by today, was written in 1905 under the title *Low Bridge, Everybody Down* about life on the **Erie Canal.** In addition to the *The Erie Canal Song* and *Low Bridge, Everybody Down* titles, the song has also been referred to by the following names over the years: *Fifteen Years on the Erie Canal*, *Mule Named Sal* and *Fifteen Miles on the Erie Canal*. Around 1905 mule powered barge traffic had converted to steam power and diesel power was about to take over. *The Erie Canal Song* was written to commemorate the history of nearly 100 years of life along the Erie Canal.

The Erie Canal Song is the most recognized of all the Erie Canal folksongs. Its interesting to note that the cover depicts a boy riding a mule leaned down to fit under a bridge, but in actuality the song is about the people in the boats. Travelers would typically ride on the roof of boats when the conditions allowed, but the low bridges along the route would require that they either duck down or get off the roof to fit under bridges.

Lyric Variations

Like most folk songs, the lyrics (and title!) of *The Erie Canal Song* has changed over time. The most obvious changes from Thomas Allen's original version has been changing the word *years* to *miles*. Allen's original version commemorates 15 years of working along the canal with Sal. The new version using the word *miles* refers to the average distance a mule would tow a barge before resting or being relieved by another mule.

Another change is in the second verse. The current line: "Git up there mule, here comes a lock" is a change from the original line: "Get up there gal, we've passed that lock". The current version does not necessary make as much sense as the former. The former refers to how mules would rest while waiting for barges to lock through, and then need to be instructed when to start again. The current implies speeding up when a lock is within site. Without breaks or a simple way to slow a barge, this would not necessarily be the best course of action.

Author Information

Thomas S. Allen (1876-1919) was an early Tin Pan Alley composer with many popular songs not related to the canal life. His first major his was *Any Rags* in 1903, only two years before that of the *Erie Canal Song*.

Note: The Erie Canal Song lyrics are an example of a *primary source*. The words were sung at the time people were working or riding on the canal to help pass the time, making tedious tasks easier. This song in particular is from the perspective of a canal-boat mule driver.

Source: "Erie Canal Song." *Erie Canal Song*. Web. 18 Nov. 2010. <http://www.eriecanalsong.com/>.

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The Erie Canal Song Lyrics

I've got an old mule and her name is Sal
Fifteen years on the Erie Canal
She's a good old worker and a good old pal
Fifteen years on the Erie Canal
We've hauled some barges in our day
Filled with lumber, coal, and hay
And every inch of the way we know
From Albany to Buffalo

Chorus:
Low bridge, everybody down
Low bridge for we're coming to a town
And you'll always know your neighbor
And you'll always know your pal
If you've ever navigated on the Erie Canal

We'd better look 'round for a job old gal
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
'Cause you bet your life I'd never part with Sal
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
Git up there mule, here comes a lock
We'll make Rome 'bout six o'clock
One more trip and back we'll go
Right back home to Buffalo

Chorus

Oh, where would I be if I lost my pal?
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
Oh, I'd like to see a mule as good as Sal
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
A friend of mine once got her sore
Now he's got a busted jaw,
'Cause she let fly with her iron toe,
And kicked him in to Buffalo.

Chorus

Don't have to call when I want my Sal
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
She trots from her stall like a good old gal
Fifteen miles on the Erie Canal
I eat my meals with Sal each day
I eat beef and she eats hay
And she ain't so slow if you want to know
She put the "Buff" in Buffalo

Chorus

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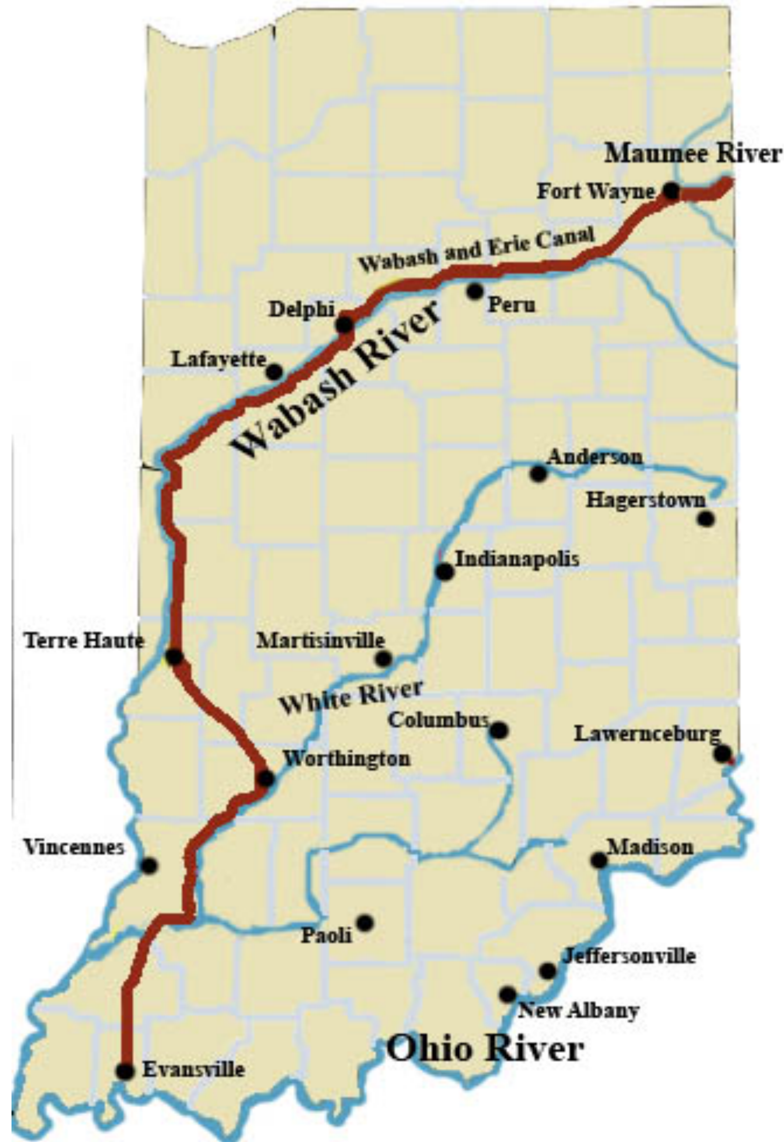
Appendix G6

The Wabash and Erie Canal in Indiana



From: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wabash_and_Erie_Canal

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Appendix G7

Opening Day on the Erie canal You were there!

Just imagine! One of the biggest moments in transportation history and YOU WERE THERE!

Directions:

1. Fill in the chart below with information from the Primary Resources packet that will help you better understand the background and operation of the Erie Canal.
2. Use the information from your chart, class discussion on the Erie Canal Song, and the 'Americans on the Move' power point to help you write a newspaper article – see below.

Primary Source	Information
Washington Quote	
Jefferson Quote	
Wilmer Diary	
Merchandise Statement	
Canal Bond	
Map	

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Write: Write a newspaper article about opening day on the Erie Canal. You can be reporting from either in New York or in Indiana. Use the information from class discussions and your notes from the Primary Source packet to help you. Be sure to give the most important details first: What's going on, where it is taking place, and when. You then want to give more in-depth details, like how long is the canal, what feelings were the citizens exhibiting, what are some opinions (consider different perspectives – some may support it, others oppose it), who are the main people involved, why is this a significant event, how will this help the state, region, country. All good reporters include interviews and quotes in their writings. Use a quote from one of the primary resources or make up a quote that would be reasonable for the event. REMEMBER – you are there so write in present tense!

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Connie J. Ables

133 Old Grayce Lane, Carmel, Indiana 46032
cjables@indiana.edu and conniebls@yahoo.com
(812)701-6889

Education

- Doctorate of Philosophy, Curriculum and Instruction, Indiana University (Fall 2008 – Present)
  1. Major: Curriculum Studies
     Focus Areas: General Methods, Social Studies Methods, Diversity in Learning, Multicultural Education, Qualitative Methodology
  2. Minor Concentration: History
- Olivet Nazarene University, Master of Education (2001) Curriculum and Instruction GPA:4.0/4.0
  Master's Thesis: Reading in the High Schools: Student Choice
- Indiana University Southeast (1996)
  Addition to previous Bachelor of Science
  Minor: English GPA: 3.96/4.0
- Indiana University Southeast (1986)
  Bachelor of Science: Social Studies Secondary Education
  Major: United States History; Minors: Government; Sociology; Junior High Endorsement United States History
  GPA:3.54/4.0
- Indiana State University (1984)
  Bachelor of Science: Criminology

Education Experience

Franklin College, Franklin, Indiana

2011- present

- Assistant Professor of Education

IU Bloomington

2008- present

- Project Assistant Director (2009-2012), Indiana University and Monroe Country Schools for the Teaching American History Project http://www.tahindiana.org/
  - Facilitate Pedagogical training
  - Coordinate seminars/workshops/excursions
  - Review Lesson Plans and complete classroom observations
  - Work through all budget and logistics concerning grant
- Associate Instructor; Indiana University (2008-2009), Department of Curriculum and Instruction
  - Methods of Secondary Social Studies (M421)
  - Field Experience (M403)
  - Classroom Management (S303)
  - Teaching in a Pluralistic Society (E300)
- Teacher/Mentor Participant, Indiana University, Department of Curriculum and Instruction
  - C200 Panel (2008-present): Future Teachers
  - Armstrong Panel participant (2008): Future teachers

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Presentations

- Ables, C. J. (February 2011). Deconstructing the Curriculum: Controversy of Man A Course of Study. Curriculum and Instruction Research and Activity Symposium at IUB School of Education.
- Ables, C. J. (January 2011). Guest Lecturer: AP Strategies in the Language Arts. IUS School of Education.
- Ables, C. J. and Pat Wilson (November 2010). Posing Multiple Perspectives and Using Primary Sources. National Council of the Social Studies (NCSS) Denver, Colorado.
- Ables, C. J. (October 2010). Guest Lecturer: Working with Parents and Classroom Management. M401 Elementary Methods. IUB School of Education.
- Ables, C. J. (October 2010). AP Strategies: Improving essay writing and analyzing primary documents. Indiana Council of the Social Studies (ICSS) Indianapolis, Indiana.
- Ables, C. J. (Summer Institute 2009- present). Teaching American History Project: Social Studies Curriculum Development Workshops. Bloomington, Indiana.
- Ables, C. J. and Elaine Larson (2009 – present) Center on Congress National Workshop: Primary Sources, Washington, D. C.
- Ables, C. J. et al. (April 2010). MACOS: Man a Course of Study Archeological Review. Society for the Study of Curriculum History (SSCH), Denver Colorado.
- Ables, C.J. (2009). Lessons of Controversial Issues: China and Tibet. National Council of the Social Studies, Atlanta, Georgia. Facilitator: Title VI/Geography and History of the World Professional Development Workshop, Center for Social Studies and International Education, Indiana University (2009).
- Armstrong Teacher Initiation Ceremony (2009) Motivational Speaker. Bloomington, Indiana.
- Ables, C.J. and Kristal Curry (January 2008). RPS: Techniques and Strategies of Classroom Management, Bloomington, Indiana.

Publications

- Goodman, J., Montgomery, S. and C. J. Ables. "Rorty's Social Theory and the Narrative of U.S. History Curriculum." Education and Culture 26 (1) (2010): 3 -22.
- Fry, J., Ables, C.J., Weber, C. and Jesse Goodman. "Hard Pressure on Soft Sciences: A textual and image analysis of MACOS." Journal of Curriculum and History. (In Review).

Curriculum Development Positions

- Curriculum Consultant (Fall 2010). National Geographic Expert Teacher of Social Studies Programs. AIT, Bloomington, Indiana. (In progress).
- Curriculum Consultant (Fall 2009). National Geographic Expert Teacher of Social Studies Programs. AIT, Bloomington, Indiana. http://www.geoteach.org/teacher_resources/lessons/video/pedagogy.mp4
- Curriculum Development: Center for East Asian International Center, Indiana University, (2008).

Madison Consolidated High School

1999-2008

- Teacher, AP/ACP US History, IU Courses H105 & H106
- Teacher U S History, Sociology, Current Issues, and American Literature
- Academic Coach – Decathlon and Super Bowl
- Professional Development Presenter (2007) AP Strategies for Teachers at Austin, IN

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- Professional Development Presenter (2006-07) MCHS and Best Practices
- Advancement via Individual Determination (AVID) Representative
- PTO Chair
- Organized community interactive events such as: Civil War Round Table Presentations, Historic Lanier Home junior docents, overnight AP Excursions, and many enrichment activities for students
- Administered SAT and GED Tests throughout the year

Jac-Cen-Del High School – Social Studies/English
1998-1999

- Teacher : 5 preps all English levels and Social Studies Classes

Southeastern Career Center – Adult Education Courses
1987-1998

- Teacher: Day and evening classes for adults ABE/GED
  5 course curriculum (English, Social Studies, Science, Reading, and Math)

Southwestern High School - US History part-time
1985-1987

- Teacher: Social Studies

Professional Service

Graduate Student Representative: School of Education's Graduate Studies Committee/Recruitment and Financial Aid (2010-present). Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Guide for National Board of Visitors (November 2010).

Reviewer for American Educational Research Association (AERA) proposal submissions (2010-present). On-line proposal review.

Co-coordinator: School of Education Undergraduate Program, "Exemplary Lesson" Workshop (2009 - present). Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Review Committee Member for Armstrong Teacher Award (2009, 2010). Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Professional Development

Teaching American History (TAH-2009) Project Training, Washington, D. C.
www.tahindiana.org

Advanced Placement Evaluator (AP) (2008-present) U S History AP CollegeBoard Scorer, Louisville, KY

Advance College Project (ACP-2006-08) – IU Bloomington Training
H105 and H106 courses

The Ohio River Teaching American History Project (2005-2008) – Three year grant participant through Ball State University and Historic Madison Inc.

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*Diverse enrichment opportunities and Curriculum writing

Bridging the American Experience (2003-2005) – **Ball State University** Professional Development
Participant in this program: Curriculum writing for US History

Advancement via Individual Determination (AVID) (July 2005) – Training in Atlanta, GA
Training for AVID AP US History Classes

AP US History Summer Workshop- Ball State University
Training for AP US History: June 14-June 17 2004

National Association for Gifted Children
Attended seminars concerning needs of gifted children at the high school level
November 13, 14, 15, 2003

Integrating Quality Internet Content into Classroom Workshop
Attended March 2002

Adult Education Program Review Committee 1995-1997
Trained and Monitored Adult Education programs statewide

Adult Education Mentor 1990-1998
Mentor Training for new ABE/GED teachers coming into the program at SECC

Honors and Awards

Butler University College of Liberal Arts and Sciences Teacher Excellence Award (2008): nominated by former student, Patrick Thevenow

Armstrong Teacher Award (2007-08): 9 teachers chosen throughout the State of Indiana as excellent teachers in their schools

Academic Coach: Super Bowl Social Studies State Academic Winner (2006)

Adult Educator Teacher Mentor Cadre 1997
*Selected to be a member of this cadre

New Adult Education Teacher of the Year 1988
*Awarded as the best New Teacher of Adult Education at the State of Indiana Adult Education Conference

Alpha Chi Academic Honor Society – IUS 1986

Professional Affiliations

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS)
College and University Faculty Assembly (CUFA)
American Educational Research Association (AERA)
Indiana Council for the Social Studies (ICSS)

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Creative Activities

Research Project Examples for Students:
American Heritage Journal Research
Civil War Times Research
Famous Trials Research Projects
Gilded Age Research Projects
Hollywood vs. History Research Paper
Captains of Industry Research Project
Decades Research Project

Field Based Enrichment:
Indiana Historical Society's Indiana Experience 2010
New Harmony, IN Utopian Society 2-day event 2009
Eiteljorg Museum 2009
Civil War Roundtable Presentation January 2008
Junior Docents – Lanier Mansion Summer/Fall 2007
Muhammad Ali Center
Louisville Slugger Museum
Madison Railroad Incline hike
Georgetown section, Madison, IN Underground Railroad
Eleutharian College, Madison, IN Anti-slavery movement
AP Excursion- 2 day extravaganza including Conner Prairie North Star Program and Indianapolis IMA, War monuments, War Museum, Architectural tour and much more

Community Activities

Laubach Literacy Trainer and Advocate
GED Test Administrator and Advocate
Board Member – Madison -Jefferson County Library
Member – Civil War Round Table Jefferson County, Indiana
Member – Louisville and Indianapolis mini-marathon training team
Former Big Brother, Big Sister

References

Mrs. Pat Wilson
Instructor of Social Studies in Education (IU)
NCSS teacher of the year (2008)
Social Studies Chair at BNHS
810 Eddington Court
Bloomington, Indiana 47401
(812) 330-7724 ext. 50256 work
(812) 219-8447cell
pwilson@mccsc.edu

Dr. Jesse Goodman, Ph.D.
Professor of Curriculum Studies in Social Studies Education
Indiana University
W.W. Wright School of Education 3208
201 N. Rose Ave.

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www.manaraa.com

Bloomington, IN 47405
(812) 856-8143 work
goodmanj@indiana.edu

Dr. Marilynne Boyle-Baise, Ph.D.
Professor of Curriculum Studies in Social Studies Education
Indiana University
W.W. Wright School of Education 3210
201 N. Rose Ave.
Bloomington, IN 47405
(812) 856-8191 work
boylebai@indiana.edu

Dr. Kevin Sue Bailey, Ed.D.
Professor of Secondary Language Arts
Indiana University Southeast
4201 Grantline Road
Hillside Hall 0014
New Albany, IN 47250
(812) 941-2624 work
(812) 786-1998 cell
kbailey@ius.edu

Mr. Kim Deffenbaugh
Dean of Students
Madison Consolidated Schools
1850 Wolf Trails Drive
Madison, IN 47250
(812) 265-6756 work
(812) 265-6143 home
kdeffenbaugh@madison.k12.in.us

Ms. Allison Torline
116 Cherry Trace
Madison, IN 47250
(812) 265-5225 home
atorline@indiana.edu

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