

STUDENTS AS HISTORIANS: HISTORY TEACHERS'
ATTITUDES TOWARD USING PRIMARY
AND SECONDARY SOURCES

By

SEAN W. MARMION

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATION

WASHINGTON STATE UNIVERSITY
College of Education

DECEMBER 2005

To the Faculty of Washington State University:

The members of the Committee appointed to examine the thesis of SEAN W. MARMION find it satisfactory and recommend that it be accepted.

Chair

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this thesis reflects the patience, support, and mentorship that many people have unselfishly given. I am sincerely grateful to those who have stood by my side throughout this enterprise.

Dawn Shinew, my chair, has devoted an immense amount of time and excellent guidance from the beginning of this project until its completion. Her leadership has been truly laudable as she challenged me to produce a high quality thesis that is both applicable for social studies practitioners and scholars alike. Dawn has also allowed me to grow as a scholar and as a social studies teacher. Because she has been my advisor, chair, and instructor, I have learned so much about social studies instruction. Dawn also believed in my teaching abilities as I served as her teaching assistant, a position that certainly made it possible for me to enter graduate school.

Leslie Hall's energetic and heart-felt instruction and mentorship is truly appreciated. Through her two courses on media literacy in education, I was introduced to practical and theoretical approaches of empowering my future students through enriching methods in media literacy. Leslie's classes offered insight into multiple literacies' necessity amongst citizens within a democratic-republic.

Mary Roe's instruction and mentorship has also challenged me to become a better educator by demanding nothing but excellence within her coursework. Mary also modeled daily the professionalism, humanity, and enthusiasm within her instruction that I only hope to achieve. She is truly a teacher of teachers.

I would also like to thank Bruce Fehn and Greg Hamot, who both taught and provided mentorship while I attended the University of Iowa as an undergraduate. Greg introduced me

to the methodology of critical inquiry. Bruce's methodology course complimented Greg's instruction well by passionately demanding that his preservice teachers provided nothing but an enriching academic experience for their future students through the critical analysis of primary source documents.

Finally, I would like to thank my beautiful wife, Julia. It is she who inspires me each and every day to become the best person I can be. I am forever grateful that she is my loving wife. Her patience, caring, and proofreading skills have certainly provided me with encouragement.

STUDENTS AS HISTORIANS: HISTORY TEACHERS'
ATTITUDES TOWARD USING PRIMARY
AND SECONDARY SOURCES

Abstract

by Sean W. Marmion
Washington State University
December 2005

Chair: Dawn M. Shinew

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore secondary history teachers' attitudes towards the use of critical literacy pedagogy via primary and secondary sources within their curricula. Interviews with eleven Washington State public school teachers who used multiple sources within their curricula, of whom four were observed, yielded data that emphasized the influence that two recently adopted statewide assessments and their students' varying reading levels have had on the design and implementation of curricula containing textual and visual multiple sources. The second set of themes that surfaced identified two factors that influenced how teachers judged the utility of multiple sources: personal values and high-stakes assessments.

There are three implications of this study: (1) Teachers report that the majority of their students experience reading and/or comprehension difficulties when reading multiple sources. Publishing companies should produce primary source textbooks and other history multiple sources with symbolic cues. (2) Some teachers report personal and/or departmental confusion in how they should aid students in the reading/comprehension of multiple sources

when many students read below grade level. Teachers must research and utilize literacy strategies within their history classrooms. (3) High stakes testing within Washington State limits many teachers' uses of nontextual multiple sources within their curricula. Students, as future adult citizens, must be literate in textual and symbolic communication.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose.....	2
Problem Statement	3
Research Questions	3
Overview of the Study	5
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	7
The Vacillating Role of Critical Inquiry in History Education.....	7
Recent Rise of Critical Inquiry within Language Arts	12
Benefits of Postmodern Pedagogy in History Education.....	14
Multiple Perspectives via Multiple Sources.....	18
Socialization of Teachers	25
3. METHODOLOGY	28
Design and Procedure	28
Participants and Setting.....	29
Interviews and Observations	32
Data Analysis	36
Ethics and Validity.....	38

4. RESULTS	41
Factors that Impact the Use of Multiple Sources.....	41
WASL.....	41
Classroom-based Assessments (CBA's)	46
Students' Reading Levels	50
Insiders' Perspectives on Individual Sources' Utilities	53
Personal Values	54
State Assessments.....	62
5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....	67
Discussion	67
Implications.....	70
Symbolic Cues.....	71
Reading Strategies	74
Inclusion of Nontextual Sources.....	75
Recommendations for Further Research.....	76
REFERENCES	79
APPENDIX.....	86

LIST OF TABLES

A1. Overview of Teachers' Professional Information	89
A2. Overview of Teachers' Professional Information	90

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife and soul mate, Julia, whose beauty and intellect is only shadowed by her humanity and virtues.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Across the nation's public school systems, authentic assessment and problem solving skills are increasingly becoming a popular pedagogical method within the math and science curricula. Teachers, administrators, and colleges of education strive to answer the common student plea, "How will I use this within the real world?" Adopting authentic assessment and problem solving skills within the math and science curricula directs students into practicing and acquiring the same skills that scientists and mathematicians use daily, thus students see the necessity and importance of the two subjects' curricula within the world outside of school.

History curricula can also benefit from integrating more authentic assessment and problem solving skills in pedagogical practices. Gulikers, Bastiaens, and Kirschner (2004) define authentic assessment as "an assessment requiring students to use the same competencies, or combinations of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, that they need to apply in the criterion situation in professional life. The level of authenticity of an assessment is thus defined by its degree of resemblance to the criterion situation" (p. 69). Many students perceive that topics covered in history serve no practical benefit to future careers within the business, service, information technology, and manufacturing fields that dominate the United States' current occupational landscape (Schrug, Todd, & Beery, 1984; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002). Even though many educators, especially history teachers and academics, would assuredly contest the above opinion, history would showcase its necessity to students more effectively by emphasizing authentic assessment and problem solving skills (Kobrin, Abbot, Ellinwood, & Horton, 1993; Wineburg, 1999). Social scientists, historians, political scientists, and journalists utilize similar questioning and problem solving skills that mathematicians, accountants, and engineers practice. In order for

students to appreciate the practical applications of history, teachers should refocus their curricula away from direct instruction that de-emphasizes these vital skills.

In place of more traditional direct instruction, history teachers should adopt a critical literacy pedagogy that emphasizes the use of primary and secondary sources, which is the focus of this study. Kobrin (1996) and Kobrin et al. (1993) promote the use of critical literacy through history teachers' adoption of multiple sources into the curriculum. The authors argue that such an adoption encourages students to construct history through the very sources that social scientists, such as those listed above, utilize. This construction of history challenges students to read, analyze, interpret, and critique primary and secondary sources. Such a pedagogical method is necessary in social studies if districts want to follow the success of other school subjects that have adopted authentic assessments. It is my opinion that a critical literacy pedagogy that utilizes multiple sources is the only current method available that truly resembles an authentic assessment format. Parker (2005) identifies several examples of authentic assessment formats ranging from designing charts to reflect presidential election results, participating in the planning and implementing of community improvement projects, and interpreting primary documents. Each of these formats required students to use critical literacy as students analyze documents ranging from televised newscasts, public survey results, and photographs. Recent scholarship shows that many teachers who use multiple sources do so in order to promote memorization and identification (Hicks, Doolittle, & Lee, 2004). This illustrates the necessity of combining critical literacy pedagogy with multiple source instruction.

Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore high school history teachers' attitudes towards the use of critical literacy pedagogy via primary and secondary sources within their

curricula. Such analysis is needed in history education scholarship. As colleges of education continue to stress the importance and necessity of multiple perspectives and sources within the curriculum, scholars also need to understand the current experiences of secondary history teachers who have adopted critical literacy via multiple sources within their classrooms. Recent educational legislation, such as 2002's *No Child Left Behind*, along with an increase in statewide assessments present additional requirements for teachers, thus scholars must identify how the current climate is affecting the use of multiple sources.

Problem Statement

Many secondary history teachers distribute primary and secondary sources, including a textbook, to students in their classrooms. What are their personal motivations in using multiple sources? In university course work, history teachers often learn the advantages and/or drawbacks of using multiple sources within the curriculum to transform students into critical inquirers. However, in the field these history teachers frequently fall victim to administrators' demands for the use of variable and converging pedagogical innovations and/or to parental/communal perceptions of political motives of revisionist, anti-Western ideology (Beyer, 1994). Teachers' choices of pedagogical methods and curriculum materials are further influenced by student engagement and attitude. No studies explore the motivations and attitudes of secondary social studies teachers who choose to include both primary and secondary sources within their curricula. This study attempts to address this gap in the literature.

Research Questions

As is often the case in qualitative research, two preliminary questions served as the basis for this current study. These two questions also were the research questions within a pilot study I completed a semester prior to beginning this current study. I completed the pilot study for an

Introduction to Qualitative Methods course. I initially chose to keep the following two questions as I began this current study. However, as data surfaced from interviews and observations, I had to quickly revise this study's research questions. Since these two questions provided me with data that actually caused me to revise my questions, I felt it necessary to include them. The first preliminary question was *what skills and concepts do students learn and master while critically analyzing primary and secondary sources within the social studies curricula?* The second preliminary question focused on Dewey (1933), Myers et al. (1998), and Wineburg and Wilson's (1991) argument that pedagogies focusing on critical inquiry increase analyzing and interpretational skills. Therefore, I wanted to know whether *individual teachers see the predicted results within their classrooms.*

Two central questions evolved as I analyzed data gathered from the interviews and observations. *What are the factors that impact the use of primary and secondary sources within high school history classrooms?* There is no research that analyzes what currently influences how teachers use multiple sources within the state of Washington or in the nation as a whole. This is important to understand because scholars who promote the inclusion of multiple sources and educators who use multiple sources must identify and comprehend the influencing factors that affect the use of multiple sources. Without knowledge of such influences, scholars and teachers will be unable to understand exactly if the influences are serving as an asset or detriment to multiple source instruction. In addition, scholars and teachers must identify whether the influences are short-term trends or permanent fixtures. Knowing this will allow both scholars and teachers to converse with one another in possible adaptations that are necessary to further promote and/or implement the multiple source instruction.

Second, research is absent in *how high school history teachers personally assess the utilities of primary and secondary sources within their curricula*. In other words, do teachers find multiple sources within their curricula functional or of benefit? Beyer (1994), Parker (2005), and Stahl, Hynd, Britton, McNish, and Bosquet (1996) state that pedagogical strategies that emphasize the use of multiple sources have been in vogue within the public school system for the last ten years as social studies educators replicate science curriculum. I have not located any recent scholarship that reports whether teachers continue to use multiple sources because of district/departmental mandates or because they view multiple sources as beneficial to their profession and curricula. Understanding how teachers identify and view such utilities will allow social studies methods instructors to inform preservice teachers in the assets of multiple source instruction within history. Social studies scholars will also be able to foster more support for the method by utilizing data gathered from practitioners themselves.

Overview of the Study

By redesigning the history curriculum to include an increased amount of authentic assessment, high school history teachers may not only raise student interest in the subject matter (Bean, Bean, & Bean, 1999; Kaser & Short, 1998; Moore, 1996; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002), but may also boost student performance on their state's assessment of literacy skills. Such assessments are currently experiencing a resurgence in school district evaluations at the state and national levels. I believe that a re-adoption of critical literacy skills into the history curriculum via the analysis of primary and secondary sources (textual and nontextual) will provide students with the authenticity that proves so necessary in literacy and problem solving skill development and student engagement. In Chapter Two, I present the precedence of critical literacy within history/social studies education throughout the 20th century. Second, the rise of critical literacy in

language arts instruction via critical literacy pedagogy must be examined in order to reveal the language arts' experience and critique. Third, I examine the benefits of postmodern pedagogy's inclusion within history education. Fourth, the benefits of using multiple sources (primary and secondary) to practice and master critical literacy skills are compared to traditional history textbook/direct instruction methodology. Finally, the socialization of social studies teachers is analyzed in order to comprehend the reasons why traditional history instruction remains intact and if there are any promising inroads to amending instruction to include critical literacy of primary and secondary sources.

In Chapter Three, I present the methodology that I followed throughout this study. Since history is a component of the social studies field, I provide an explanation of the teachers and classes I identified as possible participants. Also, I clarify why I chose to conduct qualitative interviews with participants selected using Patton's (1990) maximum variation sampling strategy. Detailed explanations of my field observations are provided. Ethics and issues of validity that arose within this study are identified and analyzed.

In Chapter Four, I present the results that I interpreted after careful analysis of interview transcripts and observation field notes. Two major themes are examined within the chapter. First, I present data that showcases the three factors that influenced teachers' use of multiple sources. Second, I exhibit data that identifies how the participants viewed the utility of multiple sources within their classrooms.

Finally, Chapter Five reviews Chapter Four's data by discussing how the findings fit into Chapter Two's scholarship. I will also provide three implications that advance teachers' use of multiple sources within critical literacy pedagogy. I end the chapter by presenting possible recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Even though the focus of this paper is on history education within the high school curriculum, the term social studies will also be used on occasion. The National Center for History in the Schools (NCHS; 1996) defines history education as the study of:

the great record of human experience, revealing the vast range of accommodations individuals and societies have made to the problems confronting them, and disclosing the consequences that have followed the various choices that have been made. ...[H]istory opens to students opportunities to develop a comprehensive understanding of the world, and of the many cultures and ways of life different from their own. (p. 41-42)

The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS; 1994) identifies social studies education as the “coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology” (p. 3). At times social studies education will be addressed because history education serves as a component within many high schools’ social studies departments. Also many scholars tend to use the terms “social studies” and “history” interchangeably. However, when I refer to either term, I will use the NCHS and NCSS’ respective definitions of the two. It is vitally important to include a discussion of social studies education when proposing a change to history education because in the large picture the latter is usually a departmental component of the former.

The Vacillating Role of Critical Inquiry in History Education

Critical inquiry is a set of problem solving skills that requires higher order thinking. This study defines critical inquiry as the ability to analyze an author’s biases, purpose, and intended

audience in addition to understanding the historical and societal context that shaped the author's viewpoint (Dewey, 1933; Feuerstein, 1999; Hynd, 1999; Wineburg, 1999). The NCSS (1994) states that "the primary purpose of social studies is to help young people develop the ability to make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world" (p. vii). An adult citizen within a democratic republic must practice and master analysis skills in order to make informed decisions. Teaching students to deconstruct assigned readings in order to compare and contrast perspectives and to experience conflicting viewpoints allows students to actually practice skills necessary in achieving the NCSS' purpose of social studies.

Instilling critical inquiry skills in students is not a recent idea within the public educational system. Many scholars have emphasized critical inquiry in education and in social studies in particular. Even though scholars have labeled the concept differently, the definitions and objectives have been almost identical.

For example, Dewey (1916) simultaneously deconstructed and highlighted the process of thinking skills that he termed *reflective inquiry*:

Thinking is the method of intelligent learning, of learning that employs and rewards mind. We speak, legitimately enough, about the method of thinking, but the important thing to bear in mind about method is that thinking is a method, the method of intelligent experience in the course which it takes. (p. 153)

Dewey broke down the thinking process of humans by emphasizing that reflective thought, also known as critical inquiry, initially begins with an authentic experience. Dewey instructed educators that an authentic experience, such as examining river water for pollutants, should present a genuine conflict that serves as a catalyst for critical inquiry. "The function of reflective

thought is, therefore, to transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious” (Dewey, 1933, p. 100). Dewey’s reflective inquiry served as critical inquiry’s initial appearance within the public education system at large.

Likewise, Hart (1909) argued that the habits practiced in the study of history were vital within the maintenance and advancement of a democratic society. In fact, Hart believed that U.S. society must demand that teachers assume the responsibility to foster “intellectual independence among students and to devise instructional practices effective in advancing this common goal” (as cited in Whelan, 1994, p. 431). Hart likened history’s method of critical inquiry to the “transmutation of the lifeless lead of the annals into the shining gold of histor[ical understanding]” (p. 246). Hart identified the traditional social studies’ concentration on the acquisition of historical dates and facts as the “lifeless lead” that failed to produce a democratic citizenry (NEA, 1893). However, by reattaching dates and facts to the analysis of context, purpose, and interpretation, the social studies will transform students into an intellectual and civic-minded populace. Hartonian (1994) reflected Hart’s sentiment within his interpretation of social studies purpose while he presided over NCSS:

As a people, then, our first priority, our first policy goal, must be to ensure our survival as a free nation through the development of students who can assume the office of citizen. ...[T]he informed social studies student exhibits the habit of mind and behavior of one who respects the relationship between education (i.e., learning) and his or her responsibility to promote the common good. (p. xix-xx)

While the (then) new discipline of psychology heavily influenced Dewey’s idea of critical inquiry’s role within child-centered instruction and Hart pressed that social studies

curricula must mirror the methodology of historiography, both scholars wanted schools to tap into critical inquiry in order to further challenge and engage students. Even though both Dewey and Hart are considered progressive educators, they did not envision critical inquiry pedagogy as an agent for widespread social reconstruction. During the 1920's and 1930's members of a more radical wing of the progressive education movement, influenced by Lester Frank Ward, persuaded educators to adopt critical inquiry into the social studies curriculum because they believed that students would gain insight into the limitations of U.S. society and government (Symcox, 2002). After identifying and analyzing societal and governmental shortcomings, social reconstructionists predicted that young adults, who attended critical inquiry based schools, would strive to advance progressive social change.

Social reconstructionists' vision of schools as the crucial agents of social change garnered mainstream attention within the U.S. following the 1929 stock market crash (Symcox, 2002). According to Rugg (1926), the social studies curriculum up to that point consisted of "academic formulae, child interests, or the scientific study of society" (p. xi). Symcox states that Rugg authored a vastly popular social studies textbook series entitled *Man and His Changing Society* throughout the 1930's. These textbooks prompted students to use critical inquiry and open discussion to identify and deconstruct social problems. However, the start of World War II marked the end of the progressive education movement and the silencing of the social reconstructionists as renewed nationalism grew from the fear of encroaching totalitarianism.

Beyer (1994) argues that the current (and traditional) method of direct instruction within secondary social studies education fails to motivate students to fully practice and master the type of critical inquiry that Dewey (1933) and Hart (1909) advocated. The *New Science* curriculum of the 1960's stressed the importance of Dewey's reflective inquiry as teachers were encouraged to

present lessons that challenged students via *discovery learning*. The *New Science* curriculum's designers harnessed discovery learning because of the dire need to produce scientists in the middle of the Cold War. After the Soviet Union successfully launched Sputnik and detonated the first hydrogen bomb in the 1950's, U.S. politicians and academics concentrated on expanding and advancing the science curriculum in order to develop in students the critical inquiry skills needed to remain competitive in science and technology. The *New Science's* curriculum soon influenced the social studies curriculum as discovery learning gained appeal within public education; thus, the *New Social Studies* was created.

Discovery learning was a student-centered model synonymous with critical inquiry because students constructed and tested hypotheses (Symcox, 2002). By following through with the scientific method within social studies, students would develop conclusions, concepts, and generalizations largely on their own. The teacher's role within the *New Social Studies* centered on providing students with informational, directional, and/or methodological prompts, thus using Vygotsky's *zone of proximal development* (Wertsch, 1991). Educators highlighted anthropology within the *New Social Studies* as students attempted to understand human behavior. Bruner (1966) served as the primary designer of the *New Social Studies* most influential curricular program, *Man: A Course of Study* (MACOS). Symcox applauds Bruner and MACOS for prompting students to not only compare and contrast other human societies with U.S. society, an ethnocentric method traditionally taught, but also to "appreciate how different societies come to understand their world and that one kind of worldview is no more human than another" (p. 21-22).

However, the *New Social Studies* lasted a relatively short time in schools because the majority of parents, politicians, and eventually administrators advocated a back-to-basics

approach during the late 1970's into the 1980's. Beyer (1994) states that the above parties, in addition to state/national assessments, stressed the importance of learning facts and the broad coverage of U.S. history over acquiring critical inquiry skills. Symcox (2002) adds that in particular the Religious Right lobbied the general public by arguing "that a social studies curriculum that deliberately set out to cultivate an inquiring attitude about human behavior and values was dangerous because it did not deal in absolutes" (p. 23). As teacher accountability over students' social studies knowledge rose, direct instruction aimed towards mandated facts became the norm.

Recent Rise of Critical Inquiry within Language Arts

While critical inquiry has been de-emphasized in social studies recently, the concept has enjoyed a resurgence in the field of literacy education under the name critical literacy pedagogy. Based upon Freire's (1970) work, teachers using critical literacy pedagogy lead students in practicing skills that could be used to identify, understand, and perhaps amend societal ills. Shannon (1995) explains:

Critical perspectives push the definition of literacy beyond traditional decoding or encoding of words in order to reproduce the meaning of text or society until it becomes a means for understanding one's own history and culture, to recognize connections between one's life and the social structure, to believe that change in one's life, and the lives of others and society are possible as well as desirable, and to act on this new knowledge in order to foster equal and just participation in all the decisions that affect and control our lives. (p. 83)

Similarly, Myers, Hammet, and McKillop (1998) propose that secondary students should develop questioning skills inherent within critical theory so they can establish analyzing skills

necessary in adulthood. Wilhelm and Edmiston's (1998) use of interdisciplinary thematic units allowed students to practice many of the skills that Myers et al. alluded to: information location, interpretation, critical analysis, informed decision making, negotiating, and compromising. Myers et al. argue that critical literacy is the "intentional subversion of meaning in order to critique the underlying ideologies and relations of power that support particular interpretation of a text" (p. 63).

Some literacy educators believe that the ability to interpret and analyze any of the multiple forms of text cannot possibly derive from a single skill set of literacy. The skill sets used to read the local newspaper definitely differs from the skill set needed to understand photography, war propaganda posters, and internet blogs (online professional and amateur editorials). Gee and Clinton (2000) proclaim that literacy teachers must revise their respective curricula to include *multiple literacies* because "there are many different uses of written and spoken language coordinated in different ways with talk, tools, beliefs, values, actions and interaction with different Discourses" (p. 118). The need for multiple literacies with literacy and history education is warranted because the multiple forms of text within today's world is composed of "social languages" (Bakhtin, 1986). Using the concept *Discourses*, Gee (1996) states that social languages must be carefully deconstructed in order to understand the situational and social significance of each individual written or spoken text. Myers, Hammett, and McKillop (2000) support the use of multiple literacies because the relationships between authors' creations and readers' interpretations are intertextual in nature; both exist dependently upon each other. Even though authors carefully select the text within their respective works in order to socially negotiate a meaning, authors cannot possibly predict all possible or the most likely interpretation of their works because of the social construction of textual meanings.

Using Moore's (1996) definition of functionality as possessing a sense of purpose and agency in actions, Bean et al. (1999) argue that literacy and social studies teachers must provide functionality within selected texts in order to bridge the home, school, and peer cultures of adolescents. Kaser and Short (1998) warn that students will very often reject the "official" curriculum when they view a widening cleavage between school and nonacademic culture. Smith and Wilhelm's (2002) study of adolescent males' attitudes and practices of literacy illustrate that male students value critical literacy because the approach provides them with skills that they can immediately use to solve problems or make-meanings. The adolescents within Smith and Wilhelm's study persistently argued that the language arts and social studies curricula generally failed in providing them with practical real-world skills and did not engage their interests because the language arts texts many times did not connect with the reality of the adolescents' present. The adolescents did not perceive fact identification and memorization within social studies as relating to real-world application, but instead placed value on the critical literacy skills because they understood that interpretation and analysis skills were vital as they were on the verge of entering adulthood.

Benefits of Postmodern Pedagogy in History Education

Some educators view social studies as an avenue through which teachers introduce the concept of multiple perspectives to their students. Building upon postmodern/poststructuralist theory (Foucault, 1970; Usher & Edwards, 1994; Weedon, 1998), these educators believe that through a social studies curriculum containing multiple perspectives, students will acknowledge that there is no single "truth" within the study of history, sociology, government, and anthropology. Postmodern educators place value on the deconstruction of texts and symbols in order to identify and understand who wields power.

In contrast to the modernist conception of absolute truth founded on rationality, postmodernism proposes a plural understanding of the truth; that all knowledge is contextual, historical, and discursive. By being implicated with power, discourses create subjects and objects, and the mechanism for positioning subjects. (Usher & Edwards, p. 24)

I believe it is important for students to understand that all sources, textual and nontextual, should be viewed through a postmodern lens. Each individual historian's or sociologist's immediate and past environment and personal biases shape his/her interpretation (or discourse) of historical or sociological events. Lacan (as cited in Bracher, 1993) argues that the *discourse of the University* is also applicable to public schools in that students are passive receivers of information from predetermined perspectives: school is a "pure impersonal system: the System and nothing else. No provision is made for individual subjects [students] and their desires and idiosyncrasies. Individuals are to act, think, and desire only in ways that function to enact, reproduce, or extend the System" (p. 55).

The majority of educators do not readily accept postmodern theory and pedagogical practices. This is because education is founded upon values of the Enlightenment:

The very rationale of the educational process and the role of the educator is founded on the humanist idea of a certain kind of subject who has the inherent potential to become self-motivated and self-directing, a rational subject capable of exercising individual agency. The task of education has therefore been understood as one of 'bringing out', of helping to realise this potential, so that subjects become fully autonomous and capable of exercising their individual and intentional agency. (Usher & Edwards, 1994, p. 24-25)

Many educators adhere to the ideal of an objective education because of its Enlightenment roots. Wolk (2003) states that teachers ponder whether implementing critical inquiry (critical literacy) into their curricula makes their content too politicized. However, is there a true “objective” education if educators and administrators select materials and design curriculum? I believe that an “objective” education does not exist because each decision that educators and administrators make in regards to history curricula is not made within an apolitical vacuum. Strong educational, moral, philosophical, and political values and traditions permeate curricular decision-making as educators and administrators develop history curricula that meet the definition of history education on three levels: departmental, state, and nation. All three levels’ perspectives also determine the educational needs of students. Add to such a subjective decision-making context the realization of a limited budget for departmental materials and a constrained time period, such political decisions become exponentially emphasized within curricular design.

Many educators further find postmodernist theory and practice troubling because it supposedly fragments society. Since dichotomies and systems are targeted in postmodernism, these educators do not see a societal benefit from an epistemology that highlights differences rather than similarities within individuals in society. Longstreet (2003) contends the opposite during his discussion of Engle’s (1977) influential article. Even though Longstreet admits that Engle probably did not view himself within a postmodern epistemology, Longstreet presents Engle’s differentiation between problem solving skills and decision-making skills as postmodern:

Engle posited the need for the citizen to "associate" values, held both knowingly and unknowingly, with a reflective analysis of facts, many of which were unwittingly biased and subjective. However, problem solving and decision making are different, though at

times overlapping, enterprises, the former belonging to the modern world of logical certitude and the latter being a response to the postmodern angst of possibly not knowing anything for certain. (p. 12)

Longstreet (2003) states that problem solving skills throughout the 20th Century were equated with “a series of logical steps involving clearly defined procedures that would clarify values and lead to well-developed solutions” (p. 12). Believing that problem solving skills within social studies connected the subject too closely with the hard sciences and the Enlightenment’s quest for objectivity, Engle (1977) sought to replace problem solving goals within social studies curriculum with decision-making skills because the latter “decision making is reflective, speculative – thought provoking – and oriented to the process of reaching conclusions” (p. 3-4). Berliner (2002) and Sparkes (1995) would agree with Engle’s persistence upon the change to decision making skills because the two argue that methodologies derived from the hard sciences cannot possibly fit within the social sciences because the two measure completely different phenomena.

Washington State’s Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction’s (OSPI; 2005b) explanation of the state’s social studies goals emphasizes that “[c]ritical thinking skills encourage *reasoned decisions* [italics added] as well as alternative viewpoints regarding matters of public concern.” NCSS (1994) mandates that “active social studies teaching requires reflective thinking and *decision-making* [italics added] as event unfold during instruction” (p. 12). NCHS’s (1996) fifth standard highlights the need for *decision-making skills*:

Because the problems confronting people in well written fiction... as well as in historical records of the past are usually value laden, examining these dilemmas, the choices before the people who confronted them, and the consequences of the decisions they made

provide opportunities for children to consider the values and beliefs that have influenced human decisions both for good and ill. (p. 23)

Social studies, in particular, stresses the importance of a common national experience within a pluralistic nation; however it is the nation's pluralistic reality that gives importance to the adoption of postmodern pedagogies. Since the U.S. is a diverse nation in regards to class, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and religious identity, it is important that its citizenry be able to identify an individual's distinct experiences. This diversity presents students (who are diverse themselves) with a metaphorical crystal that challenges traditional notions of generalizable "Truth" and "Reality" by illustrating the individualized contextual nature of the two terms (Richardson, 1994; St. Pierre, 2002). "Social studies recognizes the challenges and benefits of living in a diverse cultural and ideological society. The resulting interactions are contextualized in space and time and have social, political, economic, and geographical dimensions" (OSPI, 2005b). However, students should not only study differences for solutions to societal ills. Issues such as classism, racism, sexism, and religious discrimination would never be completely solved with postmodernism alone.

Multiple Perspectives via Multiple Sources

Since the focus of my study is history education, a discipline within social studies, it is vital to consider the state of Washington's social studies standards in relation to the importance of establishing multiple perspectives and the use of multiple sources within the high school history classroom. OSPI (2005b) provides a definition and rationale of its K-12 social studies curriculum that emulates their previously described counterparts within NCSS (1994) standards:

Social studies ...contributes to developing responsible citizens in a culturally diverse, democratic society within an interdependent world. Social studies equips learners to

make sound judgments and take appropriate actions that will contribute to sustainable development of human society and the physical environment.

Social studies comprises the study of relationships among people, and between people and the environment. Social studies recognizes the challenges and benefits of living in a diverse cultural and ideological society. The resulting interactions are contextualized in space and time and have social, political, economic, and geographical dimensions.

Based on appropriate investigations and reflections within social studies, students develop distinctive skills and a critical awareness of the human condition and emerging spatial patterns and the processes and events that shape them.

The social studies curriculum cultivates inquiry, interpersonal, and critical thinking skills. These skills are infused throughout the four social studies disciplines[.] ...Aided by appropriate technologies, students gather, interpret, and analyze information to be informed citizens. Their ability to engage in civic discourse improves through practice of discussion and interpersonal skills. Critical thinking skills encourage reasoned decisions as well as alternative viewpoints regarding matters of public concern. (OSPI, 2005b)

As the above quote states, OSPI (2005b) establishes that history education consists of and teaches students the interpretation of multiple perspectives. In order to fulfill OSPI's mandate on multiple perspectives, teachers should use multiple sources (primary and secondary) as they complete two functions. First, teachers must use multiple sources when they design curriculum. The teachers' use of multiple sources within the designing stage of lesson planning must be made obvious to the students during the instruction so students consciously witness their

teachers' modeling the analysis of multiple sources. Second, teachers must regularly assign students to use multiple sources when analyzing topics.

Traditionalist pedagogy continues to maintain its heavy influence on today's history instruction. Lester and Cheek (1997) reveal that textbooks still play a vital and instrumental role within the social studies curriculum as teachers continue to rely upon the textbook in the delivery of instruction. This finding supports earlier studies (Christopoulos, Rohwer, & Thomas, 1987; Shaver, Davis, & Helburn, 1979) suggesting that textbooks have a high degree of influence over a teacher's curriculum design.

Most history teachers throughout the U.S. have the opportunity to select at least some of their curricular materials. While 22 states, such as Idaho, Texas, and California (Ansary, 2004; Center of Education Reform, 2004; Idaho Department of Education, 2004; Texas Education Agency, 2004), restrict the choice of textbooks to a short state-approved list, states and districts usually allow teachers to provide input concerning the use of non-textbook sources. Most teachers have the authority to choose the non-textbook sources they use in class, as well as the sources' perspectives and media format.

Individual teachers differ regarding what skills and/or concepts they deem crucial for adolescent students who are about to enter the adult world. These diverse perspectives influence the sources selected and the ways each teacher uses them. Wineburg and Wilson (1991) state that teachers who place importance upon the analysis of perspectives and biases are more likely to seek out and use multiple sources so students will experience the diversity of opinion that surrounds and comprises the social studies. Social studies teachers who value analysis of perspectives realize that textbooks do not explicitly reveal the interpretations inherent in social

studies texts. These teachers would likely agree with Schrag's (1967) analysis of history textbooks:

History textbooks are bad, not because they are too biased, but because their biases are concealed by the tone. History texts are written as if their authors did not exist at all, as if they were simply the instruments of a heavenly intelligence transcribing official truths. The tone of the textbook is the tone of a disembodied voice speaking in passive sentences; it fosters the widespread confusion that the text *is* [author's stress] history, not simply a human construct composed of selected data, interpretations, and opinions. (p. 74)

As Beyer (1994) states, the vast majority of secondary social studies teachers employ the traditional model of direct instruction. Patrick and Hawke's (1982) survey found that nearly 90% of U.S. social studies teachers use a textbook and 50% rely upon a single textbook. Lester and Cheek's (1997) more recent survey illustrates that Patrick and Hawke's data remain valid as teachers continue to rely upon textbooks. Even though nearly all social studies teachers adopt textbooks within their curricula, those who also teach via direct instruction almost exclusively rely upon the textbook as the soul "objective" source of social studies knowledge. Hynd (1999) argues that this practice is "easy to identify as being inadequate to foster critical [inquiry]" (p. 428). Many teachers practicing direct instruction use lecturing as their medium (Joyce & Weil, 2004). Hynd argues that a large number of these teachers fall into the trap of:

...teaching history as a story. Typically, teachers use a single textbook, follow its sequence, and embellish it through skillful storytelling. Students become engaged in the narrative and learn about the story of history because of that engagement. ...The main emphasis in the class, however, is on beginning with one era and moving students

through subsequent time periods in order. This type of coverage appears to be based on the reasonable belief that one cannot fully understand a later time period unless one has learned about a previous one, although there is little research supporting that contention. (p. 429)

Wineburg (1991) discovered that, unlike historians, students perceived their social studies textbooks as the most dependable source of historical information. Falsely perceiving the textbook as the primary source because of its journalistic format and language, students judged the textbook to be neutral, straight forward, and concise. Students judged the actual primary sources (seven eye-witness accounts) as heavily opinionated because of the language used. Hynd's (1999) study also suggests that students judge textbooks to be an objective source. This finding explains students' reasoning in choosing information gained from textbooks over primary sources. Gabella's (1994) research concurs that students favor textbooks as more fact-based than non-textbook sources. However, Gabella also indicates that students are more open and able to interpret non-textbook sources as teachers incorporate them into the curriculum.

Besides journalistic formatting and language serving as key components to history textbooks' "objectivity," students may also perceive their textbooks as the purveyors of historical truth because of the topics covered. Seixas (1994) highlights that secondary students are more likely to recognize international/domestic political events and war as historically significant, while overlooking social history topics such as procreation, labor-issues, childhood, and gender relations. "The mountains of history books under which we all stand leans so heavily in the other direction – so tremblingly respectful of state and statesmen and so disrespectful, by inattention, to people's movements..." (Zinn, 1999, p. 645). Washburn's (1997) analysis of U.S. history textbooks' (from 1980 to 1992) coverage of pre-Civil War slavery points out that textbooks

reflected upon this era mainly through conservative lens as the actions of abolitionists such as William Lloyd Garrison were labeled as extreme. Thus, textbooks from this era marginalized the grass-roots abolitionist movement while highlighting the political actions of President Abraham Lincoln. Commeyras and Alverman's (1994) survey of three high school world history textbooks' chapter titles and content illustrates the commonality of textbook authors writing world history from the perspective of Western Civilization. One-third of the textbooks' content focused upon nations of the Third World, while two-thirds were devoted to European history and Western Civilization. The chapters that did focus on Asian, Latin American, and African history did so in a hegemonic manner by placing the region or individual nations in a submissive context set by Western Civilization.

Hynd (1999) argues that the storybook, narrative format of history textbooks inhibits students from seeing the process historians practice. Unlike textbooks in psychology and science, history and social studies texts shield students from seeing the conflicting data and arguments. If publishing companies edited textbooks following the physical sciences textbooks' approach to critical inquiry thinking instead of a mere story line, teachers would more likely begin to present multiple perspectives within their classrooms.

Unlike science textbooks, history textbooks follow a story format because the subject is the study of a collection of expert and amateur interpretations (stories). Clearly, there are differences in the context of history and most sciences. One large difference is that history is a discipline focusing on human experiences, while chemistry and physics primarily focuses on non-human subjects. The "story" should remain in textbooks, but only with the vital inclusion of conflicting perspectives. By editing diverse historical knowledge into a single story line, publishers are not only concealing the actual complexities of historical events, but students are

not challenged to analyze and develop conclusions: Hart's (1909) "shining gold of historical knowledge" (p. 264).

However, one must remember that revising the format of textbooks is only the beginning, for history teachers must also instruct students in how to practice critical inquiry and literacy skills when reading multiple sources. Hynd (1999) and Wineburg (1991) argue that many language arts and social studies teachers fail to teach students how to read sources as historians would. Wineburg compares the reading and critical analysis processes of both scholarly historians and public high school students who excel in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) examination in history. Wineburg identifies two factors that differentiated the attitudes and skills of the students and historians. First, students lacked the necessary literacy skills that are vital in identifying and analyzing the source's contextual layers: the students' comprehension of the text's information was only what they read, word-for-word. Historians, on the other hand, not only read the text word-for-word, but also read *between the lines* in order to analyze the author's purpose, biases, and societal environment. Wineburg states that analyzing the "discourse" (Foucault, 1970) allows historians to ascertain further information, albeit interpretational:

[T]he literal text is only the shell of the text comprehended by historians. Texts come not to convey information, to tell stories, or even to set the record straight. Instead, they are slippery, cagey, and protean, and reflect the uncertainty and disingenuity of the real world. Texts emerge as "speech acts," social interactions set down on paper that can be understood only by trying to reconstruct the social context in which they occurred. The comprehension of text reaches beyond words and phrases to embrace intention, motive,

purpose, and plan – the same set of concepts we use to decipher human action.

(Wineburg, p. 500)

As stated earlier, both the NCSS (1994) and OSPI (2005) insist that social studies education must incorporate the critical analysis of multiple perspectives. The NCHS (1996) views history education as inseparable from critical inquiry: “[history education] requires that children be engaged in *active* questioning and learning, and not merely in the passive absorption of facts, names, and dates” (p. 6). Gabella (1994) argues that the dominant and traditional practice of direct-instruction must be thrown out of teachers’ repertoire if they value students’ ability to identify and conceptualize the complexities and alternative perspectives of which the study of history consists. Teachers must allow students to partake in the search, location, analysis, and interpretation of historical information in order to understand the influence of contexts that permeate history. Rossi’s (1995) case study of two issues-based social studies curricula concurs that teachers must practice in-depth study methods in order to promote students’ practice and mastery of critical inquiry skills. By limiting the chronological breadth that most history classrooms cover, students’ historical understanding will expand as contexts, perceptions, and cause and effect relationships are investigated in-depth within a restricted amount of topics.

Socialization of Teachers

Recent research indicates that preservice teaching programs at colleges of education play an integral role in shaping the pedagogical praxes and philosophies of teachers. Angell (1998) suggests that continuous overlapping in constructivist goals, language, and teaching principles across the preservice program provides teachers with a productive learning environment that promotes the investigation of new and/or alternative beliefs and practices. Fehn and Koeppen

(1998) found that preservice secondary social studies teachers are more likely to use primary documents within their student-teaching field experiences if offered an intensive and reflective methods course based upon constructivist theory and primary source instruction. “By deepening teacher candidates’ understanding of how and why to employ primary sources, a methods course prepares them to foster secondary students’ abilities to read, interpret or analyze sources” (Fehn & Koeppen, p. 480).

However, Fehn and Koeppen (1998) warn colleges of education on being “cautiously optimistic” about any potential of their programs gaining influence in teacher socialization. Researchers still show that cooperating teachers maintain heavy influence upon preservice teachers’ pedagogical praxes and beliefs (Goodman & Fish, 1997; Koeppen, 1998; Ross & Jenne, 1993; Staton & Hunt, 1992). Student teaching field experiences usually serve as the culminating event within preservice programs. Yet, the cooperating teacher, not preservice program instructors, guides and mentors preservice teachers throughout the experience. Many student teachers feel obliged to adopt the methodology and philosophy of their respective cooperating teachers, even if doing so requires student teachers to temporarily or permanently discard what they had studied and practiced in preservice coursework (Fehn & Koeppen). As cited previously, an overwhelming amount of current secondary social studies teachers maintain the status quo through direct instruction methodology and reliance on textbooks (Beyer, 1994; Christopoulos et al., 1987; Joyce & Weil, 2004; Lester & Cheek, 1997; Patrick & Hawke, 1982).

Preservice teachers, themselves, are integral components within their own socialization. Each individual preservice teacher (and novice teacher) makes both conscious and unconscious decisions when making sense of and surviving his/her student-teaching field experience. Ross (1987, 1988) argues that student teachers actively form their field experience by role-playing

personal associated teaching praxes, selectively modeled personal pedagogy hybrids, balancing actions necessary in teaching and their personal belief structures, and/or self-legitimation of professional growth.

This chapter's review of the literature provides much insight in the use of multiple sources in the classroom. It also highlighted the role critical literacy has played historically in social studies education, and how language arts education currently views and uses critical literacy pedagogy. As stated in Chapter One, I have not read any research pertaining to high school history teachers' attitudes toward using multiple sources within critical literacy pedagogy. Within the following chapters, I attempt to shed some light on teachers' perception of multiple sources and what is impacting their uses. I also hope to initiate further scholarship towards this hole.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Since I have not located any scholarship identifying and analyzing high school history teachers' attitudes towards using multiple sources in critical literacy pedagogy, I believe it is necessary to provide both practitioners and scholars with data illustrating teachers' interpretations. Qualitative interviews focuses on how participants make meaning out of lived experiences. Chapter One's research questions focus on how teachers make sense of their curricula and the factors that impact them, thus the selection of qualitative interviews provide an excellent means for collecting such data because questions are geared towards recording teachers as they describe their curricula, pedagogical beliefs, and students in their own words. This chapter explains in detail the methodology I used.

Design and Procedure

Seidman (1998) suggests that interviews allow a researcher to understand other people's experiences and how they interpret, with their own words, their personal experiences. Kvale (1996) views the interviewer within the process of qualitative interviewing as a "traveler;" a metaphor that places the interviewer in a journey where he/she "wanders through the landscape and enters into conversations with the people encountered" (p.4). The conversations that the traveler engages with different people can be purposeful and/or by circumstance. Kvale stresses the importance of the traveler "wandering together with" his/her acquaintances while continually trying to speak the language of the acquaintances (p. 4). Seidman and Kvale's interpretations of qualitative interviewing methodology guided the development and implementation of the interview portion of this study.

Although neither authors' interpretation is truly postmodern, I believe that aspects of their interpretations lend well to a postmodern methodological/epistemological approach. I went into each interview, described below, understanding that each participant teaches within a distinct context that directs how he/she interprets his/her role, students, colleagues, and curriculum. Traditionally, educational research sought to discover universal conditions that described the educational environment within schools. Postmodern epistemology has challenged that notion by suggesting that local contexts prevent any notion of a universal condition. Instead Berger and Luckmann's (1966) concept of *the social construction of reality* placed emphasis on how individuals interpret and negotiate the meaning of the social world. "With the breakdown of the universal meta-narratives of legitimation, there is an emphasis on the local context, on the social and linguistic construction of a perspectival reality where knowledge is validated through practice" (Kvale, 1996, p. 42)

Participants and Setting

For the purpose of this study, I interviewed eleven teachers (four of whom were also observed in their classrooms) from multiple public secondary schools in the state of Washington. Schools were selected according to their individual demography and geographic location. Rural, suburban, and urban school districts were purposely included, as well as large, medium, and small schools. This sample allowed me to collect data from a diverse participant pool of teachers. Each setting mentioned above presents different circumstances and influences on teachers, thus I wanted to insure that important information inherent in each setting or similarities that relate across all three will not be left out.

I limited the definition of "high school history educator" to teachers of grades nine through twelve within the public school system. Because many teachers within small, rural

school districts often times wear multiple hats, teachers who taught different disciplines and grade levels, such as grades six through twelve, were accepted participants as long as one of the history courses they taught fell between grades nine through twelve. These educators must have taught at least one history course (i.e. U.S. history, European history, world history, and Washington state history). Teachers who also taught high school current world affairs were accepted because of the unique nature of the course. Current world affairs often heavily implements historical contexts and study into a social studies course centering on national and global current events. This definition of history educators allowed me to gain a broad consensus over what history educators within the region perceived to be the strengths and weaknesses of using primary and/or secondary sources within their curricula.

OSPI (2005b) has established a limited set of social studies class/credit requirements for public and private secondary schools. However, OSPI does not place a strict mandate on courses/knowledge being taught at a specified grade level. This means that individual school districts are left to design and implement social studies courses at their own discretion. For example, Washington state history can be taught at the eighth grade level in school district “X,” while school district “Y” decides to place the same course at the eleventh grade level. Since OSPI has a limited amount of secondary social studies class/credit requirements, what course is either required or elective is determined more by the districts themselves. This is important to note because differences exist between the curriculum design and student make-up of required, elective, and advanced placement classes. Focusing upon a specific discipline or grade level of high school history, such as ninth grade U.S. history teachers, would not adequately illustrate history teachers’ attitudes of critical literacy instruction via primary and secondary sources within the state. Also concentrating on a single grade within high school history could cause

researchers to further miss data that corresponds to similar or different skills between ninth and twelfth grade.

Possible participants within eastern Washington were contacted via email. I purposely limited possible participants to eastern Washington because of time and cost restrictions. I retrieved email addresses for all secondary history educators from school districts' internet homepages that were listed as links on the state's department of education website. Before I emailed the teachers, I contacted their respective administrators in order to gain permission to contact their faculty. I felt it was necessary as a non-district employee to establish initial contact with administrators in order to insure I was following proper protocol. All respondents who replied positively were considered potential participants. From this participant pool, I purposely selected eleven volunteers who provided perspectives from large, medium, and small school districts from urban, suburban, and rural locations. I used Patton's (1990) maximum variation sampling strategy since it "aims at capturing and describing the central themes and principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation" (p. 172). This strategy allowed me to thoroughly describe and understand the participants' variation and to identify core elements and shared experiences. This sample insured that the study represented variations of teaching environments that might influence the use of curricular sources. Purposefully selecting participants who taught within such different environments also fulfilled the maximum variation sampling strategy by insuring that a highly diverse spectrum was represented in such a small sampling as eleven educators (Patton). By not purposely selecting participants from each school size and location listed above, there is a possibility that I may miss vital data that proves unique within schools with a similar locale or size. A description of participants' professional information is provided in Tables A1 and A2. All participants' names are pseudonyms.

Interviews and Observations

I followed Patton's (1990) interview guide approach in order to meet the postmodern epistemology/methodology explained above. Within the approach, I prepared an interview guide (see Appendix) that served as an outline of the basic avenue I wished to follow as I interviewed each participant. Patton's interview guide approach allowed me to simultaneously make sure two options were fulfilled: similar questions were answered by all participants and freed me to enter into a conversational discussion with each participant. The first option allowed me to gather data needed to mark similarities and differences between each participant's curricular and professional perspectives, thus fulfilling the purpose behind selecting Patton's maximum variation sampling strategy. The second option permitted me to "allow individual perspectives and experiences to emerge" (Patton, p. 283). I wanted to make sure that I allowed each teacher to explain their experience behind using critical literacy via multiple curricular sources, thus freely allowing participants an option of explaining how they make meaning of their respective roles, curricula, students, and districts. As is presented later, the participants provided several answers toward why they choose to focus on critical literacy via multiple sources. Each of these answers was shaped by what each teacher perceived to be the influencing force impacting their professions. For example, a couple of participants identified the power relationships between the state and district administrators and themselves as teachers as impacting their curriculum negatively or positively in regards to critical literacy and multiple sources. Participants usually offered these varied differences when my questioning resembled a conversation instead of the questions listed on the interview guide.

Seidman's (1998) three-interview series also influenced the design of the question guide's format and individual questions. The three-interview series calls for three separate

interviews for each participant. The first interview focuses on the life history of the participant. I asked participants about how they made sense of their profession in regards to the context of their live history: Why did they select teaching? Who and/or what shaped their decision? The second interview centers on the details of the experience being studied. This strategy dominated my interview guide's questions because I wanted to know exactly what sources each teacher used within his/her classroom and how he/she used them in the contexts that shaped their curriculum. The third interview asks the participants to reflect upon the meaning of their experience. By asking participants about how they perceive critical literacy and multiple sources utility in the classroom within the contexts that shape their classrooms. Because of time constraints and budget costs, I condensed Seidman's three-interview series into one interview. The wealth of contextual information gathered from purposely designing my interview guide within such a format provided me with enriching insights into how each participant made sense of their life, decisions, and profession.

Each of the eleven teachers was interviewed face-to-face once during the spring of 2005. All interviews lasted between 60 and 90 minutes, and were recorded using a mini-cassette recorder. Nine of the interviews were conducted in the respective teachers' classrooms either during a teacher's prep period or after school, one took place within the school library, and another was set in a local pub of the teacher's choice after school. I transcribed each interview word-for-word using a transcribing machine and my personal computer within my home office. After interviewing the eleven participants, I asked four who were particularly information-rich (Patton, 1990) for permission to observe a single day of their class for two to three hours. I selected the four participants for observation based on the depth and breadth of information they presented during the interview process in regards to critical literacy and the use of multiple

sources. Observation participants were also selected based upon geographic location, school size, and the potential time and cost efficiency of traveling. The teachers' classrooms served as the setting for the five observations.

I decided to conduct observations because of the amount of insight it would provide this study. Patton (1990) identifies six advantages that observations provide to researchers. First, the researcher is more apt to comprehend holistic perspective of a program. Second, observations make researchers take a more inductive, discovery oriented view of a program because they are seeing it with their own eyes instead of through someone else's interpretation. Third, observations allow researchers to see things that escape a participant's notice. Fourth, researchers are more likely to discover things that the participant decided to withhold during an interview. Fifth, researchers are able to move beyond the selective view of the participant. By making their own selective observations, researchers obtain a more comprehensive view of a program. Sixth, observation allows researchers to make more informed interpretations because of the direct experience they have had with the program. I found each of these advantages to be true as I conducted my four observations.

My observational position was neither the "going native" model nor the "fly-on-the-wall" model, but instead resembled the more realistic hybrid version of both that was noted by Roman (1993). Roman argued that researchers must overcome the traditional subject/object positional dualisms of observers because each position is unattainable for any researcher because of the researcher's status. I found my observation to be weighted more towards the "fly-on-the-wall" approach because most of the time I was seated towards the back of the classroom viewing the actions of the participant and the students and taking careful field notes. Every once in a while I had to assume a less objective position as many students saw me as an authority figure after each

teacher introduced me. Some students asked me questions either about their own assignment or the purpose of my visit as I walked around each teacher's room. Using Roman as model, I would answer either set of questions for each student. However, I was quickly reminded of my authority-laden and outsider position as a handful of students would cover up their work or stop their cooperative group planning as I walked around observing.

Observation field notes were taken using Patton's (1990) sources of data approach, which consists of seven components. First, I recorded the description of the classroom by mapping out the general layout of the classroom. I specifically paid attention to the posters or visual aids pinned to the walls and the amount of technology within each room. I also noted whether the classroom setup, such as the placement of desks, was conducive towards cooperative learning groups or small individual projects. Second, I paid attention to the human, social environment within each classroom. I specifically noted the relationship between the teacher and his/her students. I closely monitored whether the students were engaged and followed the teacher's instructions. If the students were working in groups, I monitored the progress and communication styles of each group. Third, I took notes on the planned activity of each teacher's classroom. Each teacher told me that they would plan an "average" lesson plan activity that illustrated how they used primary and secondary sources for building critical literacy skills. I carefully outlined the procedure and purpose of the lesson plans. Fourth, I observed the informal interactions of the teacher and students within each classroom. I noted how students entered the classrooms and got ready for class. Fifth, I analyzed the native language of the classroom. This includes the contextual keywords that the teacher used to instruct the students during the lesson. Such keywords that I was searching for included how the teachers described the materials that they were using in class, and the actions (i.e. analyze, interpret, compare) they wanted the

students to accomplish. Sixth, special attention was paid to the nonverbal communication that occurred in each classroom. I looked at the facial expression of the students as they listened to the teacher's instructions and conducted individual/group work. This helped me to gauge the engagement and comprehension of the students. Finally, I observed what was not happening during each lesson. I looked at whether the students who were working individually or cooperatively were completing the assignment, or whether they were actually practicing the skills to complete an assignment as instructed by the teacher.

In addition, my observational field notes also included direct quotes or close paraphrases of teachers and students as they worked through the lesson plan (Patton, 1990). This was done in order to examine how either the students or the teachers made sense of the lesson plan as it occurred. This allowed me to focus upon how the students understood and completed the assignment, and how the teacher understood his/her own expectations. Beside the aforementioned emic perspective gathered from recorded quotes or paraphrases, I also recorded my own feelings, judgments, and reflections as they occurred throughout and after each observation. This allowed me to later analyze my immediate response to the observations because I must also note my own interpretation of the lesson and classroom actions in order to make careful comparisons between the etic and emic perspectives. All field notes were handwritten within a spiral notebook.

Data Analysis

After collecting data from interviews and observations, I analyzed both transcriptions and field notes in search of emerging trends and patterns. I purposely chose to allow the sets of categories to arise from the data because I felt this was integral in coming as close as possible to understanding both the similarities and differences of the participants from their own worldview.

The focus of my research questions was how the participants made sense of their curricula, students, districts, and profession. Of course it is natural that some of the sets of categories naturally surfaced because of predispositions I held (Seidman, 1998). The choice of allowing sets of categories to emerge from data is quite different from interviewing to see what you find. The difference between the two is that the former is a conscious decision made beforehand by qualitative researchers, like myself, to permit the participants' worldviews to come out of their own words. I believe that a researcher interviewing to see what he/she can find is a haphazard and unscientific choice because the researcher has not deliberately focused their methodology to meet the research question or questions that he/she is asking. Also, the researcher has not intentionally thought about and separated his/her perspective from that of each participant.

As I examined the transcriptions and field notes, I began to construct preliminary categories by recording topics that each participant's answers and classroom actions (in the case of field notes). The coding strategy I used was Bogdan and Biklen's (2003) *definition of the situation*. This coding strategy matches the focus of my research question in that "this type of code aim[s] to place units of data that [identify and describe] how the subjects define the setting or particular topics" (Bogdan & Biklen, p. 162). I marked units of data that explained how the subjects, themselves, defined their pedagogical practices, classroom/school environments, and students' actions with different colored highlighting pens. Within the field notes spiral notebook, I identified the different colored highlighting pens used with categorical labels and short descriptions. Professional role, role of the student, personal view of history's benefits, textbook use, multiple source use, and critical literacy activities were examples of the categories that I identified. Each followed *definition of the situation* because they concentrated relating data to categorical labels from the participants' perspectives.

I ended up with too many categories, many of which did not connect with other categories or categories related to one another devoid of context (Maxwell, 1996). In order to create connections between sets of categories I employed Maxwell's *contextualizing strategies*, which is "understanding the data in context, using various methods to identify the relationships among the different elements of the text" (p. 79). *Contextualizing strategies* exactly matched my research questions because understanding and interpreting the participants' experience with multiple sources depended heavily on context. For example, Washington State's assessments (see Chapter Four) drove all of the participants' perspectives of multiple sources usage within their curricula. Such context is vital in an increasingly correct and concise interpretation of data (I purposely stated "increasingly" because I understand that my own biases enter into interpretations). Each of the themes identified in Chapter Four represents Maxwell's *contextualizing strategies*. These themes were recording in my notebook with labels and short descriptions as to how context united the initial categories (using *definition of the situation*) together into sets.

Ethics and Validity

Before beginning the face-to-face interviews with the participants, I read the consent form that explained the study's procedure. Only after all procedural questions were answered and the participant verbally consented did the interview begin. All participants were reminded that they could stop the interview or observation if they felt uncomfortable at any time. I provided a typed copy of the transcript to each participant if they desired. This allowed the participants to make sure that I transcribed accurately their statements and contexts. All participants' information remained anonymous, and all data were stored in a locked file cabinet in my home

office. Within the study, pseudonyms were assigned to the participants to insure anonymity. In addition, information that may identify participants was changed.

Issues of validity could certainly be a consideration within this study even though I took precautions and carefully planned to eliminate such obstacles. My affiliation with Washington State University could influence participants to censor or limit the amount of information given because they may want to promote a certain perspective of their classroom and district. Contacting district administrators in order to gain district approval before communicating with each teacher also may have caused an issue with validity. Since I included in each email to teachers that I contacted their district administrator prior to them, individual teachers may have felt obligated to participate instead of freely volunteering because of a perceived administrative sponsorship of my study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Seidman, 1998) This may have limited the amount of information that a participant shared because I was seen as connected to the administration, thus a teacher may have chosen to withhold critical information pertaining to a district's curricular praxes. I tried to avoid such a limitation by stating within the initial emails to teachers that I merely contacted their administration for permission and that their participation was still fully voluntary. After analyzing the interview transcripts, I believed that the participants did not view me as associated with their administrations because many did not hold back critiquing their districts.

My own perspective could have also influenced the data collected because of my position as a male, middle-class, Caucasian, graduate student. Since I am a young male, Seidman identified potential hazards that may arise as I interview different participants. Seidman warned that older male participants might try to gain control and direct the interview. Female and ethnic minority participants might have also felt intimidated, thus reluctant to give certain information.

For both situations, I established collegial rapport with participants that illustrated my gratitude for their contribution, but I maintained the interview's direction.

By following the issues of ethics and validity described above, I was able to collect data that both informed and protected participants. I was also able to identify and avoid possible obstacles that might have negatively influenced data collected. Maxwell (1996) states that identifying issues of validity within a study allows researchers to “refer to the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account” (p. 87). Thus, the validity issues previously identified provided much direction and insight as I interpreted and analyzed Chapter Four's data. Finally, by meticulously following the previously identified methodology, I was able to identify Chapter Four's two themes from data collected from both the interviews and observations.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Each of the interviews brought themes to the forefront that reflected similar attitudes or situations within high school history education at the district, state, and/or national levels. This would seem quite natural as each individual teacher's curriculum is initiated, shaped, and concluded by one of the three education administrative levels. As these eleven interviews were being conducted in the spring of 2005, all the teachers' districts were quickly adapting to the state of Washington's decision that requires all 2005-06 tenth graders to pass the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL) before they graduate high school (OSPI, 2005c). Since the 2000-01 school year, the state legislature has required all high schools to administer the examination as an academic measurement in addition to providing both students and districts time to acclimate to the WASL's format and its corresponding state standards (OSPI, 2001).

As participants described their recent experiences with the use of primary and secondary sources as a means to developing critical literacy within the history curricula, the shadow of the WASL seemed ever present. First, the teachers' accounts on what currently impacts their use of primary and secondary sources are shared. Second, the teachers' varying descriptions of the utility of primary and secondary sources within the classroom are presented.

Factors that Impact the Use of Multiple Sources

WASL. After analyzing the interview transcripts, three distinct factors arose that the teachers identified as impacting their use of primary and secondary sources. As previously mentioned, the WASL is the current primary determinant of the selection and use of primary and secondary documents. For the last 15 years, the U.S. Department of Education along with states' education administrations have increasingly focused capital and research on assessments in

mathematics, science, and literacy education in order to compete globally in technology, industry, and business (Symcox, 2002). The WASL certainly reflects this trend since it measures students' mathematics, reading, writing, and science comprehension.

Even though social studies is not included in the WASL, each teacher's district has adapted, and continues to refine, its social studies curriculum in order to emphasize the practice and mastery of reading and writing skill sets. A number of teachers commented on this recent phenomenon. Tori was one participant whose comments highlighted the point. As an experienced 28-year teaching veteran, Tori taught in a school that serves an extremely diverse student body. A large number of her students came from low socio-economic status families. Tori, a Native American whose versatility has allowed her to teach at a variety of schools and grade levels including a reservation school and a residential treatment center, stated:

So our main push is that we're teaching literacy and numeracy. The vehicle we're using to do that is world history. ...I mean we have been gravitating towards teaching the skills and needs of the WASL in the history department for the last 2 or 3 years. And we have seen positive results on our kids. ...What we find is that if you're not one of the classes that's tested on the WASL, which social studies is not, there's a tendency to decrease the number of courses in that discipline in order to increase math, science, and reading support. So, we're really focusing on keeping our department vital so that we're not eliminated. ...So, we work very hard to show that we are working towards the WASL; that we are a benefit. We work closely with the English department.

Since the state of Washington deemed literacy skills as important, other teachers, such as Dora, Michael, and Claudia made similar comments. In fact, each of their rooms contained a large poster-sized list of the reading and social studies Grade Level Expectations (GLE's) for

grades 9 and 10. GLE's serve as the definition of set and prescribed skills and/or knowledge that demonstrates a student's mastery of a corresponding state standard (OSPI, 2005d). Tori viewed this as a positive change because of the increased emphasis on reading factual information in textbooks and primary sources in order to distinguish more complete pertinent information in regards to an in-depth question. She continued by listing additional skills that the GLE's poster emphasized: understand, explain, compare, analyze, assess, and summarize. When asked about whether the knowledge or skills emphasized in her world history course have changed since the adoption of the WASL, Tori explained, "Yes. I think before they invented the WASL the objectives for history was that students would know who Hitler and who Stalin was. What was the turning point of this war or that war?" Tori implied that simplistic identification and memorization of historical facts that calls upon a concrete knowledge base has indeed changed to include the use of facts in order to investigate a historical dilemma. Such use of multiple sources in the classroom prompts students to practice and master critical literacy skills, thus extending students past concrete knowledge and into abstract knowledge.

Claudia, a nine-year veteran of a large, urban school who also has an endorsement in special education, entered the teaching profession as a second career following her previous career in clothing retail. This single-mother of two children entered education to aid disadvantaged students. Claudia provided a detailed explanation of an American studies lesson plan project that has been influenced since the WASL and corresponding GLE's provided curricular direction:

[I]n the first unit where we looked at the Constitution and civics. They took a Supreme Court case and did a poster. And they had to meet certain criteria. They had to look at

who was involved in it. What was the basis of the case? What was the background? What was the outcome? What was the voting, and give us an overview.

The WASL and GLE's definitely influenced the planning and implementation of Claudia's lesson because in order to meet the criteria, students had to practice and demonstrate understanding, detailed explanations, in-depth analysis, pertinent assessment, and broad summation.

Like Claudia, Michael, a social studies department head with twenty years of experience who declared that he constantly read fiction and non-fiction literature for personal pleasure and professional reasons, stated that the WASL and GLE's have changed the direction of "projects". Coming from a family that truly valued education, Michael taught students from low socio-economic backgrounds in his large, urban high school. Serving as his school's department head, Michael provided much insight on how he and his district have struggled with the WASL's adoption. "Projects," according to both teachers, were the nontraditional assignments/assessments that involve combining traditional high school research with a more real-world based assessment. Both Claudia and Michael remarked that they have had to refocus their projects toward emphasizing critical literacy, thus providing a more enriching experience for students. Michael explained that the WASL's looming presence over the curriculum influences high school history teachers to edit out previous projects that were weighted more towards fun and creativity without a firm basis in the state standards:

It doesn't have the feel anymore of projects like some folks, you know, used to have. I hope to God that people aren't building teepees anymore, but it used to be in social studies that by the time they're a senior, they'd built teepees at three or four different [grade] levels to understand Native Americans. And it had nothing to do with the Plateau

Indians out here. Most of that has been stripped away and gone by the wayside. And I think it should have been.

Claudia provided further insight that complements Michael's statement in that many of her district's middle school and upper elementary teachers have been:

Doing projects because the projects are fun. And it's something that the teachers have done forever. And we've seen both with the kids coming up. Not what they covered necessarily was what they should've been covering for that grade level. And the kids were coming with holes. But now with everything being aligned, the kids should come with a much stronger background with... the curriculum they need[.]

However, many of the participants did not reflect upon the WASL as a totally positive influence toward their curriculum. Rose, who was a 15-year veteran and was additionally endorsed in Japanese instruction, felt that the inclusion of reading and writing GLE's has saturated the world history course she currently teaches with additional objectives. After combining the reading and writing GLE's with the already lengthy list of social studies GLE's, Rose stated that "It's a huge laundry list. You look at it and it's totally overwhelming. And you have a given period of time with kids who don't necessarily have the skills." This was not because Rose lacked skills or methodology knowledge that may have eased her sense of being overwhelmed. Rose, who holds a Master of Arts degree, had recently completed national certification within social studies education. The process of national certification requires teachers to reflect upon their teaching practices and their student performances.

Michael added that the WASL has caused his social studies department to become more rigid than he would like it to be. He explained that part of this rigidity was out of necessity since the WASL has caused such a quick revamping of the history curriculum. In order to ease the

design and implementation of lesson plans and assessments into the teachers' respective curricula, social studies teachers in Michael's department have agreed to restrict the number of assessment format options that had been previously available for students. Such options allowed students to present their new knowledge or skills in a variety of ways. Michael hoped that this restrictive nature is only temporary because he sees the need for students to demonstrate skills in a variety of formats such as written screenplays and simulations of historical events.

At the outset, Rose and Michael's wariness of the WASL did not seem to impact the use of primary and secondary sources and critical literacy in the history curriculum. However, some participants divulged that the time spent on carefully planning lessons and assessments in strict accordance with the GLE's that serve as the skills and knowledge tested in the WASL limited the amount of time and energy that could be devoted towards seeking out primary and secondary sources. Also, the pressure of improving scores on the WASL's reading and writing assessments have forced Michael's department into a large overhaul of his department's social studies curricula. The overhaul caused so much stress that the department had decided to restrict the choice of assessment formats. Michael believed that the assessment restriction denied students possibilities of truly exploring the information and context of multiple sources via critical literacy. He explained that limiting the format of assessments reduces the possible directions and dimensions of meaning-making that multiple sources ultimately offer to students.

Classroom-based Assessments (CBA's). The second factor that impacted the use of primary and secondary sources relates to the changes, positive and negative, that have occurred because of the state's recent full adoption and implementation of the WASL. As previously mentioned, the WASL does not contain a social studies assessment. Instead, OSPI has designed a series of CBA's that is scheduled to become mandatory within Washington in 2008-09 for high

school students in grades 10 or 11 (Perkins, personal communication, February 8, 2005). The history CBA's format instructs students to analyze historical artifacts, maps, and sources in order to develop an educated argument. Then students must write the historical interpretation and reasoning of their arguments citing information gathered from the multiple sources provided (OSPI, 2005a; Perkins, personal communication, February 8, 2005).

Without even considering the participating teachers' remarks, one can hypothesize that an upcoming mandatory assessment that centers on the critical literacy of primary and secondary documents will definitely shape the teachers' use of multiple sources. However, it seemed that only teachers who were piloting the CBA's for the state focus on further developing their methods of presenting and modeling critical literacy skills that would be demanded by the state in a few years. Sam, Michael, Dora, Corey, Claudia, and Rose all worked in different school districts that were involved in the CBA's pilot program. Those participants who were in school districts not involved with the pilot program did not even mention the term CBA during the interviews. Several inferences could be drawn regarding why these other teachers did not mention the CBA's as influencing their use of primary and secondary sources. A possible reason could be that they are putting the planning off for a couple of years since CBA's do not become official until 2008-09, thus they did not (at the time) view the CBA's as influential. Another interpretation could be that they are not well informed on the state's plans on implementing the CBA's. A third reason could simply be that I did not ask any teacher directly about the experience with or anticipation of the CBA's due to my pre-interview shortsightedness. I came into the interviews knowing about OSPI's plans with CBA's, but I overlooked adding questions pertaining to the topic onto my reference questionnaire.

Sam's small, rural school happened to be piloting the CBA's. As a master teacher who has earned many teaching awards and recognition within his 31 years of teaching, Sam also taught an audio-visual technology class. Since Sam's classroom is filled with enough computers for every student, not to mention video editing, digital cameras, and video production equipment, he has been able to make use of technology within the social studies courses that he teaches. Sam, who did not use primary sources frequently within his American history course, was in the middle of implementing a large project for his 12th grade current world issues course as a way to test the utility of such an assessment in a course that offers more flexibility in terms of curriculum requirements and time allotment. At the time of the interview, Sam believed that his American history curriculum was too full to insert an unknown assessment. With research projects such as the topic "Columbia River Drainage," Sam wants his students to identify the holistic nature of the social studies through the heavy utilization of governmental, academic, and interest group websites pertaining to designated single issues within the "Columbia River Drainage" topic. The websites contain both historical and recent legal and academic findings such as Native American treaty rights, imminent domain documents, and environmental statistics. The heavy use of computers was possible for every student because Sam's classroom contained computers with internet access for every student. Even though Sam had previously assigned a similar research paper for the end of the course, he decided to move the project up to serve as a prerequisite to the pilot CBA. He also adapted the project to include the same instructions and grading rubric that will appear on the CBA.

Rose, Claudia, and Michael shared very similar experiences in that each of them had always used some form of primary and secondary sources in addition to their textbook, but the CBA's caused the three teachers to refocus their teaching to emphasize the comprehension of

multiple sources. Rose provided an example of how she is aligning her lessons to meet the GLE's that correspond to the CBA's:

We've had some accounts and quotes from the French Revolution of the different sectors of society: of what a peasant would say, a bourgeoisie, or something like that. The primary sources are a big part of the GLE's for the world history [course], but that is definitely a place that we need some help on. And this first year, [we're] trying to use them effectively, and helping the kids work through it.

Claudia and Michael agreed with Rose by stating that this first year and the subsequent few years will prove to be a challenge as students are introduced to an increasing number of assignments modeled after CBA's in addition to the WASL. The two also suggested that it will take time to discover pedagogical hurdles and coordinate all teachers within each of their respective social studies departments to use similar critical literacy strategies in each of their classrooms. During the time of the interview, Michael seemed exhausted from the recent curricular changes:

I think we might be spending too much time, too much emphasis on the CBA's. I think we're spending too much time on our unit assessments, our own internal [departmental] ones. I want to come to a point where it seems more natural to do this, and I think that will happen as the kids come to us with the expectation to do it. ...[They] will see it as more of a natural thing that comes along. We won't have a kid who is just having to do classroom-based assessments for the very first time. We'll get kids who have done it for seven or eight years.

This leads to another point. Tori and Michael reminded me that teachers are not the only ones impacted by the switch to both the WASL and CBA's. The students who happened to be

freshman during the 2004-05 school year are going to be the first class that must pass the WASL before attaining their high school diploma. On top of that, their high school teachers, at least those whose districts are piloting the CBA's, are having to adapt to curricula that suddenly added the critical literacy of multiple textual sources. Michael explains these students' plight with sympathy:

We're trying to take the kids who the doors are shutting behind them as they go along.

There is no going back. ...These kids that are right now in 9th grade, who know that next year [they] are going to have to take the WASL, are asking "Why us?" Well in one or two years after these other kids have flushed through the system and have gone through the WASL and everything, it won't be that. But right now there is a lot of "Why me?"

It's a victimization almost of "Why me? Why did they do this to me? Why couldn't they have done it one year later?"

These students that Michael described, along with those students immediately behind them to a lesser extent, are impacting how their teachers use multiple sources in the classroom. As I reviewed the transcripts of Tori, Michael, and Rose, I started to notice signs of apprehension whenever one of them talked about their changing curriculum and the students it will serve in the next couple of years. Each of these three teachers seem to wish that they could skip ahead three years instead of having to experience potentially hostile attitudes from a number of students who are described by Michael as "victims."

Students' reading levels. Students' reading levels serve as the last factor that has impacted the use of multiple sources within the classroom. Each participant within this study noted how reading levels drastically affected what primary and secondary sources they selected to include in their curriculum and how they planned on using them within the class. Each teacher

also happened to teach a history course that is a requirement for graduation. Typically, these teachers have a broad range of reading levels amongst students within their classrooms since every student must pass these designated courses. Meanwhile, a handful of the participants are teaching honors or advanced placement (AP) courses. The range of readers within these classes is usually more homogeneous and typically consists of average to excellent readers.

Tabitha, a bi-racial, suburban educator with eight years of experience, stated that her students' reading levels did influence her use of multiple sources. Tabitha taught and coached within a school district that served an ethnically diverse student body in a suburban location. Tabitha used a variety of sources within her world history classroom: videos, newspaper clippings, internet sites, and primary textbook. Tabitha acknowledged that many times textual primary or secondary documents are written above grade level for her 10th grade world history course. In addition to a textbook, Tabitha assigned each student a primary source reader containing historical documents that represented Western Civilization from the Ancient Greeks and Romans to the present. Tabitha explained how she must adapt many of the selections from the primary source reader because of the broad range of readers within the required course: "They [students] don't understand it that much. I don't put a lot of grade weight on it, but I like them to work with the material a little bit so that we can see what they were really thinking and writing back then." She continued by adding that she limits the reading from the primary source reader to about a single document every two weeks on average.

Rose's perspective concurred with Tabitha's in that her students generally found documents within the primary source reader more challenging. The primary source reader that Rose assigned is a British publication aimed at British students who are either in an advanced history course in high school or an entry level university course. Rose stated that many of the

documents she assigned were read out-loud together as a class because the reading level is just difficult enough to cause confusion. Another reading strategy Rose employed for the primary source reader came from the fact that many students did not have the depth of historical knowledge over a given subject. She had students individually write down all the information that they already knew about a subject, for example the French Revolution. Next, she had students ask any questions that they had in order to clear up their preliminary background knowledge. After completing these two steps, students independently read the documents. Finally, students were given time to ask additional questions after the reading in order to clear up confusion. Basically, Rose implemented the graphic organizer known as a KWL chart.

Since they both used primary source readers as an additional text within their classes, it is only appropriate to note that Rose continued to assign documents out of the primary source reader at a higher frequency than Tabitha. The reading difficulty of the two different primary source readers seemed to be about the same, and from both teachers' descriptions, students at each school were about at the same reading level. Participating in the aforementioned CBA pilot program could be a reason why Rose tended to use the primary source reader more. Rose also mentioned two reading strategies that seemed to be aiding in her students' comprehension of the documents. Rose mentioned that her department is reading Cris Tovani's (2004) *Do I Really Have to Teach Reading* as a way for all the social studies teachers to workshop and dialogue together in order to meet the needs of their students, raise WASL reading scores, and to master some literacy methods before the CBA's become mandatory.

An interesting comment arose from Rose's students after she asked them which item they preferred reading:

[The students] are like, “I like our [text]book because it’s color.” And I’m like, “Oh, OK.” ...Again, it’s a way of looking at things. [The textbook] will have the title of the chapter in red, and then it will have the main points in a different color. It kind of outlines things out what the main ideas are for the chapter. When a kid gets to a primary source, they don’t have those bold headings. They have to navigate their way through it. ...When they read the text, the headings are there for them[.]

This comment came as a complete surprise to me because I thought, generically, that reading difficulties were due to the language and literary style of the text. Instead, Rose’s students have noted an additional point that is valid to bring up for discussion, thus I will discuss possible solutions to this later.

Insiders’ Perspectives on Individual Sources’ Utilities

After describing the three different factors that impacted the participants’ use of multiple sources, it is vital that I identify and describe the actual sources (disregarding traditional history textbooks) that the participants used within their curricula. Each of the eleven teachers within the study used a number of primary and secondary sources within their curriculum and openly shared their perspectives on the functionality of the varying multiple sources they each incorporated into their curriculum. Interestingly, as participants identified individual sources, it became clear to me that the given uses fell under two themes. The first theme was personal values. Personal values have always shaped each individual teacher’s curriculum. As teachers select and disregard topics within their respective fields, their personal values become a factor (Barr, Barth, & Shermis, 1978; Barth & Shermis 1970; Martorella, 1996, Vinson, 1998). The same is true when different teachers interpret the utility of particular primary and secondary sources. It is only natural that teachers who personally value technological knowledge and skills

will more than likely add this value when judging sources' on their functional basis. Washington State's assessments, the WASL and CBA's, composed the second theme that I identified. This is quite predictable as previous data identified both assessments as factors that impacted how teachers used multiple sources within their classrooms. As I describe these two themes below, I will also identify the actual sources that the teachers' described as possessing utility.

Personal values. It is important to remember that a teacher's personal values affect what he/she identifies, disregards, or is unaware of as beneficial uses. Scholars have designed pedagogical frameworks that attempt to explain how a teacher's personal values can shape many aspects of his/her curriculum; including the functions that he/she deems important within sources. Barr et al. (1978; Barth & Shermis, 1970) identify three dominant "traditions" of social studies instruction: citizenship transmission, social science, and reflective inquiry. Each "tradition" aligns with its specific purpose, method, materials, and content. Martorella (1996), using Barr et al.'s three "traditions", adds two more components, informed social criticism and personal development, in order to propose a competing framework for social studies education that includes five "perspectives." Many studies that utilized either Barr et al. or Martorella's pedagogical frameworks acknowledge that the majority of teachers indeed fall into a combination of roles instead of under a single label (Barr, et al.; Vinson, 1998; White, 1982). As various personal values are examined below, I will briefly identify how I perceived each teacher fitting into a combination of the two frameworks according to interviews and/or classroom observations (see Table A2 for complete listing of participants' framework identification). Each framework description below is my personal opinion driven by data collected from interviews and/or observations. Acknowledging that many of the teachers probably fit into several of the frameworks, I will only note the two frameworks that I see as influencing each teacher the most.

Many participants agreed that one major function of multiple sources was to present different perspectives of historical events. Each participant shared the same desire to get away from the textbook as the lone voice. There was a general consensus among participants that the textbook has continued to provide a limited perspective within historical events. As noted before, Wineburg and Wilson's (1991) study points out that teachers who personally value the analysis of perspectives and contexts specifically seek out multiple sources. Tori, fitting in social science/informed social criticism, stated that her department is struggling to present a global perspective within their world history curriculum. Even though she admitted that her current world history textbook offers students more diverse perspectives on world events, Eurocentric biases still remained strong in such topics as the Crusades and Columbus' interactions with indigenous peoples of the Caribbean. Tori strongly believed that adding textual primary sources, such as government documents and written correspondence from Great Britain, France, and Belgium, allowed her to expand her *Age of Exploration* unit to include perspectives of the hegemonic attitudes of imperialist nations:

The children were very surprised to discover that they were very racist. In the documents, it's saying that the higher races have an obligation to take care of the lower races. When they first looked at that, they just accepted what they read. But when the [classroom] discussion came about [I asked students], "Well, what exactly is a lower race?"

Chad, an impressively knowledgeable (based upon his detailed descriptions of historical events, reading strategies, and Lexial scoring knowledge) history/language arts educator who has taught for thirteen years and was currently teaching at a large, suburban school, explained how he had his students read and analyze Winston Churchill's "Iron Curtain" speech, Joseph Stalin's "Two Worlds" speech and excerpts from Harry Truman's diaries. Chad, who fell under reflective

inquiry/informed social criticism frameworks and taught within a room that contained a computer for every student, had his students access the speeches from the internet in order to understand how Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the US each had a different perspective to explain their reasoning behind of the Cold War.

In addition, many teachers felt that the textbook provided students with a “broad, but shallow” base of historical knowledge. They chose to add primary and secondary sources in order to dig deeper into particular historical conflicts. Sam, who belonged to the citizenship transmitter/reflective inquiry camp, articulated his frustrations with such textbooks:

They [textbooks] do the traditional, blow-over, give us the facts, but no reality of what the person living in the time would be like. ...It’s factual stuff, but kids don’t like factual history. They want it personalized a bit. What would it be like for a teenager to live in the 1800’s? What would you be doing right now? I’ve got all of these resources. I’ve got files and pictures. And so I say, “You want to live out in the frontier? Here’s an article. Read this. It talks about kids going out to pick up buffalo chips to fuel the fire... How they put wire [lines] out between the barn and the house and the outhouse and the house so in the wintertime during the storm they could still go to both places. Those are the type of things that the kids are interested in.

Like Sam, the participants who personally valued this function all fully believed that covering all aspects in US history or chapters within their world/history textbook was far from a priority. In fact, the same teachers all acknowledged that they usually relied upon the textbook to present students with background knowledge or a common knowledge base. Then teachers believed that students were more able to handle the format and context of multiple sources because they were introduced to the topic.

This utility relates well to the previous one in that the development of multiple perspectives within the history curriculum usually entails designing a unit that delves deep into the studied subject. It is only natural that adding sources that contain different perspectives will cause teachers to present a more in-depth unit on the topic. Teachers must explain the context of each source's information in order for students to comprehend the source's information. Because of this fact, the following data will provide additional evidence for teachers valuing multiple sources for their introduction of multiple perspectives.

Kori, an energetic teacher and basketball coach in her late twenties who taught in a small, rural school, purposely chose to use historical photographs from the Great Depression in order to provide visual evidence of the condition of rural Americans in the Great Plains during the 1930's. Kori was the only social studies teacher because of her school's small student body. She used her school's size to her advantage as community members participated as knowledgeable primary sources as Kori's students often interviewed them for varying assignments. During the interview, Kori (social science/reflective inquiry) felt that many sections within her textbook failed in providing students a context of how events affected "everyday" people. After finding black and white photographs of "everyday" people during the Great Depression on the internet and printing them onto overhead transparencies, Kori presented the visual primary documents to students in order to allow them to comprehend the cause and effect relationship. I observed students as they carefully examined each photograph together. Each photograph prompted students to ask each other and Kori questions about why the picture portrayed certain people, objects, and activities. These questions lead to a deeper analysis of people who found it necessary to migrate to the West Coast during the 1930's. Because many of the photographs contained adolescents or young adults, students seemed even more interested in how people

close to their age experienced life. Just like Sam, Kori stated how important it was for teachers to personalize history by providing evidence of or challenging students to imagine teenagers living during a historical era. She felt that this strategy proved successful as a “hook” to engage students.

Nicole, a fourth year teacher in a small, rural school district who prides herself on offering courses that challenge students to develop critical thinking skills more than any other teacher in the district, also used multiple sources in order to provide more analysis of a time period. Before teaching, Nicole had worked as a social worker in central Washington. This experience influenced her decision to teach. She also noted that her focus on sociology and her previous career directed her curricula in its reliance upon authentic assessment. In relation to Kori, Nicole (social science/reflective inquiry) also designed lesson plans that contained primary documents that presented what life was like for the “average” person or teenager. In addition to using textual documents that contain perspectives of those wielding political power, such as the Truman Doctrine or presidential correspondences, Nicole also purposely used a book that contained letters written to presidents from “average” people. By analyzing the letters, students were not only studying history from a bottom-up format (i.e. social history), but the letters provided students with an avenue to a more comprehensive understanding of the Vietnam War’s affect on different segments within American society.

Many teachers acknowledged that they collected wartime propaganda posters and political cartoons from a variety of sources: the internet, primary source readers, and specialized books that contain newspaper and magazine clippings of different historical episodes. Claudia (social science/reflective inquiry) explained that such visual and textual sources as propaganda

posters and political cartoons allowed students to witness the high emotions and public responses toward certain events:

One [propaganda poster] that was incredibly powerful was when we looked at propaganda in the Spanish-American War. And we showed the students a propaganda poster that described the sinking of the Maine. It showed some headstones, and it said, “Maine sailors.” But, it depicted the Spanish as gorillas – bloodthirsty gorillas. And that was one that really got a reaction out of them.

Without the deconstruction of the propaganda poster, Claudia explained that her students would not have understood the wave of anti-Spanish sentiment that swept America so quickly. Instead the Spanish-American War would have blended-in with other possible topics because the textbook’s coverage was so “surface”. Adding this enriching source certainly offered Claudia the ability to implement a lesson that promised more complete coverage.

Nicole, like Sam, Kori, and Claudia, believed that slowing down the pace allowed her to present a more thorough history, which in turn would provide students with a knowledge base that they could use in the future as adults to understand similar circumstances that will or have already occurred. Multiple sources, especially primary textual documents, provided all four teachers with information that allowed them to present the thorough history that they desired. Sam’s file cabinet full of journal excerpts, period articles, and photographs allowed him to provide a curriculum that permitted students to come closer to answering the question “Why am I studying this?” Many of the teachers implied that a more in-depth curriculum provided by the inclusion of multiple sources allowed students to answer such questions as Sam’s students.

A few of the teachers voiced that adding multiple sources into the classroom was done to keep the curricula interesting to themselves. At first this may not appear to be an important

utility of any curricular material. However, an intellectually stimulated educator who is well versed in pedagogical methods will certainly remain a laudable educator. Students undoubtedly recognize teachers who assume the role of life-long-learners. I personally remember some of my own teachers, too few unfortunately, who were seen during their planning periods, before and after school, and during class time as students quietly completing assignments rummaging through materials or surfing the internet in search of additional ideas, methods, or supplements that would enrich their curriculum. I also remember the teachers who relied upon the same overhead transparencies year-after-year and wondered to myself how they were supposed to inspire students to become intellectually curious. Thus, remaining interested within one's subject matter and profession qualifies as a crucial personal value.

Michael (social science/reflective inquiry) labeled himself as a "resource person" because of his habit of collecting multi-media resources. This habit keeps Michael's curriculum interesting to him:

I prefer to be constantly growing and not rotting. When I'm rotting, it means that I'm not learning anything. I think I need to be a life-long learner if I expect my students to be. I can get complacent. That's probably one of the reasons why my lessons change year-to-year and are not static. ...I try to collect resources: books, videos, pictures, things like that to help myself and to help other teachers as opposed to static lesson plans or handouts.

Entering Michael's classroom, I instantly saw evidence of his description. Books dealing with historical, political, and biographical subject matter lined several bookshelves. Alongside these books were assorted news magazines from multiple political perspectives. It is from these

multiple sources that Michael provides a challenging, enlightening curriculum for his students – and himself. Michael continues:

I met in my student teaching people who had file cabinets full of stuff that they would Xerox to the point where it was a connect-the-dots piece of paper. I decided, I guess early on, that I wouldn't be that kind of teacher. It's heck of a lot more work. I think right now I am trying to hit a happy medium. I'm not trying to create brand, new, fresh all of the time. That would burn anybody out. But at the same time not get something that is so old and musty that I'm burned out [from] boredom.

Rose (social science/reflective inquiry) agreed with Michael on the importance of remaining engrossed in history and education. She supported this personal value by stating how an educator's interest in teaching or the topic itself was associated with the students' interest.

Rose explained:

I always have been a little rebellious, so I guess I found that the textbook... You do the same thing everyday. It's not all that interesting. I like to find different ways of doing things and just kind of presenting things then in a way that gets kids engaged with the material in some way.

I found Rose's use of "rebellious" an indication of the interest function that finding multiple sources had for her. Constantly locating sources that added new strands of knowledge engaged Rose with world history. It was as if it was "rebellious" to develop new knowledge by challenging existing thoughts, her own and her students', instead of following a more traditional path that Michael previously described as being "burned out [from] boredom."

It seemed to me that the teachers who noted that multiple sources provided them with interest relied on the internet heavily. By either finding the sources (official documents,

photographs, speech transcripts, political cartoons, propaganda posters, ect.) themselves or through assigning students to conduct research using the internet, teachers like Rose felt as if the internet provided a means to keep the intellectual spark alive for themselves and their students through the vast amount of sources available. Chad's use of an online textbook, *Digital History*, supported my assumption. By utilizing *Digital History*, Chad and his students had access to a number of hot links that directed users to primary and secondary academic sources. Chad's excitement over the use of the online textbook certainly derived from the amount of information he and his students could access.

These utilities based upon personal values spoke to the positive experiences teachers have had with the inclusion of multiple sources. A common link to each of the three personal values was each teacher's need to challenge him/herself in creating a curriculum that met their own expectations. Multiple sources provided these teachers a means to accomplishing this challenge.

State assessments. After analyzing the data, however, it became clear to me that the WASL and CBA's were also directing teachers' perceptions of varying multiple sources' assets and drawbacks. It is only natural that assessments that measured students' comprehension of facts and skill mastery would prompt teachers to see the utility in multiple sources. As stated before, the WASL and CBA's both require students to read, analyze, and interpret written materials. In addition, CBA's necessitate students to actually compare and contrast multiple sources in order to draw a single conclusion from a variety of explanations. Teaching to the test is nothing new to educators. It has been a survival strategy for many educators ever since high-stakes testing became the norm within public schools.

A function that multiple sources provided teachers was that they gave students a variety of written texts. Rose and Michael explicitly stated how their social studies departments were

being redesigned in order to improve reading and writing scores on the WASL. Each explained how sources such as speech transcripts, diary entries, library books, and newspaper articles were being used in order to meet the literacy needs of the districts' students. Each of these sources provided different literacy styles for the students, which the participants deemed instrumental because the two assessments did not solely rely upon a singular genre of written material. Rose expressed that multiple sources functioned as a means to design lesson plans and activities that prompted students to practice such higher order literacy skills as analysis, inference, synthesis, deduction, induction, and comparison. These skills are required within the CBA's that she is piloting and has been a major degree of focus within the WASL. Rose explained how she, along with her department colleagues, is struggling to identify "essential questions" for units such as the French Revolution. Because Rose felt that these "essential questions", questions that demand students to make thematic connections across a unit and all the sources provided, have the potential of providing excellent practice for the CBA's, finding such questions that involve multiple sources and broad themes were proving to be a challenge:

And I think we've done a really nice job with the French Revolution. ...Why do people rebel? What causes people or groups to rebel? That was a rich question and kids could write an essay on it. It seemed to get them. Now, World War I['s essential question] is what were the causes of World War I. Who or what lit the fuse? It's not all that engaging, but I can't off the top of my head really think of a richer question that would help us meet the needs of the classroom-based assessment. Yes, it [CBA] has shaped the entire choice of the unit because we knew we had to do a conflict [a CBA requirement].

However, Rose and her colleagues decided the World War I unit's "essential question" may have proved to be too large in scope for students to use their critical literacy skills to make

connections across many sources. She explained that many of the students have not developed the critical literacy skills enough to tackle such a complex and contextualized question. Yet, Rose still saw the utility of multiple source inclusion because of its direct application into CBA's. She continued to describe how her department as a whole decided to select another unit, but keep the methodology because of its utility:

Was it [World War I] too big of conflict? It may have been easier just to say, "OK, we're going to do imperialism in Africa or something smaller." It's certainly controversial and it's open-ended. And it meets the needs or the requirements of the classroom based assessment.

Rose noted that her department had already decided to increase emphasis on the amount of sources they use within each unit. Also, future unit plans will accentuate the research and analysis process in particular because of the progress they have made so far with an intentionally scaled down amount of sources. Her department has witnessed the utility of the methodology as students have increased their informational reading skills within unit assessments. Her school's student body has consistently scored low in the informational reading portion of the WASL. Rose identified that many students were catching on slowly to a critical literacy pedagogy that includes multiple sources, and a few have already excelled with the methodology. However, many students with low-reading/comprehension skills still reported hardship. "We're scaffolding a lot. Spoon feeding them. Some of them are doing OK. Others... have a folder of all the resources that they have. And some of them have nothing in it [resource folder]."

Michael's department also viewed multiple sources as an excellent method for focusing on the skills required in the WASL:

We've had strong emphasis on inference because that is one of the things on the WASL that students are not good at. So we decided [to focus on] two things in particular: cause/effect and inference. And so we've been working really hard at [making] inferences in the reading, inferences in videos, inferences in photos, inferences all around. So I think they're getting better at it because we do it over-an-over again.

Because Michael used multiple sources with his ninth grade world history class in order to practice the skills necessary in the two state assessments, he noted how the method influenced his students' introduction to abstract thinking skills inherent in critical literacy pedagogy. Michael reflected on how ninth grade was the first time students overtly focused on identifying historical perspectives of the multiple sources:

This assignment set [students] up a little bit to [recognize perspectives] because they have to identify the four causes [of World War I] that they want to write about. And then they have to synthesize which one they think is economic and defend why. ...Up to this point it's been concrete. Their development has been concrete. They get into ninth grade, then all of a sudden it's a concept of abstract thinking. It's new to them, so it's a transitional thing.

Rose and Michael agreed that multiple sources provided students with the necessary function of practicing skills that are required on state assessments. Both the WASL and the upcoming CBA's measure the progress that students are making in the development of critical literacy skills. Multiple source inclusion provided teachers, whose jobs depended on an acceptable rate of skill development, a highly useful and authentic method of practicing and developing critical literacy skills. In addition, many participants concurred that multiple sources also lead to curricula that met their own personal needs. These two utilities are important to

recognize because they can tell scholars and other practitioners exactly what source many teachers may be identifying as beneficial. In Chapter Five, I discuss how the factors that impact the use of multiple sources and the utilities fit into the field based on the analysis and interpretation of data from this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of the study was to explore the high school history teachers' perceptions of multiple sources within critical literacy pedagogy and to identify and analyze the utilities that such a curriculum offered teachers. I accomplished this by studying data from interviews with eleven teachers, four of whom I observed as they taught. Notable themes appeared as I analyzed and interpreted interview transcripts and observation field notes. Within Chapter Five, I discuss the conclusions from the study and will offer several implications for curricular material design and critical literacy practice. In addition, I suggest recommendations for further research.

Discussion

The data that eventuates from this qualitative study suggests that several conclusions may be drawn. First, state legislation that creates, revises, or deletes such mandates as subject standards and state assessments definitely impact the way teachers use multiple sources within their history curricula. Teachers emphasize that the increased specification of expectations within assessments and standards simultaneously focuses and limits how they design and implement lesson plans that contain multiple sources. The state of Washington might finally be influencing its teachers to change from the status quo of direct instruction to methodologies that emphasizes critical inquiry skill sets advocated by Dewey (1916, 1933) and Hart (1909; Hartoonian, 1994; Whelan, 1994). As Washington teachers continue to reshape their curricula to better prepare their students for the WASL and upcoming CBA's, many more will adapt their teaching away from direct instruction via a reliance upon textbooks that has been dominating history teachers' instructional methods (Beyer, 1994; Christopoulos et al., 1987; Joyce & Weil, 2004; Lester & Cheek, 1997; Patrick & Hawke, 1982). As more teachers move towards practicing critical

literacy pedagogy with multiple sources, preservice teachers who are currently learning how to use multiple sources within their preservice courses will more than likely continue utilizing the instructional method as they enter their careers. Since research has shown that cooperating teachers still maintain a strong influence on preservice teachers' pedagogical practices and beliefs, more than any college of education curricula (Fehn & Koeppen, 1998; Goodman & Fish, 1997; Koeppen, 1998; Ross & Jenne, 1993; Staton & Hunt, 1992), many preservice teachers may continue to utilize multiple sources during their student teaching experience and into their curricula as full time history teachers.

Second, student-reading levels influence the teachers' selection and use of multiple sources. This is not surprising since student-reading levels influence a large number of curricular decisions year-in-and-year-out. Teachers who have a large number of students who read below grade level tend to employ reading strategies, model their own reading methods, or select reading-level appropriate sources. However, recent scholarship indicates that language arts curricula are emphasizing critical literacy pedagogy (Gee & Clinton, 2000; Myers et al., 1998, 2000; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002; Wilhelm & Edmiston, 1998). As language arts teachers continue to employ and improve their own critical literacy pedagogy, history teachers should begin to see a rise in reading levels within their own curricula. Students will have stronger critical literacy skills because of the increase of practice within language arts instruction. Teachers will utilize more primary and secondary sources by relying on those that prove difficult for many students at this point in time. Students with strengthened critical literacy skills will also allow history teachers to increasingly utilize the authentic assessments described in Chapter One. Teachers who clearly identify the real world application of knowledge and skills, such as those practiced in authentic assessments and critical literacy pedagogy, are likely to engage more of their

students because current scholarship indicates that students reject reading practices or texts that do not provide an apparent function outside of school doors (Bean et al., 1999; Kaser & Short, 1998; Moore, 1996; Smith & Wilhelm).

Third, personal values influence how teachers judge the utility of multiple source instruction within their curricula. The three personal values identified in Chapter Four were the desire to introduce multiple perspectives, the aspiration to get away from a single textbook dominated curricula that merely provide a “broad, but shallow” perspective of history, and a need to challenge one’s teaching through adding aspects that each teacher finds interesting. Participants who stated their desire to introduce multiple perspectives to their students by not relying on a single textbook are more able to design and implement curricula that complements and meets the state of Washington’s definition and rationale for social studies (OSPI, 2005b), aforementioned in Chapter Two. Teachers whose personal values closely resemble that of the participants will also meet NCHS (1996) and NCSS (1994) standards. Participants with the above personal values certainly match Wineburg and Wilson’s (1991) description of teachers who value the analysis of perspectives. Wineburg and Wilson stated that such teachers would seek out multiple sources in order to experience the diversity of opinion. Other participants sought to contextualize world history and cultures by providing non-Western perspectives of world history within their courses. The fact that teachers, like Tori, devote time and resources to the search of non-Western perspectives indicates that Commeyras and Alverman’s (1994) analysis of world history textbooks is still justifiable in that other cultures are viewed from an American/European perspective.

Fourth, state assessments also influence how participants perceived each source’s utility. As stated in Chapter Two, 22 states currently limit the choice of history textbooks to those

named on state-approved lists. In particular, Texas, Florida, and California textbook adoption lists hold overwhelming influence as each state spent during the 2004-05 school year “more than \$900 million for instructional materials, more than a quarter of all the money that will be spent on textbooks in the nation” (Ansary, 2004, p. 33). That being said, it is easy to understand why textbook publishers primarily edit their textbooks to match up with Texas, Florida, and California’s respective state standards. Ansary continues by stating that Texas possesses more sway than the other two states because Texas spends \$42 billion on its K-12 public schools. “More important, Texas allocates a dedicated chunk of funds specifically for textbooks. That money can’t be used for anything else, and all of it must be spent in the adoption year” (Ansary, p. 33). Naturally, states adopt textbooks that meet their respective definitions and rationale for social studies education and the assessments that measure each state’s standards. As relatively small states, like Washington, continue to create and adopt high-stakes assessments, such as the WASL and CBA’s, teachers will certainly amend their curricula to include multiple sources because the publishers are not revising their textbooks to meet standards from states with lower populations and who spend less money on instructional material annually. State assessments that measure the reading comprehension of multiple literature genres will prevent teachers from solely relying upon textbooks to design and implement their curricula (Beyer, 1994; Christopoulos et al., 1987; Joyce & Weil, 2004; Lester & Cheek, 1997; Patrick & Hawke, 1982).

Implications

The results gathered from the eleven interviews and four observations have provided me with three possible implications that I deem necessary if Washington State’s history teachers and local and state administrators wish to increase students’ reading and writing scores on the WASL and upcoming history CBA’s scores. The scores are directly linked to critical literacy skills. The

WASL's reading and writing assessments ask students to analyze and interpret selected readings in order to answer related questions. The history CBA's require students to read, analyze, and interpret several primary and secondary sources. Then students must compare and contrast the facts and perspectives contained in the sources in order to develop and write an argumentative essay over a historical topic. As results have shown, many high school history educators have experienced problems with teaching their students to comprehend and utilize primary and secondary sources using critical literacy skills.

Symbolic cues. As Rose previously highlighted when she asked her students whether they preferred the textbook over the primary and secondary sources, many students find textbooks to be easier to read because of their written format. Textbooks are laden with symbolic cues that guide students through the content. Upon opening their textbooks, many high school students are easily able to identify chapter headings, subheadings, key words or phrases, important names and dates, sectional and chapter summaries, and response questions. Such information is readily identifiable because of symbolic cues such as distinguishing font and colors. For decades, textbooks have been printed using such symbolic cues that aid in student reading and comprehension. In fact, by the time students reach ninth grade they have already used such formatted textbooks for several years. The participants indicated that the symbolic cues proved especially important for students with low reading scores.

However, the vast majority of primary and secondary documents do not contain such symbolic cues. As the participants mentioned, they gathered most of their multiple sources from historically-based websites, the local library, or from their own personal books. Because such documents are printed with other objectives in mind (beyond education), most primary and secondary documents are written in a business and/or entertainment format. The use of symbolic

cues of educational value is nonexistent. Most are textual multiple sources (those primarily presenting information in written language form) are written in a black and white format with very little variation in font. Even most primary source readers lack the symbolic cues that are so abundant within textbooks.

To further complicate matters, many primary and secondary documents are written at a post-high school level. The intended audience for most documents that high school teachers tend to use is informed adults. Many documents used, either from primary source readers or from another source, are legal or government documents. Others tend to be textual media reports gathered from newspapers and periodicals.

Therefore, I suggest as my first implication that primary source editors begin to manually format multiple sources with symbolic cues for students in order to resemble that of textbooks. In the case of primary source editors, this should be an easy alteration as most of editors also revise traditional history textbooks. As editors compile their final list of documents to include in their primary source readers, they should take into consideration that they are for adolescent students who are inexperienced when it comes to reading and comprehending such documents as legal briefs, government documents, political speech transcripts, journal entries, and political cartoons. Just as in traditional textbooks, editors should format each document with specific, standardized cues that aid students in locating document title, author, key words, thesis statement, subsections, and conclusion.

I acknowledge that requesting publishers to amend primary source textbooks with symbolic cues seemingly contradicts critical literacy pedagogy's philosophy behind that emphasizes the necessity of students practicing and mastering comprehension skills inherent in an empowered adult citizen. I also recognize that adolescents who finish formal schooling and

enter into adulthood will not have the luxury of media embedded with symbolic cues to aid in comprehension. However, there are currently no instructional materials, such as primary source textbooks, available that provide students with a transition between traditional textbooks that spoon-feed students and adult media, which offer little to naught in terms of guided comprehension. Primary source textbooks edited with symbolic cues will serve as this transitional instructional material. Students, especially those with lower than grade level literacy skills, need to learn how to read multiple sources in order to apply such skills with no guidance as adults. In order to serve a transitional function I further suggest that primary source textbooks only insert symbolic cues in the first half of the documents. The second portion of documents would not contain any symbolic cues. This allows teachers, with the aid of the primary source textbook, to scaffold critical literacy skills with students at the students' pace.

Knowing that customer demand drives publishers' products, I also argue that teachers should not wait for publishers to produce primary source textbooks with symbolic cues. Therefore, teachers must take the initiative to create transitional activities for students using multiple sources that they usually use within class. I assert that teachers should guide their students step-by-step in the process of critically reading the different forms of media. For example, if a teacher prints off an editorial from a regional newspaper's website in order to have their students read and interpret the author's opinion, the teacher should walk the students through the location of the editorial's date, author, topic, perspective, keywords or phrases, thesis statement, supporting evidence, and conclusion. Similarly, if a teacher is designing a lesson involving the interpretation of World War II propaganda posters, the teacher must make sure to plan on leading the class through the identification of the individual poster's artist, date, message, symbolism, text, supporting evidence, and intended audience. In either circumstance,

the teacher should guide the students orally and through visual examples, the process of searching for such important components that lead to critically analyzing specific media. The teacher should assign students to make their own symbolic cues in the distributed multiple sources. This will provide an additional transitional method of preparing adolescents to comprehend media that they will use to inform and entertain them as adults. Slowly, the teacher will diminish the amount of guidance that is given when students read and analyze multiple sources during assignments. This will act as an additional scaffolding strategy. The end goal is having students who possess the ability to identify and comprehend multiple sources on their own without guidance or the inclusion of symbolic cues.

Reading strategies. My second implication addresses the same problem as the first implication: students' reading difficulties with multiple sources. Many teachers who use multiple source instruction in addition to critical literacy pedagogy may choose not to assign primary source textbooks to their students. Instead, many prefer to gather their own multiple sources from a variety of means that were exemplified by the participants in Chapter Four. However, the diverse amount of genres that could possibly comprise primary and secondary sources present students with unique and difficult situations. Except for a select group of language arts courses, a history course that incorporates multiple source instruction presents students with extremely diverse reading materials that call upon varying reading skills.

Consequently, history teachers who use multiple sources within critical literacy pedagogy need to educate themselves on current reading strategies. As stated in Chapter Four, Rose expressed that she and her social studies colleagues definitely benefited from the book study and other means of exploring reading strategies. However, some of the other participants were at the preliminary stage of identifying that the use of multiple sources in critical literacy pedagogy and

state assessments that focus on students' comprehension and analysis skills necessitates that they must quickly learn literacy strategies. Teachers must begin to search out and master reading strategies that have proved essential in language arts instruction. After mastering such strategies, teachers should also model the strategies numerous times. Modeling such strategies will further provide scaffolding for all students who are at varying reading levels. In addition, learning and practicing reading strategies will aid students as they utilize multiple sources with embedded symbolic cues (either inserted by students/teacher or the publishers). Undoubtedly, school districts will witness improvement in reading scores if history teachers simultaneously make use of reading strategies already available in language arts instruction and scholarship and the use of symbolic cues. There are multiple ways that teachers could learn such strategies:

workshops/seminars, summer courses, book study groups, and private research. Local school administration and state social studies and history education organizations must also support such endeavors by requesting and organizing scholars and/or experienced practitioners to run such seminars/workshops and college course.

Inclusion of nontextual sources. The final implication deals directly with the lack of nontextual (visual, audio, or combination) sources within most teachers' curricula. Only a few of the participants stated that they regularly used nontextual sources within their curricula. Most provided examples of textual documents. I believe this is due to the need to increase textual literacy scores on the WASL and to get ready for the textual source-based CBA's. Within the American public school and US society as a whole, nontextual literacy is nonexistent as literacy or is seen as a second-rate literacy; the social hierarchy within the US deems textual literacy as supreme (Scribner, 1984).

However, schools and society must wake up to the fact that students live in a society that is dominated by media that relies upon sounds, texts, and symbols for advertisements, information, and entertainment. Feuerstein (1999) suggests that media literacy is necessary in promoting critical thinking skills within students. Occasionally in history courses and more significantly in courses similar to current world affairs, students must be able to make meaning out of photographs, audio bits, television news reports, and advertisements. History and social studies teachers should promote textual and nontextual literacy within the classroom with multiple sources. Educating an informed citizen must imply that the citizen will be proficient in multiple literacies (Gallego & Hollingsworth, 2000).

Recommendations for Further Research

The current study proposed to examine the experiences and perspectives of high school history teachers draw upon as they implement multiple source instruction with critical literacy pedagogy. As a final component of this study, I recommend three possibilities for further research. Since I purposely limited the time period over which I interviewed and observed teachers, I feel that such a limit could have presented me with data that represented a short segment of time within Washington State instead of a possible long-term situation that normally impacts the use of multiple sources. A possible study that extends participant interviews and observations to long-term status may provide insight into additional components that influence the use of multiple sources. Perhaps meeting the needs of the WASL and upcoming CBA's is so prominent in this study because of the time frame in which I collected data.

In-depth case studies of Washington school districts will also prove to be beneficial for social studies scholarship. Because the WASL and CBA's are demanding so much attention from social studies teachers and their respective school districts, it is necessary for upcoming

scholarship to focus on the experience of a school district that is struggling to meet the challenges presented by the two assessments. According to the current trend and atmosphere surrounding high-stakes assessments within public education, practitioners and administrators will definitely need research that outlines how a number of districts have succeeded and/or failed in meeting state standards. Such scholarship will act as guides to meeting state standards and achieving acceptable scores on state assessments.

Finally, interstate case studies that compare and contrast different districts attempts to meet state standards and approve assessment scores is needed. Both districts and states can undoubtedly profit from such research as data will illustrate the vast differences that are apparent between states. However, many differences may be eroding because of such national education legislation as *No Child Left Behind*. Social studies educators and administrators nationwide need to understand how each state and their respective districts meet both national legislation and state standards within social studies.

In closing, many high school history teachers who embrace multiple source inclusion as a way of practicing critical literacy pedagogy, like the participants, are at a vital junction. They wholeheartedly believe that the critical analysis of multiple sources within the classroom is a valid investment in the teaching and learning of skills that are necessary in a child's growth into an educated, empowered adult citizen. Such teachers may also have to prepare students for state assessments that mirror the WASL and CBA's in the importance of reading and comprehending multiple forms of literature. However, many of these teachers need the literacy methodology necessary in promoting the type of curriculum endorsed by many national and state educational organizations (NCHS, 1996; NCSS, 1994; OSPI, 2005). Governmental agencies, academic institutions and panels, and local districts must provide all history teachers with access and

support to locate and learn literacy strategies that will certainly promote multiples sources utilization within a critical literacy pedagogy.

References

- Angell, A. V. (1998). Learning to teach social studies: A case study of belief restructuring. *Theory and Research in Social Education, 26*(4), 509-529.
- Ansary, T. (2004). The muddle machine: Confessions of a textbook editor. *Edutopia, 1*(2), 30-35.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Barr, R., Barth, J. L., & Shermis, S. S. (1978). *The nature of the social studies*. Palm Springs, CA: ETC.
- Barth, J. L., & Shermis, S.S. (1970). Defining the social studies: An exploration of three traditions. *Social Education, 34*, 743-751.
- Bean, T. W., Bean, S. K., & Bean, K. F. (1999). Intergenerational conversations and two adolescents' multiple literacies: Implications for redefining content area literacy. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 42*(6), 438-448.
- Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1966). *The social construction of reality*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.
- Berliner, D. C. (2002). Educational research: The hardest science of all. *Educational Research, 31*(8), 18-20.
- Beyer, B. (1994). Gone but not forgotten: Reflections on the new social studies. *The Social Studies, 85*, 251-256.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2003). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bracher, M. (1993). *Lacan, discourse, and social change*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a theory of instruction*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press.
- Center for Education Reform. (2004, October 21). The textbook conundrum revisited. *Center for Education Reform*. Retrieved December 4, 2004, from <http://www.edreform.com/index.cfm?fuseAction=document&documentID=1879§ionID=35&NEWSYEAR=2004>
- Christopoulos, J. P., Rohwer, W. D., & Thomas, J. W. (1987). Grade level differences in students' study activities as a function of course characteristics. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 12*, 303-323.

- Commeyras, M., & Alvermann, D. E. (1994). Messages that high school world history textbooks convey: Challenges for multicultural literacy. *The Social Studies*, 85(6), 268-274.
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education: An introduction to the philosophy of education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Engle, S. H. (1977, April). *Decision-making: The heart of social studies instruction revisited*. Paper presented at the Shirley H. Engle Conference, Bloomington, IN.
- Fehn, B., & Koeppen, K. E. (1998). Intensive document-based instruction in a social studies methods course and student teachers' attitudes and practice in subsequent field experiences. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 26(4), 461-484.
- Feuerstein, M. (1999). Media literacy in support of critical thinking. *Journal of Educational Media*, 24(1), 43-54.
- Foucault, M. (1970). *The order of things: An archeology of the human sciences* (A. Sheridan, Trans.). New York: Pantheon.
- Freire, P. (2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (30th anniversary edition). New York: Continuum. (Original work published 1970)
- Gabella, M. S. (1994). Beyond the looking glass: Bringing students into the conversation of historical inquiry. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 22(3), 340-363.
- Gallego, M. A., & Hollingsworth, S. (2000). Introduction: The idea of multiple literacies. In M. A. Gallego, & S. Hollingsworth (Eds.), *What counts as literacy: Challenging the school standard* (pp. 1-23). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (2nd ed.). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Gee, J. P., & Clinton, K. (2000). An African American child's science talk: Co-construction of meaning from the perspectives of multiples discourses. In M. A. Gallego, & S. Hollingsworth (Eds.), *What counts as literacy: Challenging the school standard* (pp. 118-135). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Goodman, J., & Fisher, D. R. (1997). Against-the-grain teacher education: A study of coursework, field experience, and perspectives. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 48(2), 96-107.
- Gulikers, J. T. M., Bastiaens, T. J., & Kirschner, P. A. (2004). A five-dimensional framework for authentic assessment. *Educational Technology, Research and Development*, 52(3), 67-87.

- Hart, A. B. (1909, October). Imagination in history. *The American Historical Review*, 227-251.
- Hartoonian, H. M. (1994). Preface. *Expectations of excellence: Curriculum standards for social studies*. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies.
- Hicks, D., Doolittle, P., & Lee, J. K. (2004). Social studies teacher' use of classroom-based and web-based historical primary sources. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 32(2), 213-247.
- Hynd, C. R. (1999). Teaching students to think critically using multiple texts in history. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literature*, 42, 428-436.
- Idaho Department of Education. (2004). *Bureau of Curriculum and Accountability: Curricular materials*. Retrieved November 15, 2004, from <http://www.sde.state.id.us/instruct/Curriculum/ssced.asp>
- Joyce, B., & Weil, M. (2004). *Models of teaching* (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Kaser, S., & Short, K. G. (1998). Exploring culture through children's connections. *Language Arts*, 75(3), 185-192.
- Kobrin, D. (1996). *Beyond the textbook: Teaching history using documents and primary sources*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Kobrin, D., Abbott, E., Ellinwood, J., & Horton, D. (1993). Learning history by doing history. *Educational Leadership*, 50(7), 39-41.
- Koeppen, K. E. (1998). The experiences of a secondary social studies student teacher: Seeking security by planning for self. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 12(4), 401-411.
- Kvale, S. (1996) *InterViews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lester, J. H., & Cheek, E. H. (1997). The "real" experts address textbook issues. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 41, 282-291.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hill, CA: Sage.
- Longstreet, W. S. (2003). Early postmodernism in social education -- revisiting "decision making: the heart of social studies instruction". *The Social Studies*, 94(1), 11-15.
- Martorella, P. H. (1996). *Teaching social studies in middle and secondary schools* (2nd ed.). New York: Merrill.

- Maxwell, J. A. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Moore, D. W. (1996). Contexts for literacy in secondary schools. In D. J. Leu, C. K. Kinzer, & K. A. Hinchman (Eds.), *Literacies for the 21st century: Research and practice. 45th yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (pp. 15-46). Chicago: National Reading Conference.
- Myers, J., Hammett, R., & McKillop, A. M. (1998). Electronic symbol making: young children's computer-related emerging concepts about literacy. In D. Reinking, M. C. McKenna, L.D. Labbo, & R. D. Kieffer (Eds.), *Handbook of literacy and technology: Transformation in a post-typographic world* (pp. 63-78). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Myers, J., Hammett, R., & McKillop, A. M. (2000). Connecting, exploring, and exposing the self in hypermedia projects. In M. A. Gallego, & S. Hollingsworth (Eds.), *What counts as literacy: Challenging the school standard* (pp. 85-105). New York: Teachers College Press.
- National Center for History in the Schools. (1996). *National standards for history*. Los Angeles: National Center for History in the Schools.
- National Council for the Social Studies. (1994). *Expectations of excellence: Curriculum standards for social studies*. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies.
- National Education Association. (1893). *Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies*. Washington: Government Printing Office.
- Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2001). *Washington assessment of student learning revised timeline*. Retrieved on September 11, 2005, from <http://www.k12.wa.us/WASL/systimp.aspx>
- Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2005a). *Classroom-based assessments for Fall 2004 pilot*. Retrieved on September 11, 2005, from <http://www.k12.wa.us/curriculumInstruct/SocStudies/CBAs.aspx>
- Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2005b). *Social studies overview*. Retrieved on March 19, 2005, from <http://www.k12.wa.us/CurriculumInstruct/SocStudies/default.aspx>
- Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2005c). *Testing windows for state assessment*. Retrieved on September 11, 2005, from <http://www.k12.wa.us/assessment/TestWindow.aspx>

- Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. (2005d). *Washington State Learning Goals*. Retrieved on September 11, 2005, from http://www.k12.wa.us/CurriculumInstruct/EALR_GLE.aspx
- Parker, W. C. (2005). *Social studies in elementary education* (12th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Patrick, J. J., & Hawke, S. (1982). Social studies curriculum materials. In *The current state of social studies: A report of Project Span* (105-185). Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Richardson, L. (1994). Writing: A method of inquiry. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 516-529). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Roman, L. G. (1993). Double exposure: The politics of feminist materialist ethnography. *Educational Theory*, 43(3), 279-308.
- Ross, E. W. (1987). Teacher perspective development: A study of preservice social studies teachers. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 15(4), 225-243.
- Ross, E. W. (1988). Becoming a teacher: The development of preservice teacher perspective. *Action in Teacher Education*, 10(2), 101-109.
- Ross, E. W., & Jenne, J. (1993). Effects of institutional forces on novice social studies teachers' curricular decision-making. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Atlanta.
- Rossi, J. A. (1995). In-depth study in an issues-oriented social studies classroom. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 23(2), 88-120.
- Rugg, H. (1926). Foreword. In the National Society for the Study of Education, *The twenty-sixth yearbook: The foundations and technique of curriculum-construction* (pp. vii-xi). Bloomington, IL: Public School Publishing Company.
- Schrag, P. (1967, January 21). The emasculated voice of the textbook. *Saturday Review*, 74.
- Schrug, M. C., Todd, R. J., & Beery, R. (1984). Why don't kids like social studies. *Social Education*, 14(1), 45-68.
- Scribner, S. (1984). Literacy in three metaphors. *American Journal of Education*, 93, 6-21.
- Seidman, I. (1998). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

- Seixas, P. (1994). Students' understanding of historical significance. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 22(3), 281-304.
- Shannon, P. (1995). *Text, lies, & videotape: Stories about life, literacy, and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Shaver, J. P., Davis, O. L., & Helburn, S. M. (1979). *An interpretative report on the status of pre-college social studies education based on three NSF-funded studies*. New York: National Council for the Social Studies.
- Smith, M. W., & Wilhelm, J. D. (2002). *Reading don't fix no Chevys: Literacy in the lives of young men*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Sparkes, A. C. (1995). Writing people: Reflections on the dual crises of representation and legitimation in qualitative inquiry. *Quest*, 47, 158-195.
- Stahl, S. A., Hynd, C. R., Britton, B. K., McNish, M. M., & Bosquest, D. (1996). What happens when students read multiple source documents in history? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 31, 430-456.
- Staton, A. Q., & Hunt, S. L. (1992). Teacher socialization: Review and conceptualization. *Communication Education*, 4(2), 109-137.
- St. Pierre, E. A. (2002). "Science" rejects postmodernism. *Educational Researcher*, 31(8), 25-27.
- Symcox, L. (2002). *Whose history? The struggle for national standards in American classrooms*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Texas Education Agency. (2004). *Texas Education Agency: Textbook Administration*. Retrieved on November 15, 2004, from <http://www.tea.state.tx.us/textbooks/>
- Tovani, Cris. (2004). *Do I really have to teach reading?: Content comprehension, grades 6-12*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.
- Usher, R., & Edwards, R. (1994). *Postmodernism and education: Different voices, different worlds*. London: Routledge.
- Vinson, K. D. (1998). The "traditions" revisited: Instructional approach and high school social studies teachers. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 26(1), 50-82.
- Weedon, C. (1998). *Feminist practice & poststructuralist theory* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *Voices of the mind: A sociocultural approach to mediated action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Whelan, M. (1994). Albert Bushnell Hart and the origins of social studies education. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 22(4), 423-440.
- White, C. S. (1982) A validation of the Barth-Shermis social studies preference scale. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 10, 1-20.
- Wilhelm, J. D., & Edmiston, B. (1998). *Imagining to learn: Inquiry, ethics, and integration through drama*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Wineburg, S. S. (1991). On the reading of historical texts: Notes on the breach between school and academy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 28, 495-519.
- Wineburg, S.S. (1999). Historical thinking and other unnatural acts. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 80(7), 488-499.
- Wineburg, S. S., & Wilson, S. M. (1991). Subject-matter knowledge in the teaching of history. *Advances in Research on Teaching*, 2, 305-347.
- Wolk, S. (2003). Teaching for critical literacy in social studies [Electronic version]. *The Social Studies*, 94(3), 101-107.
- Zinn, H. (1999). *A people's history of the United States: 1492-present*. New York: HarperCollins.

APPENDIX

Interview Guide

Personal and Career History

1. Where did you get your undergraduate degree and teacher's licensure?
2. Besides teaching at (current school), where else have you taught?
3. How many years have you taught?
4. Describe the first moment or set-of-events that you decided to become a teacher.
5. What are your personal goals for yourself as a teacher?

School and Classroom Demographics

1. Describe the students in your classroom.
2. When students complete your course, what skills should they have mastered? Describe.

Primary and Secondary Sources

1. Do you have a textbook for the students within your course(s)?
2. How do you use the text (if available)?
3. How would you rate your textbook's readability for the grade level it's serving?
4. How would you rate the information presented in the textbook? (accuracy, biases, relevancy, use of photographs and graphs)
5. Besides the textbook, what other sources are used in your class(es)? Describe these sources.
6. Do the outside sources that you use complement the textbook, or do they provide information or ideas that the textbook doesn't address? Explain.
7. What would you describe as a primary (class) source?
8. Would you describe any of the outside sources that you use as a primary source? Which ones?

9. What would you describe as a secondary (class) source?
10. Would you describe any of the outside sources that you use as a secondary source?
Which ones?
11. Why do you use outside sources when teaching? (purpose, objectives, standards)
12. How do all of the sources that you use in the course add to the mastery of the skills that you previously mentioned as necessary to completing your course?
13. How do you choose the material you use? Why?
14. What factors affect what you select?
15. What seems to work best in engaging your students?
16. How did your high school history teacher(s) teach you?
17. How were you introduced to or how did you learn to use multiple sources/primary sources in a history classroom? Explain.
18. What does it mean to be a historian?
19. Is there any questions pertaining to history education and classroom sources that I haven't asked?

Table A1.

Overview of Teachers' Professional Information

Name	Gender	Ethnicity	Years of Experience	Level of Education	School Location/ Size	Course & Grade	National Certification
Tabitha	Female	Bi-racial	8	B.A.	Suburb, Medium	10: world history 12: current world affairs	No
Michael	Male	White	20	M.A.	Urban, Large	9: world history 11: US history	No
Rose	Female	White	15	M.A.	Urban, Large	9: world history	Yes
Sam	Male	White	31	B.A.	Rural, Small	11: US history 12: current world affairs	Pending
Kori	Female	White	4	M.A.	Rural, Small	10: US history 12: current world affairs	No
David	Male	White	11	M.A.	Urban, Large	10: world history advanced placement 12: European history advanced placement	No
Tori	Female	Native American	28	B.A.	Urban, Large	9: world history 12: current world affairs	No
Dora	Female	White	10	M.A.	Urban, Large	10: world history honors 11: US history advanced placement 12: current world affairs	No
Claudia	Female	White	9	M.A.	Urban, Large	9: world history 9: world history honors 11: US history	No
Chad	Male	White	13	M.A.	Suburb, Large	11: US history	Yes
Nicole	Female	White	4	B.A.	Rural, Small	11: US history 12: current world affairs	No

Table A2.

Teachers' Pedagogical Frameworks and Curricular Material

Name	Framework	Primary Source Textbook	Used Audio or Visual Sources	Observed in Classroom
Tabitha	social science/ personal development	Yes	Yes	No
Michael	social science/ reflective inquiry	No	Yes	No
Rose	social science/ reflective inquiry	Yes	Yes	No
Sam	citizenship transmission/ reflective inquiry	No	Yes	Yes
Kori	social science/ reflective inquiry	No	Yes	Yes
David	critical inquiry/ personal development	No	Yes	Yes
Tori	social science/ informed social criticism	No	Yes	No
Dora	social science/ reflective inquiry	Yes	Yes	No
Claudia	social science/ reflective inquiry	No	Yes	No
Chad	reflective inquiry/ informed social criticism	No	Yes	No
Nicole	social science/ reflective inquiry	No	Yes	Yes