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Teachers' Beliefs, Knowledge, and Implementation of Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy in Three Advanced Placement United States History Classrooms

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Teachers' Beliefs, Knowledge, and Implementation of Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy in
Three Advanced Placement United States History Classrooms

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Keywords: historical literacy, communities of practice, discipline-specific, reading,
writing

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family. You always provided me with encouragement and instilled in me the importance of getting an education. To my husband Brad, thank you for lending an ear and providing me with the support I needed. Thank you for keeping me in check and not letting my wild imagination get the best of me! I love you! It's been a great ride so far but the best is yet to come!

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	viii
Abstract	ix
Chapter One: Introduction	1
Situating Myself in the Inquiry	2
Definition of Terms	9
Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy	12
Disciplinary literacy versus content-area reading	12
The disciplinary literacy perspective	16
Historical literacy	19
Reading in the history classroom	23
Writing in history classes	25
Statement of the Problem	27
Rationale and Significance of the Inquiry	29
Theoretical Frameworks	33
Research Questions	35
Overview of the Inquiry	35
Delimitations of the Inquiry	37
Limitations of the Inquiry	37
Summary	40
Organization of Remaining Chapters	40
Chapter Two: Literature Review	42
Theoretical Frameworks Informing the Inquiry	43
Communities of practice	43
Speech genres and social language	47
Historical investigations learning model	49
Review of the Relevant Literature	53
Adolescent Literacy	53
Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy	60
Disciplinary literacy as teaching cognitive strategy instruction	61
Disciplinary literacy as personal and cultural literacy	65
Disciplinary literacy as thinking processes	69
Disciplinary literacy as language and text structure	73
The Discipline of History	76
Historical literacy	78

Historical thinking	81
First-order and second order concepts	85
History as a System of Knowledge	87
Historical consciousness	88
Adolescent construction of the past	89
Historical stances toward the past	91
Teaching History in the Classroom	92
Reading historical texts	95
Composition of history texts and building event models	98
Writing in History Classrooms	101
Task interpretation	102
Expert versus novice cognitive skill choice	104
Advancement in Historical Thinking	106
Document-based question (DBQ) essays	106
Non-document-based questions	109
Historical Thinking in the Secondary Classroom	110
Strategies for teaching historical thinking	112
Strategies for implementing primary and secondary sources	113
Strategies for historical writing	114
Summary	115
Chapter Three: Methodology	118
Developing the Design of the Study: Two Pilot Studies	121
Pilot observations	121
George’s pilot	121
Michelle’s pilot	123
Shay’s pilot	124
Interview pilot	126
Theme one: All three social studies education majors focused on the “all knowing” textbook, unit tests, and essays in high school history	128
Theme two: All three social studies education majors developed knowledge of primary sources in college	130
Theme three: All three social studies education majors utilized intermediate literacy strategies in the history classroom	132
Theme four: All three social studies education majors developed historians’ heuristics for working with historical evidence	133
Summary of the pilot studies	135
Design of the Dissertation Study	135
Qualitative design	135
Case study design	138
Descriptive case study	140

Context of the Study	141
The schools	141
The course	144
Population and Sample	145
Situating myself in the research	149
Historical literacy bias	151
Data Sources	152
Conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher	152
Non-participant observation notes	153
Interviews	153
Documents and artifacts	154
Researcher reflexive journal	154
Data Analysis	154
Within-case analysis	156
Descriptive coding	156
Cross-case analysis	157
Pattern coding	158
Document and artifact analysis	159
Ethical Considerations	159
Trustworthiness	159
Peer reviewer	160
Confidentiality	160
Summary	160
Chapter Four: Discoveries	162
Within-Case Analysis of the Three Advanced Placement United States History Teachers	164
Case One: Shay	164
Background information on Shay	164
Shay's within-case themes	166
Theme one: Shay implemented historical thinking skills and strategies into his classroom instruction	166
Subtheme one: Shay identified the importance of historical people, places, and events	167
Subtheme two: Shay encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence	173
Subtheme three: Shay contextualized historical documents in class instruction	176
Theme two: Shay acquired beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy during his college preparation	180
Theme three: Shay utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction	187
Case Two: Michelle	191
Background information on Michelle	191

Michelle's within-case themes	194
Theme one: Michelle acquired disciplinary knowledge and beliefs in graduate school	194
Theme two: Michelle developed disciplinary knowledge as an Advanced Placement (AP) grader	197
Theme three: Michelle prioritized questioning and manipulating of evidence	201
Theme four: Michelle varied her instruction in her class according to the levels of her students	214
Case Three: George	219
Background information on George	219
George's within-case themes	222
Theme one: George implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his history classroom	222
Theme two: George acquired knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in graduate school	232
Theme three: George believed relevance of the content was crucial in meeting the needs of his students	233
Cross-Case Analysis	239
Commonalities in the cross-case analysis	241
Theme one: All three teachers believed in student-centered classrooms as the best pedagogical choice for classroom instruction	241
Theme two: All three teachers utilized document analysis in the history classroom	243
Theme three: All three teachers established communities of learning in the classroom	243
Theme four: All three teachers believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies instruction	245
Theme five: All three teachers utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom	247
Theme six: All three teachers apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre	249
Theme seven: All three teachers varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students	251
Dissimilarities in the cross-case analysis	254
Theme one: All three teachers exhibited varying levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy, which influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom	254

Theme two: All three teachers demonstrated varying understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy	263
Summary	264
Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions	269
Purpose of the Inquiry	269
Research Questions	270
Summary of My Methodology	271
Summary of My Research	271
Discoveries	273
Discussion	274
My Reflection as a Teacher Educator	282
My Reflection as a Researcher	283
Implications and Recommendations	284
Implications for preservice teacher education	285
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the content-area methods class	285
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the subject-matter literacy course	286
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the traditional content-area literacy course	288
Team-teaching within the content-area literacy course	290
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in out-of-school contexts	290
Implications for inservice teacher education	291
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy professional development training	291
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in out-of-school contexts	292
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in professional learning communities	293
Recommendations for future research	295
Comprehensive literacy	295
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy	296
Research on the Common Core State Standards	296
Disciplinary literacy pedagogy and teacher beliefs	298
Struggling readers and disciplinary literacy pedagogy	299
Urban youth and cultural modeling	300
Rural education and disciplinary literacy pedagogy	300
Summary of Study	301

A Note of Appreciation to My Study Participants	301
References	303
Appendix A. IRB Approval Letter	356
Appendix B. IRB Pilot Observation/Dissertation Approved Consent Form	358
Appendix C. Pilot Interview Consent Form	362
Appendix D. Structured Interview	365
Appendix E. Semi-Structured Interview: Shay	368
Appendix F. Semi-Structured Interview: Michelle	371
Appendix G. Semi-Structured Interview: George	374
About the Author	End Page

List of Tables

Table 1.	Descriptive Coding Example from the Interview Pilot Study	127
Table 2.	Pattern Coding Example from the Interview Pilot Study	127
Table 3.	Research Plan for Dissertation Study	147
Table 4.	Research Questions and Descriptions of Data Sources from the Study Participants	152
Table 5.	An Example of Michelle’s Data in Excel Spreadsheet	155
Table 6.	Descriptive Coding Example from Dissertation Study	156
Table 7.	Example of Creating Themes from Michelle and George’s Descriptive Codes	157
Table 8.	Pattern Coding Example from Dissertation Study	158
Table 9.	Pattern Coding Example from Dissertation Study	240
Table 10.	The Ways in which their Instruction fit in the Accepted Characteristics of Historical Literacy (Nokes, 2011)	266
Table 11.	Summary of Participants and DL beliefs, knowledge, and implementation	268
Table 12.	Nokes’ (2011) Accepted Characteristics of Historical Literacy	275

List of Figures

Figure 1.	VanSledright's (2011) Historical Investigations Learning Model	52
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Abstract

In this inquiry, I investigated three Advanced Placement United State History teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in their Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) classrooms. My interest in disciplinary literacy evolved from my own experiences as a high school social studies teacher and middle school intensive reading teacher. With the implementation of the Common Core State Standards, whose emphasis is, in part, on discipline-specific literacy, across the United States in 2014-2015, I recognize the need for research relevant to discipline-specific practices in the classroom. I want to contribute further to the understandings of disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

According to the extant literature, teaching discipline-specific literacy practices is one way in which teachers approach social studies classes. However, it is not the most common model teachers' use. Moreover, the majority of the literature on disciplinary literacy pedagogy focuses on reading practices as opposed to reading and writing. Insufficient information exists in the disciplinary literacy literature base on discipline-specific reading and writing pedagogical practices in the secondary classroom.

In this research, I utilized a qualitative design, specifically a descriptive case study to gain an understanding of three teachers beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Data were two interviews with each participant, my observation notes, concept maps of a historical literacy teacher, classroom artifacts/documents, and a researcher reflexive journal. I chose descriptive coding for my

within-case analysis and pattern coding for my cross-case analysis. After multiple readings of the data, I analyzed the interview transcripts, the concept maps devised by each of three historical literacy teachers, my observation notes, and classroom artifacts/documents using descriptive coding and pattern coding and categorizing themes. The following themes emerged from the coding process: Shay 1) implemented historical thinking skills and strategies specifically, he identified the importance of historical people, places, and events, encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence, and contextualized historical documents in class instruction; he 2) acquired disciplinary literacy beliefs and knowledge during his college preparation; and he 3) utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction. Michelle 1) acquired disciplinary literacy knowledge and beliefs in graduate school; 2) developed disciplinary knowledge as an Advance Placement grader; 3) prioritized questioning and manipulation of evidence in classroom instruction; and 4) varied instruction in her class according to the levels of her students. George 1) implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his classroom instruction; 2) acquired knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in graduate school; and 3) believed relevance of the content was crucial in meeting the needs of his students.

Through cross-case analysis, I discovered seven common themes and two differences. All three teachers 1) believed in student-centered classrooms was the best pedagogical choice for classroom instruction; 2) utilized document analysis in the history classroom; 3) established communities of learning in the classroom; 4) believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies learning; 5) utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom; 6) apprenticed their students in the argumentative

genre; and 7) varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students. Two differences emerged, which also adds to the production of new knowledge involving the study participants. All three teachers 1) exhibited varied levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy, which influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom and 2) demonstrated varied understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy.

Within my recommendations for teacher education, I address disciplinary literacy pedagogy and content-area literacy courses. Recommendations for future research include research on comprehensive literacy, disciplinary literacy pedagogy, and collaboration among teacher educators and discipline-specific professors. It is especially important that discipline-specific teachers incorporate the disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the classroom because of the Common Core State Standards. The Common Core State Standards recommend students to not only utilize discipline-specific literacy skills in the classroom but also to be able to transfer knowledge from one discipline to another. Thus, research on comprehensive literacy—a combination of discipline-specific literacy practices and curriculum-wide literacy practices and disciplinary literacy is warranted in the literacy community.

Chapter One: Introduction

The only way to figure out what happened in the past is to interpret sources from the past. Historians and students must rely on the documents provided from various perspectives to interpret what occurred. [We need to view] history as a set of representations of the past authored by persons who are telling stories employing different frameworks, making different assumptions, and relaying varying subtexts” [instead of] “the idea that history can be understood as an objective, fact-based account that mirrors the “real” past. (VanSledright & Kelly, 1998, p. 261)

Adolescent literacy scholars have proposed that each discipline has its own specialized language, text structure, and ways of understanding what is on the page (Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, & Siebert, 2010; Moje, 2008a; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Disciplinary literacy “involves the use of reading, investigating, analyzing, critiquing, writing, and reasoning required to learn and form complex knowledge in the [history] discipline” (McConachie, 2010, p. 16). A disciplinary perspective holds a more complex view of literacy instruction, addresses the literacy demands specific to disciplines, such as history, and is based on the belief that deep knowledge of a particular discipline is best acquired by engaging in the literate habits valued and used by experts in the discipline (Moje, 2008a; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008, T. Shanahan, 2010). Although the idea of disciplinary literacy is a relatively new concept in adolescent literacy (T. Shanahan, 2010), the idea has a rich tradition in rhetoric and linguistics among those who are interested in writing in the discipline (Moje, 2010) (see Bazerman, 1998, 1995; Hewings, 2005; Schleppegrell, 2004). The purpose of this descriptive case study was to look at three high school Advanced Placement United

States History (APUSH) teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy and to learn in what ways their knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influenced their discipline-specific literacy pedagogical practices.

Situating Myself in the Inquiry

I loved elementary school and in particular, I enjoyed my history class. I think it was because my grandparents in Louisville, Kentucky owned a family flag company and every summer when I visited my grandparents in Louisville I worked in the flag company. When my grandparents visited us in Tennessee, they always gave flags to my teachers to place in their classrooms. Growing up, I pictured myself attending the University of Louisville and working in the family flag business on weekends and during the summer.

In middle school, I continued to enjoy history classes and read books in this discipline. My parents encouraged my interest in history and bought books for me to read, and took me to see historical landmarks all over the United States. My parents probably didn't realize it at the time, but these travels and experiences supported my understanding of history as an interpretative process (Carr, 1961; Collingwood, 1946) and my development of historical literacy skills.

In school, my favorite class was U.S. History and by the time I reached high school, I was elated I could enroll in elective social studies course content. I took all the elective social studies courses offered at my high school. U.S. History teacher, Coach Foley, is one of the most memorable teachers I was fortunate enough to be assigned. One could tell Coach Foley was passionate about U.S. History content and truly loved what he was doing; he made history come alive. Coach Foley was also the first history teacher I

had who did not lecture on a daily basis. Instead, he encouraged us to interpret history and arrive at our own conclusions. In Coach Foley's class, I truly fell in love with history.

Of course, I also experienced counter examples to Coach Foley. My high school government teacher was the exact opposite. He lectured in class daily and required us to take copious notes. He also gave a multiple choice/essay test each week. I loved the content of this course, yet hated how my government teacher presented this content. For me, this teacher had no life in him at all. He portrayed a stereotypical secondary teacher, one who lectures, hands out worksheets, and shows an occasional video (refer to Cuban, 1984; Evans, 2004; Warren, 2007). I simply went through the motions in class feeling disengaged because of the way my government teacher presented content. That spark, ignited in Coach Foley's class, slowly started to fizzle out and it would be another year before I was able to rekindle my interest in history.

My family and I took many trips to Europe while I was in high school. My mom instilled in me the love of travel. I was fascinated with Europe, particularly Great Britain and Eastern Europe. I loved learning about 20th century politics in Europe, especially leading up to World War II and after the fall of Communism. I vividly remember traveling through the Czech Republic and Berlin, Germany in the summer of 2001, and seeing the political messages posted on the overpasses in the Czech Republic and on the Berlin Wall. These messages spoke to me and continue to resonate with me more than a decade after viewing them. Ultimately, even though I did not start out as a political science major in college, I believe my interest in World War II, and post-Cold War Europe led me pursue a bachelor's degree in political science.

When I began my college courses, I took all the prerequisites for journalism. I thought I wanted to travel the world as a journalist. The university I attended was known for the College of Mass Communications, particularly the recording industry program. The school was also known for their aerospace program and teacher education program. I became a staff member of the campus newspaper and I was a campus tour guide. In the spring semester of my freshman year, I enrolled in PS 2100: American Government. Two weeks into the class, the spark first lit in Coach Foley's class during high school became a full-blown flame! I called my mother and announced I was no longer majoring in journalism and instead was going to study political science. I felt rejuvenated and happy with this decision. At my undergraduate university, there were two choices for political science majors—pre-law or secondary education. After a misstep into pre-law, I filled out paperwork to study political science and secondary education.

Following graduation, my husband and I moved to Florida. He was accepted into a graduate level applied physics program and I secured a job teaching high school social studies. In this new role of mine, I was determined to spark an interest, and a love of history, within the high school juniors and seniors I taught; the same gift I had been given by Coach Foley. I was a floating teacher at my school meaning I did not have a classroom. This remained the case until I had completed nearly three years of teaching. As a floating teacher, it would have been much easier for me to lecture on a daily basis. My load, both literally and metaphorically, would be much lighter this way because I could reduce the amount of materials I brought to class if I lectured and decrease my planning time each night. However, I remembered what it was like when I sat through lecture after lecture during my high school experience so, I refused to give in to the ease

of a light load. Instead, my students and I had lively discussions and debates, and we worked together on group activities. We talked about current events, and I incorporated media, such as *Schoolhouse Rock* (Newall, Eisner, & Warburton, 2002) videos in class, and infused content-area reading and disciplinary literacy pedagogy into my teaching (although I did not know it was disciplinary literacy pedagogy at the time).

At the end of my second year of teaching, I applied to graduate school in order to earn a master of arts in reading education degree. Because I had seen first-hand the lack of content-area reading and discipline-specific strategies in many social studies classrooms during my own schooling and as an educator, I made it my mission to encourage social studies colleagues to use these strategies in their classes. I knew a master's degree in reading education would help me attain my goal, since it allowed me to serve in dual roles (social studies teacher and K-12 Literacy Facilitator) my final year of high school teaching. In my last year as a high school social studies teacher, I also served as the K-12 Literacy Facilitator at my school. This position both excited and frustrated me. I was excited because I was able to use my new knowledge to help infuse content-area reading and discipline-specific strategies into their classrooms. I was frustrated because I encountered resistance from my fellow teachers. I found the majority of the teachers with whom I worked were set in their own ways of teaching and they often refused to incorporate any literacy instruction into their content-area.

Reflecting on these experiences, I now recognize the teachers may have resisted teaching content-area literacy strategies because they struggled with making connections between their content and content-area reading strategies, or viewed literacy strategies as burdens to implement in the secondary classroom (Conley, 2008; Heller & Greenleaf,

2007; O'Brien, Stewart, & Moje, 1995). As a result of unit cuts at the school, at the end of the school year, I left both positions and moved to a middle school reading position where I believed I would be able to share the knowledge I had gleaned during my master's program with my fellow teachers. I believed I would not face much resistance.

I spent my last year of K-12 working at the middle school level, where I taught intensive reading to eighth grade students who were classified as "non-proficient" on the statewide reading test and were considered to be struggling readers. I was excited to apply in practice the knowledge I had learned at the university; however, I faced opposition from the school administration when I tried to infuse these best practices. For instance, one class I taught required a scripted curriculum, a commercially prepared curriculum that contained step-by-step instructions and directions for the teacher to use during lessons (Ede, 2006). In my district, we used the Accelerating Maximum Potential (AMPS) Reading Intervention System (Pearson, 2005) for "students classified as three years or more below grade level" (Pearson, 2005, n.p.). Because my students struggled with reading their complex social studies and science texts, I tried to incorporate reading strategies, such as, the What Do You Know-What Do You Want to Know-What Have You Learned strategy ([KWL], Ogle, 1986) and the Pre-Reading Plan ([PreP], Langer, 1981) into my teaching. However, I was told by the administration, in no uncertain terms, I was not allowed to veer off the approved school curriculum, or in the school administration's words, "the program". I got no support from the head of the school reading department, fellow reading teachers, or the reading coach who told me I must follow the program. This roadblock was a huge disappointment for me that instilled frustration and a lack of motivation in me, which festered day by day. I knew there had to

be something else out there; a place where I could work with teachers as they incorporated content-area literacy and discipline-specific practices in their classrooms.

It was during this year that I decided to apply to the doctoral program in literacy. I wanted to further my understanding of literacy pedagogy, specifically content-area literacy. I enjoyed working with teachers in the role of the K-12 Literacy Facilitator and desired to work with in-service teachers on content-area literacy pedagogy. Once I entered the doctoral program, although I explored other areas of literacy research along with content-area literacy, I still felt a burning desire to solidify my research agenda to one where content-area literacy as my main focus.

I developed further awareness of the resistance many secondary teachers have towards incorporating disciplinary literacy instruction into their courses as I gained knowledge through continued advanced graduate studies as well as conversations with colleagues. I had a research-changing conversation with a graduate of my university's literacy studies doctoral program at the Literacy Research Association (LRA) conference in 2011. He was familiar with Moje's work in disciplinary literacy and our conversation led me to research disciplinary literacy further. I was vaguely familiar with the adolescent literacy movement known as disciplinary literacy and soon realized this idea was something I did in my own practice. I reflected on the best practices I incorporated in own teaching and compared them to the practices I saw in the secondary classroom. I realized many secondary teachers lectured while students took notes (Cuban, 1984; Evans, 2004; Warren, 2007), but this type of instruction was no longer acceptable for me. I believed students should be engaged in historical investigations, an inquiry-based

learning approach (Dewey, 1933; Levstik & Barton, 2005; VanSledright, 2011, 2002a) where disciplinary literacy pedagogy is at the forefront of classroom instruction.

All of the events in my life have influenced my selection of disciplinary literacy pedagogy as my dissertation focus. As I earned my master's degree, I recognized how much I wanted to work with secondary social studies teachers. I hoped by bridging these two fields—literacy and social studies—I could assist social studies teachers to understand how to incorporate discipline-specific pedagogy. After a thought-provoking research presentation by Roni Jo Draper and Jennifer Wimmer at the Annual Meeting of the Literacy Research Association (LRA) in 2012, on elementary methods and disciplinary literacy (see Robinson, Wimmer, & Draper, 2012), I became intrigued with the possibility of investigating discipline-specific practices in the elementary classroom as a few others in social studies had done (see Barton & Levstik, 1996; VanSledright, 2002a, 2002b; VanSledright & Frankes, 2000; VanSledright & Kelley, 1998).

As I continued to study disciplinary literacy research, I began to wonder if it was a common phenomenon that teachers across the country struggled to incorporate discipline-specific literacy instruction in their content-area classes. Because of my wondering, I participated as a co-investigator in a study with a graduate of the doctoral literacy program at my university—the same one who introduced me to disciplinary literacy at LRA in 2011. The graduate, now an associate professor at a university on the west coast, invited me to participate in data analysis on a study focused on disciplinary literacy and secondary preservice teachers. The associate professor taught a content-area literacy course for middle and high school preservice teachers who had a bachelor's degree in a specific discipline and were in the process of obtaining their teaching

credentials. This course coincided with a student teaching experience; in which, the preservice teachers observed their collaborating teacher's use of discipline-specific practices. The professor of the course encouraged the preservice teachers to try out the discipline-specific practices they observed the classroom teacher using.

Data analysis indicated while the preservice teachers had strong beliefs about incorporating disciplinary literacy practices within teaching, many were unable to implement strategies in their practice. The preservice teachers also noticed many of the collaborating teachers did not implement disciplinary literacy pedagogy themselves (Hart & Bennett, 2012). These discoveries made me reflect further about what these particular teachers knew and believed about disciplinary literacy instruction, and whether their knowledge and beliefs correspond with their implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy (or lack thereof). This finding necessitates further research to identify teachers' understanding and implementation of discipline-specific literacy practices in content-specific courses.

Definition of Terms

There are several terms used in this inquiry that have varied meanings. In order to prevent confusion, I present the operational definitions of these terms for the duration of the inquiry.

- *Disciplinary literacy*: disciplinary literacy “involves the use of reading, investigating, analyzing, critiquing, writing, and reasoning required to learn and form complex knowledge in the [history] discipline” (McConachie, 2010, p. 16).

- *Historical Literacy*: “the ability to negotiate and create interpretations and understandings of the past using documents and artifacts as evidence” (Nokes, 2010a, p. 66).
- *Descriptive Case Study*: a case study where the researcher wishes to provide a detailed, complete description of the phenomenon (adopted from Merriam, 2009). The purpose of a descriptive case study is to provide information on the particular features of an issue (Yin, 2003). Descriptive case studies are some of the most common case studies used offering “rich and revealing insights into the social world of a particular case” (Yin, 2012, p. 49). In a descriptive case study, the researcher is able to emphasize “episodes of nuance, the sequentially of the happenings in context, [and] the wholeness of the individual” (Stake, 1995, p. xii). Research questions in a descriptive case study can focus on the “what” or “in what ways” (Yin, 2003). It’s a method of documenting an individual’s experiences, thoughts, or observations related to a particular case (Yin, 2003).
- *Member Check*: study participants are able to review the interview transcripts for accuracy (Merriam, 2009).
- *Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH)*: “The AP U.S. History course is designed to provide students with the analytical skills and factual knowledge necessary to deal critically with the problems and materials in U.S. history. [...] Students should learn to assess historical materials—their relevance to a given interpretive problem, reliability, and importance—and to weigh the evidence and interpretations presented in historical scholarship. An AP U.S. History course should thus develop the skills necessary to arrive at conclusions on

the basis of an informed judgment and to present reasons and evidence clearly and persuasively in essay format” (The College Board, 2010, p. 4).

- *Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay*: On the AP U.S. History exam, students are expected to “construct a coherent essay that integrates [their] interpretation of Documents A-J and [their] knowledge of the time period referred to in the question. High scores will be earned only by essays that both cite key pieces of evidence from the documents and draw on outside knowledge of the period” (The College Board, 2010, p. 25).
- *Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay*: On the AP U.S. History exam, students have a choice of two standard essay questions per part (Part B and Part C of the writing portion of the exam). They choose one question from Part B and one from Part C and are to “cite relevant historical evidence in support of [their] generalizations and present [their] arguments clearly and logically” (The College Board, 2010, p. 32).
- *Cross-case analysis*: the investigation of more than one case in a context to gain deeper understanding of relevancy to other cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994).
- *“Doing” history*: a pedagogical model where students conduct investigations about the past by examining primary and secondary sources, put those sources in the proper context, and “directly enter a contested discourse in which they produce their own judgments and argue for them on the basis of historical evidence” (Sipress & Voelker, 2009, p. 26)

Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy

The term disciplinary literacy is an umbrella term encompassing discipline-specific literacies such as scientific literacy, mathematical literacy, and historical literacy. Much of the research base uses the general term disciplinary literacy. However, many studies specify a particular disciplinary literacy, such as historical literacy. History education and social studies educators use both terms interchangeably in the research whereas literacy researchers typically use the term disciplinary literacy in the extant literature.

Disciplinary literacy versus content-area reading. Disciplinary literacy differs from content-area reading. The purpose of content-area reading is to infuse generic reading comprehension, vocabulary, and writing strategies into the content-areas to study and learn information (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Heller & Greenleaf, 2007; O'Brien, Stewart, & Moje, 1995; T. Shanahan, 2010; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012). The intention of disciplinary literacy pedagogy is to teach students how to read, write, and navigate across multiple texts of a particular discipline (Fang & Coatoam; Moje, 2008a; T. Shanahan, 2010). For the purpose of this inquiry, disciplinary literacy “involves the use of reading, investigating, analyzing, critiquing, writing, and reasoning required to learn and form complex knowledge in the [history] discipline (McConachie, 2010, p. 16). Langer (2001) identified specific understandings students who have advanced literacy skills in a particular discipline incorporate into their learning. These include:

The ability to use language, content, and reasoning in ways that are appropriate for particular situations and disciplines. This notion [of advanced literacy skills] is

reflected in students' ability to engage in thoughtful reading, writing, and discussion about content in the classroom, to put their knowledge and skills to use in new situations, and to perform well on reading and writing assessments including high stakes testing. (p. 838)

Content-area reading is a traditional approach to teaching adolescent literacy, where students learn generic reading and writing strategies; many of these strategies are applicable to various disciplines (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983). Content-area reading became a distinct area of instruction in the early 20th century (Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Dishner, 1985). Prior to the 20th century, the focus on instruction in American schools was rote memorization or mental discipline (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983). However, at the end of the 19th century, mental discipline was no longer the focus of American schools. With the emergence of new educational philosophies, new goals materialized for K-12 education. Thus, as part of this new focus in education, reading educators and curriculum developers began "tailoring the general curricular thrusts to fit their particular field [...] As a result educators carved out content-area reading instruction as a distinct specialty" (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983, p. 421).

As acknowledged by Moore, Readence, & Rickelman (1983), William S. Gray, an early 20th century educator, composed several essays on content area reading and "called for educators to focus attention on specific reading skills that were necessary for successful study" (p. 424). In addition to his essays on content-area reading, Gray also "played a key role in popularizing the content-area reading instruction slogan, "Every teacher a teacher of reading" (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983, p. 424).

Throughout the 20th century, publishing companies produced content-area reading textbooks filled with vocabulary and comprehension strategies specifically for use across the content-areas (Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Disher, 1985). Despite this abundance of texts, resources, and strategies, content-area reading has not been widely accepted by content-area teachers (see Come Romine, McKenna, & Robinson, 1996; Jacobs, 2002; Mallette, Henk, Waggoner, & DeLaney, 2005; McKenna & Robinson, 2006; Moje, 2008a; Ness, 2009, 2008; Nourie & Lenski, 1998; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990; Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Disher, 1985; Ulusoy & Dedeoglu, 2011).

Content-area literacy textbooks define content-area reading as “the ability to use listening, speaking, reading, writing and viewing to gain information within a specific discipline” (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011, p. 13). These courses typically focus on teaching discipline-spanning general comprehension and vocabulary strategies, often with a remedial focus (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983; T. Shanahan, 2010). Conley (2012) noted, “Many courses in secondary literacy are still crafted in the traditional pedagogical style generically connected to disciplines” (p. 142). The literacy community has traditionally championed this viewpoint since the 1920s (Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983; T. Shanahan, 2010). However, a problem with this traditional approach to literacy instruction is literacy is not as generalizable as researchers once believed (Owen, 2012; T. Shanahan, 2010). According to Shanahan (2010), researchers noticed many of the strategies presented in a content-area reading class were more helpful to struggling readers as opposed to those on grade level or advanced readers (see Faggella-Luby, Graner, Deshler, & Drew, 2012; Ehren, Murza, & Malani, 2012). Thus, researchers from various disciplines became increasingly aware of the distinct

practices of the disciplines in the creation, dissemination, and evaluation of texts and knowledge (see Bain, 2006, 2005; De La Paz, 2005; Fang, 2004; Geisler, 1994; Moje, 2010, 2008a, 2008b; Schleppegrell, 2004; C. Shanahan, 2012; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, 2008; Wineburg, 1998, 1994, 1991a, 1991b).

Another problem teaching content-area reading is that “content-area reading strategies have not appealed to most content-area teachers” (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, p. 14) partly because of the issue of identity. Many secondary teachers identify with their discipline (e.g., mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, visual arts, English, history) and are “more interested in replicating what science or math [or history] educators usually do rather than appropriating routines from reading education” (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, p. 14). Thus, a disciplinary literacy approach might be more appealing to content-specific teachers because this approach utilizes the strategies and ways of thinking are those used in the discipline (Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, & Nokes, 2012; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012). In this approach, teachers teach comprehension using authentic literacy and disciplinary practices in the classroom (Goldman, 2012). In this sense, “reading becomes a tool for knowing” (Goldman, 2012, p. 101) where students are engaged in discipline-specific literacy practices. Shanahan and Shanahan (2012) believe struggling readers can be successful with discipline-specific strategies if they are engaged in the text they are reading.

However, not all researchers support the use of disciplinary literacy in the secondary classroom, particularly with struggling readers. Heller (2010/2011) posited many secondary content-area teachers do not have a disciplinary background, unlike college professors. Therefore, he concluded:

By all means, let us encourage and empower secondary teachers to teach the vocabulary of their content areas, to show students how to comprehend the texts they read in class, and to regard writing as an important tool for learning. [...] But let us leave the truly disciplinary literacy instruction for the college majors and the graduate programs. (p. 272-273)

Faggella-Luby, Graner, Deshler, and Drew (2012) noted disciplinary literacy, while a powerful notion, is not sufficient to replace generic reading and writing strategy use for all students, especially the struggling readers and writers. Faggella-Luby et al. (2012) argued struggling readers and writers do not benefit from disciplinary literacy instruction because they lack the foundational pillars of reading instruction (e.g., fluency, comprehension, vocabulary, phonemic awareness, and phonics). Ehren, Murza, and Malani (2012) echoed Faggella-Luby et al.'s (2012) position and posited a concern with the disciplinary literacy perspective in regards to struggling readers and writers. Ehren et al. (2012) noted struggling readers and writers need help developing foundational skills along with learning disciplinary discourse. Barton (2009) also cautioned about implementing a disciplinary approach to the history curriculum. He noted, "We may become so caught up in our own conceptual schemes that we fail to fully consider students' perspectives" (p. 266) resulting in a curriculum that students easily dismiss.

The disciplinary literacy perspective. Each discipline has its own language and way of communicating orally and in writing. Moje (2008a) argued we must give students access to the oral and written language of the discipline if they are to learn deeply. A teacher who subscribes to a disciplinary literacy perspective in the secondary classroom asks questions such as: "What kinds of texts do members of the discipline turn to or

produce? How do members of the discipline use language on a daily basis? What is unique about the discipline in terms of reading, writing, speaking, and listening?” (Moje, 2010, pg. 70). As Sartain (1981) noted, each discipline has its own specialized vocabulary and ways of organizing statements. The driving idea behind disciplinary literacy is that knowledge and thinking go hand-in-hand. To develop deep conceptual knowledge in a discipline, one must learn the habits of mind of the discipline as well as the thinking processes valued and used by the discipline (McConachie & Petrosky, 2010).

Moje (2010) observed that disciplinary literacy perspectives are crucial and the tools of knowledge production and knowledge critique should be uncovered, taught, and practiced in the secondary classroom. For this to occur, literacy instruction in secondary schools needs to be revitalized (Moje, 2008b). One way for revitalization to occur is through multiple text types in the classroom where students are engaged in the ideas of the discipline. In history class, this occurs through various primary and secondary source texts. Analysis and critique of the primary and secondary sources provided is a crucial component of learning and “doing” history (Barton & Levstik, 2009). Teachers can also teach cognitive strategies to comprehend discipline-specific text in the context of the discipline (Moje, 2008b). These methods allow students to develop knowledge specific to the discipline.

An important outcome from disciplinary literacy initiatives is the Common Core State Standards in English/Language Arts, Mathematics, and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (International Reading Association Common Core State Standards [CCSS] Committee 2012; T. Shanahan, 2010). The National Governors Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers (NGA & CCSSO)

instigated the Common Core State Standards effort in 2009 (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010, n.p.). The NGA and CCSSO released the standards to the general public in 2010 (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices [NGA Center] & Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010a) and the authors designed them to “ensure that students graduating from high school are prepared to enter credit bearing entry courses in two or four year college programs or enter the workforce” (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010, n.p.).

The standards are back mapped from grade 12 to kindergarten and include English/Language Arts standards for grades K-12, Mathematics standards for grades K-12, and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects for grades 6-12 (NGA & CCSSO, 2010a). According to Neuman and Grambrell (2013), “the designers then ‘back-mapped’ to the lower grades” (p. 2). In other words they “identifying specific targets at various grade-level spans” (p. 2). For example, under “Key Ideas and Details” in the Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects, eleventh and twelfth grade students must be able to “cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, *connecting insights gained from specific details to an understanding of the text as a whole*” [emphasis added] (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 61) whereas ninth and tenth grade students must be able to “cite textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, *attending to such features as the date and origin of the information*” [emphasis added] (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p.61). Sixth through eighth grade students must be able to “cite specific textual evidence to support analysis or of primary and secondary sources” (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 61). Thus, as one traces the progression of

each standard from twelfth grade to sixth, one can see the standards build upon each other.

As noted by Porter, McMaken, Hwang, and Yang (2011), the “Common Core standards represent considerable change from what states currently call for in their standards and what they assess” (p. 114). The skills become more specific and demanding as one progresses through the standards (Common Core State Initiative, 2010; NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). Major components of the standards include the emphasis on complex text, informational text, and using information as evidence in writing (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). In grades 6-12, the focus is on disciplinary literacy, specifically the different ways to read and write in various disciplines as evidenced in the Literacy standards in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects (International Reading Association Common Core State Standards [CCSS] Committee, 2012; NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). Shanahan (2010) reiterated that various disciplines approach text in distinct manners. He said:

In disciplinary literacy, the notion is [...] things that work in reading history aren't going to help you very much if you're trying to read math. Things that help you in reading math aren't going to help you very much if you're trying to read science. (p. 43)

Students must be able to use discipline-specific practices when confronted with complex texts as well as pose coherent arguments in their social studies/history essays.

Historical literacy. The belief of teaching historical literacy skills in the classroom is not a new one. Throughout the history of the field of social studies, educators have debated the purpose of teaching social studies. Is it to teach social

education? Or, is it to teach discipline-specific practices? (Evans, 2004) Throughout the early part of the 20th century, social studies instruction swung on a pendulum—sometimes the focus was on social education, sometimes the focus was on disciplinary practice. During the Cold War, the pendulum swung back to disciplinary pedagogy (Evans, 2004). In the 1960s, Jerome Bruner (1960) and Joseph Schwab (1964, 1962) promoted teaching the structure of the discipline. Keller (1961) echoed Bruner. He specified the field should abandon the integrated approach to social studies and teach the individual disciplines in school.

In the 1990s, after the release of the Bradley Commission on Historical Literacy (1989) and the National Commission on Social Studies (1989) educators saw a revival of traditional history (Evans, 2004). Lee (2007) posited:

Historical literacy [...] means having a conceptual, disciplinary toolkit powerful enough to make the activity of history intelligible, so that the substance of the past is recognized as both knowable and capable of being organized in meaningful and justifiable ways. (p. 61)

The toolkit Lee (2007) described includes second-order (the methods historians used when interpreting historical events) concepts; when combined with procedural/strategic processes produces first-order concepts (the content of history). Lévesque (2005) argued if educators ignore teaching second-order concepts, our “history teaching is likely to fail to address students’ misconceptions and misunderstandings of the past” (n.p.).

As noted by Lee (2007) and Nokes (2013) historical literacy involves teaching students about the literate practices of the discipline. Nokes (2013) specified there are three research-based reasons to teach historical literacy to students:

1. Working with documents is highly engaging for students,
2. Students who actively piece together historical events from documents, learn historical content better,
3. Students who are taught to read and reason like historians exhibit more sophisticated critical reading and thinking skills. (p. 12)

A crucial component of historical literacy is the recognition that each discipline has its own structure, language, and text. In his book, *The Process of Education* (1963), Jerome Bruner stated students need to learn how to “tackle problems in the future” and “the key to this type of learning lies in the students having grasped the structure of the discipline” (Phillips & Soltis, 2004, p. 72). Bruner (1963) noted:

Grasping the structure of a subject is understanding it in a way that permits many other things to be related to it meaningfully. To learn structure, in short, is to learn how things are related...In order for a person to be able to recognize the applicability or inapplicability of an idea to a new situation and to broaden learning thereby, he must have clearly in mind the general nature of the phenomenon with which he is dealing. (pp. 7, 18)

Joseph Schwab (1964, 1962) and Paul Hirst (1974) also addressed the idea of the structure of the discipline. Schwab (1964) believed the structure of the discipline, such as history, is made up of two parts—the substantive structure, or the “structure through which we are able to formulate a telling question” and the syntactical structure, the “canons of evidence and proof are and how well they can be applied” (p. 12, 14). Hirst (1974) took the idea of the structure of the discipline one step further and “subdivided each of Schwab’s two types of structure to produce a fourfold classification” (Phillips &

Soltis, 2004, p. 73). He dubbed disciplines as “forms of knowledge” (Phillips & Soltis, 2004, p. 74) and described them as follows:

1. [Each form of knowledge has] certain central concepts that are peculiar in character and to the form...
2. In a given form of knowledge these and other concepts...form a network of possible relationships in which experience can be understood. As a result a form has a distinctive logical structure....
3. [A form of knowledge,] by virtue of its particular terms and logic, has expressions or statements...that in some way or other...are testable against experience...
4. The forms have developed particular techniques and skills for exploring experience and testing their distinctive expressions (Hirst, 1974, p. 44).

Hirst (1974) noted there are seven distinct “disciplines or forms of knowledge: mathematics, physical science, human sciences, history, religion, literature and the arts, and philosophy” (p. 46); these “district disciplines [...] basically constitute the range of unique ways we have of understanding experience [along with] the category of moral knowledge” (p. 46).

Shulman (1987, 1986), like Bruner (1963, 1960), Hirst (1974), and Schwab (1964, 1962), also acknowledged disciplines have different structures. He noted the different disciplines have different modes of discussing content and in order to “think properly about content knowledge,” students and teachers must go beyond superficial knowledge learned in rote memorization to the specific structures of the disciplines (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). Therefore, teachers must have a “depth of understanding with

respect to the particular subjects taught” (Shulman, 1987, p. 9). Specifically, teachers must:

Understand the structures of subject matter, the principles of conceptual organization, and the principles of inquiry that help answer two kinds of questions in each field: What are the important ideas and skills in this domain? and How are new ideas added and deficient ones dropped by those who produce knowledge in this area? That is, what are the rules and procedures of good scholarship or inquiry? (p. 9)

In the current high-stakes, accountability-focused curriculum, this idea of teaching discipline-specific practices in social studies classrooms continues to be one of the prevalent pedagogies in preparing students to function in the world and be productive, active citizens (Goldberg, 2011). Unlike the “memoriz[ation of] facts and birth-date deaths without learning about the time period, the people themselves, and the challenges they faced [which] dumbs down history [and] limits young people’s understanding of their role as citizens in a democratic society” (Goudvis & Harvey, 2012, p. 52), being historically literate helps prepare students to be “critical patriots and informed voters” (Nokes, 2013, p. 12). Thus, historical literacy helps students understand their roles in democratic society in our interdependent global society (Duncan, 2011; Goldberg, 2011).

Reading in the history classroom. Reading becomes more complex as students progress from elementary to secondary school (Allington, 2002; Moje, 2008b; Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). In history class, this complexity requires students to be able to comprehend and decode complex, historical texts, including both primary and secondary sources. The ability to decode and comprehend advanced texts is the first step in

historical understanding (VanSledright, 2012). History is interpretative, and students must evaluate the source of the document, the bias and perspective, and look across texts for corroboration (Gifford, 2011).

While researchers acknowledge teachers need to incorporate primary and secondary sources in the classroom (see VanSledright, 2012, 2002a, 200b; Bain, 2006, 2005, Nokes, 2013), the history textbook continues to be the “bedrock of history teaching,” in many classrooms and “the heavy reliance on textbooks remains a widely known pedagogical secret” (Bain, 2006, p. 2081). However, not all teachers solely rely on the textbook to teach history content. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) encouraged the use of a “history events chart” to help students make sense of the texts they are reading in the classroom. Wineburg, Martin, and Monte-Sano (2011) identified additional teaching strategies to help students make sense of the text. These strategies include inquiry, image analysis, structured academic controversy (SAC), political cartoon analysis, Internet-based lessons, opening up the textbook (OUT), and comparing various textbook treatments on the same topic. Reisman (2011b) found using document-based lessons “with its modified documents and emphasis on explicit disciplinary strategy instruction, offered the teachers a way to improve students’ literacy while developing their content knowledge” (p. 26) and getting away from the textbook.

When individuals move away from the textbook and rote memorization of historical events, they are no longer simply “remembering a text” but rather “understanding it” (Wineburg, 1994, p. 88). To truly understand a text, readers form situation models, which feature “all of the knowledge that is left implicit in the text or otherwise presupposed” (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983, p. 338). Perfetti, Britt, Rouet,

Georgi, and Mason (1994) noted learning history requires at least primitive use of some of the text and interpretative skills employed in historical analysis including forming a mental picture of the historical event in its proper context. A temporal, casual model of historical events, essentially a situation model, is formed when an individual has an understanding of history. Wineburg (1994) agreed with Perfetti et al. (1994). Specifically, Wineburg (1994) declared, “It is impossible for readers of history to comprehend texts without forming situation models” (p. 89).

Writing in history classes. Beaufort (2004) wrote there are five interrelated key knowledge domains that inform the cognitive processes of expert writers as they compose. These knowledge domains include: genre knowledge, subject matter knowledge, writing process knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and discourse community knowledge. Discourse-community knowledge is described as knowing the established norms for genres in a given community (Beaufort, 2004). Besides the broad knowledge of the discourse-community, a writer must also engage in the specific subject-matter, using both background knowledge and the habits of thinking in the discipline as well as knowledge about the particular genre (Beaufort, 2004). Rhetorical knowledge includes understanding for whom the text is written (e.g., the specific audience and purpose of the text) and the best way of communicating the text to the audience. The fifth domain involves understanding the way in which the writing process occurs in the particular community of practice (Beaufort, 2004). Honig (2010) noted:

A genre approach to literacy emphasizes the way language works to make meaning within particular communities and emphasizes the relationship between the social function of text and its language structure. (p. 90)

Different communities of practice (e.g., disciplines) have particular genres of writing that include content, participant roles, and features of text (Honig, 2010). Applebee (1996) explained, “Education in general (and formal schooling in particular) is fundamentally a process of mastering new traditions of discourse [or genres]” (p. 9). In history, the particular genre is, most frequently, argumentation (Coffin, 2004; Leinhardt, Beck, & Stainton, 1994). Coffin (2004) noted there are other genres used in history other than argumentation, which include recording genres (e.g., autobiographical and biographical recounts, historical accounts and recounts) and explanatory genres (e.g., factorial explanations and consequential explanations). Wineburg (1994) argued:

The act of writing history is not a process of simply recording what happened or even imagining how the participants felt as it was happening. Rather, the writing of history is itself an act that reflects human authorship and is fraught with human concern. (p. 89)

In history classes, students compose argumentative essays (Leinhardt, 2000; Monte-Sano, 2010, 2006) as a means of expressing historical thought. These essays require a particular discourse as well as the ability to produce knowledge-transformation (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). This process involves taking the set of documents and creating a new text with the documents. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) remarked knowledge-transformation is required in authentic learning, as opposed to simply regurgitating information that has been learned. Research shows students who are skilled writers can engage in knowledge-transformation, while unskilled writers engage in knowledge-telling; for unskilled writers, knowledge-transformation can occur by using

multiple documents to write a historical argument (Voss & Wiley, 1997; Wiley & Voss, 1996).

Statement of the Problem

Reading and writing are both fundamental, connected processes that utilize joint knowledge and cognitive processes (Graham & Herbert, 2010). However, the majority of the research on disciplinary literacy has focused on the reading process, not the writing process (Pytash, 2012), or a combination of the two. Many researchers have looked at the cognitive processes used by historians and students as they make sense of the historical texts they read (see Hynd, Holschuh, & Hubbard, 2004; Stahl, Hynd, Britton, McNish, & Bosquet, 1996; Wilson & Wineburg, 1998; Wineburg, 1998, 1991a, 1991b). In addition, others have looked at how students compose argumentative essays (see Leinhardt, 2000; Leinhardt & Young, 1998; Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008a, 2008b, 2006).

Moje (2007) sounded a call for further research on discipline-specific practices.

She noted:

[A] valuable direction in empirical studies would revolve around how secondary subject-matter teachers conceive [of] literate processes and practices in the subject-matter areas they teach. In particular, it would be important to probe teachers regarding the kinds of texts they turn to or produce when teaching in their content areas and regarding their purposes for turning to or producing such texts. Such interviews could also raise questions about establishing purposes for disciplinary reading or writing for students and discussion of the teacher's role and responsibility, as well as the challenges, in supporting student learning about disciplinary literacy and in developing students' literacy skills. (p. 36)

This inquiry answers the call Moje (2007) issued five years ago and Girard and Harris (2012) echoed recently. Girard and Harris (2012) noted more research is needed that “details how teachers with a variety of backgrounds and in various teaching contexts support students’ disciplinary literacy and learn to engage in such practices” (Girard & Harris, 2012, p. 253).

According to Gifford (2011), secondary students are unable to “meet the demands of reading text within a particular discipline” (slide 14). However, with the introduction of the Common Core State Standards in 2014-2015 (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) students will be required to examine and comprehend complex texts, and craft argumentative essays. Thus, it is necessary to examine the literacy practices of discipline-specific teachers in the secondary schools. No longer are students “reading and writing across the curriculum” but rather reading and writing within each specific discipline (Eltz, 2011). Students will be required to “demonstrate a careful understanding of what they read before engaging their opinions, appraisals, or interpretations” (Davis, 2012, p. 2).

Moje (2008a) argued literacy research in the secondary schools should be revamped to focus on literacy practices in different disciplines, as opposed to content-area literacy strategies. In particular, she posed the question, “What does it mean to engage in literate practices in disciplines or subject areas?” (p. 99). Thus, the idea of literacy in secondary school instruction needs to be reconceptualized (Moje, 2008a). This reconceptualization requires understanding that “the disciplines are constituted by discourses” (Luke, 2001, p. xii) and the production of knowledge in a discipline requires “fluency in making and interrogating knowledge claims, in which turn require fluency in

a wide range of constructing and communicating knowledge” (Moje, 2008a, p. 99). As Pearson, Moje, and Greenleaf (2010) stated:

Without systematic attention to reading and writing in subjects like science and history, students will leave schools with an impoverished sense of what it means to use the tools of literacy for learning or even to reason within various disciplines. (p. 460)

Literacy instruction should become part of the discipline practices rather than viewed by teachers as additional reading and writing strategies that must be taught in addition to the discipline content.

Fang and Coatoam (2013) noted the majority of the research on disciplinary literacy thus far focuses on why we need a disciplinary perspective in the classroom makes the case as to why each discipline has a specific text structure, language, and ways of thinking. Specifically, scholars have outlined specific strategies that can be used in the classroom, however there is a lack of empirical research focused on the strategy instruction and its effectiveness with diverse populations and varying contexts. This study, in part, answers that particular call by Fang and Coatoam (2013).

Rationale and Significance of the Inquiry

Moje (2008a) noted disciplines can be viewed as spaces in which knowledge is constructed and each discipline has its own terminology, ways of interacting, ways of thinking, and ways of writing. In addition, the National Council for the Social Studies ([NCSS], 2010, 2008) promotes teaching discipline-specific literacy practices such as inquiry and critical thinking, document analysis, and in-depth investigations in the classroom. A meaningful and powerful social studies curriculum includes discipline-

specific literacy instruction, inquiry, and critical thinking skills (Goldberg, 2011; NCSS, 2010, 2008). Students need opportunities to conduct inquiry, develop and display data, synthesize findings, and make judgments (Goldberg, 2011; NCSS, 2010, 2008; NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). As well, the aim of social studies, according to the National Council of the Social Studies (2010), is the “promotion of civic competence—the knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions required of all students to become active and engaged citizens in public life” (p. 3). Historical literacy is essential to function in a global society (Duncan, 2011; Goldberg, 2011; NCSS, 2010).

This idea of discipline-specific inquiry includes the teaching of sophisticated ideas (e.g., historical thinking) and in-depth investigation (e.g., “doing” history) (NCSS, 2010, 2008). These skills are historical literacy skills—one branch of disciplinary literacy. In a time where social studies is marginalized in the schools (Pace, 2011):

We must preserve the hallmarks of solid social studies instruction so students will gain the requisite knowledge, skills, and habits of the mind to ‘do social studies’ on a daily basis as we prepare them for college and career readiness and citizenship in our ever changing interdependent global society. (NCSS, 2010, p. 7)

One way to ensure students come out of school as engaged and civically competent citizens is to teach them the historical literacy skills necessary to function in our ever-changing society.

With the introduction of the Common Core State Standards in high school classrooms in 2014-2015, including history, students will encounter texts that are more complex and argumentative writing assignments (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). By

the time a student is in high school, 75% of the complex texts in the classroom will be informational (Bunch, Kibler, & Pimentel, n.d.). In regards to writing, the goal is “to ready students for college and careers so they are able to conduct investigations, analyze information, and create products that reflect the increasing emphasis research receives in an information-based economy” (Bunch, Kibler, & Pimentel, n.d., p. 5). Thus, prior to the full implementation of the CCSS into classrooms across the United States, investigations into the current disciplinary literacy instructional practices of high school history teachers need to occur. If we do not research current discipline-specific practices in our secondary schools, we will not know what disciplinary pedagogies teachers use in their instruction and what additional professional development should occur before the complete realization of the CCSS.

In addition, teaching standards from the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards for Social Studies-History (2010) promote the importance of teachers’ understanding of the tools of inquiry, habits of mind, and structure of the discipline. Thus, the purpose of my inquiry was to look at three high school AP US History (APUSH) teachers’ knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy as well as in what ways their knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their discipline-specific literacy pedagogical practices.

My rationale for conducting an inquiry about disciplinary literacy instruction practices in an Advanced Placement United States History course evolved from my own childhood experiences, and was enriched as a doctoral student and classroom teacher. In my own teaching practice, I attempted to teach discipline-specific literacy strategies to

my students. My students struggled with historical thinking and historical literacy. Many of them did not know how to corroborate, source, or contextualize historical texts, taking their textbook at face value. Reading and writing historical texts provides an opportunity for students to further develop these processes (Monte-Sano, 2006). I hope to contribute to the understandings and insights related to disciplinary literacy, specifically historical literacy, in history classes.

Another motivation for this inquiry comes from the adoption of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) by 45 states and Washington, DC (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). As of 2014-2015, the CCSS will require students to successfully maneuver through the complex texts and language of various disciplines in school. Disciplinary literacy pedagogy is central to the Common Core State Standards (T. Shanahan, 2010; Zygouris-Coe, 2012) and the developers of the standards recognized each discipline has specific literacy practices (Goldman, 2012). Reading and writing in the disciplines are genre-specific (Duke, Caughlan, Juzwik, & Martin, 2012). Thus, teachers must teach the different literacy practices pertinent to the disciplines (International Reading Association Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Committee, 2012).

After studying the Common Core State Standards Literacy standards, I became interested in knowing what discipline-specific literacy practices social studies teachers currently use in the classroom. I also was interested in finding out if belief and practice were aligned. My questions were: Do all teachers who teach AP classes, where teaching discipline-specific practices are part of the required curriculum, believe they should teach these practices? How do they teach them to their students? What do they already know about discipline-specific practices? Consequently, after reflecting back on my own

teaching practices, and talking to fellow social studies educators about their literacy practices, I decided to explore the topic within this dissertation research.

Theoretical Frameworks

My inquiry was framed by three different frameworks from three specific disciplines. Literature from social anthropology informed my understanding of communities of practice ([COP]; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). From linguistics, I examined literature on speech genres and social languages (Bakhtin, 1986, 1981; Gee, 2010, 2001); and from history education, I turned to the Historical Investigations Learning Model ([HI], VanSledright, 2011).

The learning of specific ways of participating differs in different situated practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In this sense, learning occurs when an individual has mastered, and is able to demonstrate, the specific practices in a particular community. From a disciplinary literacy standpoint, the individual has mastered how to approach a text in a particular discipline and the proper way to communicate, through speech (Bakhtin, 1986) and writing, in a particular community. Disciplines are considered communities of practice (Leavy, 2011) as well as organizations, groups, classrooms, and workplaces (Wenger, 1998).

Disciplines have their own speech genres and social languages. According to Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2012), a genre is a “category of artistic, musical, or literary composition characterized by a particular style, form, or content” (n.p.). Bakhtin (1986) posited there are two types of genres: primary and secondary speech genres. Primary speech genres include words, phrases, and expressions acceptable in everyday

conversation; disciplines on the other hand are secondary speech genres and part of a community of practice. Bakhtin and Medvedev (1985) stated:

Each genre possesses definite principles of selection, definite forms for seeing and conceptualizing reality, and a definite scope and depth of penetration. One might say that human consciousness possesses a series of inner genres for seeing and conceptualizing reality. A given consciousness is richer or poorer in genres, depending on its ideological environment. The process of seeing and conceptualizing reality must not be severed from the process of embodying it in the forms of a particular genre. Thus, the reality of the genre, and the reality accessible to the genre are organically related. (p. 131-135)

The Historical Investigations Learning Model (VanSledright, 2011, 2002a) is a synthesis of recent literature on teaching history in the classroom (B. VanSledright, personal communication, August 16, 2012) (see Bain, 2006, 2005; Bain & Mirel, 2006; Barton & Levstik, 2003; Chonko, 2011; Cochran, 2010; Freedman, 2009; Lee, 2004a, 2004b; Lee & Ashby, 2001, 2000; Lee, Dickinson, & Ashby, 1997; Lee & Shemilt, 2003; Lévesque, 2005; Levstik & Barton, 2005; Maggioni, 2010; Reisman, 2012, 2011a, 2011b; Reisman & Wineburg, 2008; Seixas, 2006a, 1998, 1997, 1996, 1994, 1993; Seixas & Peck, 2004; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2007; VanSledright, 2002a, 2002b, 2000, 1997, 1996, 1995; Wineburg, 2001; Wineburg, Martin, & Monte-Sano, 2011). This model is informed by history education research from Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. It begins with rich historical questions, that lead to an interaction between the second-order concepts (e.g., methods used by historians including historical perspective taking, evaluating primary and secondary sources, continuity and change, and

historical significance) and procedural practices, eventually producing first-order knowledge about the past, which leads to assessment of the practices. Finally, the assessment (e.g. examining student work or instructional practices) provides feedback for improving teaching.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided my inquiry are broad in scope, as consistent with case study research (Keen & Packwood, 1995; Swanborn, 2010). In this inquiry, I addressed the following research questions:

1. What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?
2. In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?
3. In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their history instruction?

Overview of the Inquiry

I explored three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy instruction and their disciplinary literacy practices during the spring semester, 2013, at three local high schools near the university I attend. The inquiry was qualitative in nature, specifically a descriptive case study (Creswell, 2003; Dyson, 2005; Merriam, 2009; Stake, 1995). A case study allowed for an in-depth look at the teachers' instructional practices (Stake, 1995) and is an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). A bounded system is defined as a single person viewed as a case, or an example of some type of

program, group, institution, community, or policy constituting the case (Creswell, 2003). Essentially, the case is “fenced in” (Merriam, 2009). The walls around the APUSH classroom serve as my boundaries for my case study. Once I leave the set boundaries of the APUSH classroom, I am no longer studying the case (Merriam, 2009). According to VanWyhsberghe and Khan (2007):

The classroom is spatially bound in a formal institutional setting with an established pace, set schedule, shared expectations, and often a prescribed curriculum. These boundaries enable classroom researchers to develop focused hypotheses by circumscribing what is inside and outside of the case. (p. 84)

In this inquiry, the APUSH teachers are considered a case and served as my unit of analysis.

The purpose of a descriptive case study is to provide a detailed, complete, literal description of the phenomenon being investigated (Merriam, 2009). A descriptive case study allows the researcher to produce rich, thick descriptions of the case being studied (Merriam, 2009) and it is used to document the intricacies of an experience (Stake, 1995). Descriptive case studies are often used to explain answers to questions based on theoretical constructs and the goal is to document the experience as much as possible (Yin, 2003). As noted by Yin (2009), a descriptive case study describes and illustrates certain topics.

I used descriptive coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009) for each within-case analysis. Descriptive coding summarizes the topic of the passage into a word or short phrase (Saldaña, 2009). Once I completed my within-case data analysis, I analyzed the data by using cross-case analysis. Cross-case analysis allowed me to gain a

deeper understanding of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The purpose of cross-case analysis is not to compare and contrast cases but rather to “see processes and outcomes across many cases, to understand how they are qualified by local conditions, and thus to develop more sophisticated descriptions and more powerful explanations” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 172). According to Merriam (2009), cross-case analysis can “result in a unified description across cases” (p. 204). Cross-case analysis groups together common responses from different participants. I employed the use of pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009), in which I pulled the descriptive codes into a smaller number of codes (Saldaña, 2009).

I conducted two interviews with each teacher and observed one class period five days a week, for two unit of instruction per teacher. According to Hurwitz and Day (2007), a unit of instruction otherwise known as a unit plan is “a series of lessons organized around a single theme, topic or mode” (p. 358). I also kept a researcher reflexive journal.

Delimitations of the Inquiry

I limited my inquiry to the study of three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers during the spring semester, 2013, at local high schools near the university I attend.

Limitations of the Inquiry

As a qualitative researcher, I must address the limitations of my inquiry. I am the main instrument in the inquiry (Patton, 2002). Therefore, the threat of researcher bias exists (Patton, 2002). In reality, my presence as a non-participant observer (Merriam, 2009) might have affected my assumptions and to some extent my discoveries because

the teachers' might have varied their instruction because of my presence in the classroom. However, in order to eliminate the potential risk of bias, as well as to increase my internal credibility, I utilized member checking and an inside-outside legitimization method (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006) to triangulate the data and establish an audit trail (Merriam, 2009; Miles & Huberman, 1994). A member check is a common strategy for ensuring credibility; in a member check, the participants examine the interview transcripts as a way to rule out misinterpretation (Merriam, 2009).

After I transcribed each interview, I asked my participants to read over the transcripts to ensure that my perceptions were accurate. In addition, I used an inside-outside legitimization method (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). This allows the researcher to utilize the viewpoints of people who look in on the research from the outside. This individual had no direct interaction with the participants, and therefore, provided a potential balance to the interpretation bias posed by the researcher directly involved in the research (Hart & Bennett, 2012). Samantha (a pseudonym) was a doctoral candidate in special education. She studied Qualitative Research I and Qualitative Research II as a doctoral student. Samantha read over my codes for each participant. We also frequently met to talk about my inquiry throughout the semester. In addition, I kept a researcher reflexive journal.

Qualitative researchers examine phenomenon in the natural setting to find meaning or make sense of a phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The discoveries of my inquiry are also limited in their generalizability, though partial generalizations to a similar population may be possible (Myers, 2000). As Erickson (1986) noted, "Since the general lies in the particular, what we learn in a particular case can be transferred to

similar situations” (as cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 51). For example, similar knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy, as well as implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy may be discovered in a similar APUSH teacher population. The APUSH teachers represent small sample of the teaching population. Therefore, the discoveries found in my study cannot be generalized to the greater teaching population.

In addition, case studies provide a powerful means to building naturalistic generalizability, or what Stake (1978 as cited in Lincoln & Guba, 2000) defined as “intuitive, empirical, based on personal direct and vicarious experience (p. 36). Time was another limitation of my study since I conducted my research during one semester and observed two units of instruction per teacher. I was not in the classroom for an entire year and could have observed the study participants utilizing other disciplinary literacy pedagogy practices in the fall semester. Other limitations included the hermeneutic process of qualitative research, like that of history (Carr, 1961; Collingwood, 1946). Both qualitative research and history involve interpreting events with the evidence provided. However, there could be additional accounts one cannot retrieve and must interpret the event with the data sources already acquired. Thus, this process can lead to misinterpretation or alternative interpretations of the data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007; Stake, 2005).

I also must address the potential for the Hawthorne effect and the Halo effect to occur. The Hawthorne effect (Adair, 1984) posits that the presence of the researcher altering the event being studied. Although I was a non-participant observer, my presence in the classroom might have altered the instruction. The Halo effect (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977) is defined as the potential for self-fulfilling prophecy. Because I hoped for certain

instructional practices to be evident in the teaching of the APUSH teachers, I might have seen practices that otherwise might not occur because I expected them to occur.

Summary

In history education, one deep-rooted pedagogical perspective is to teach using discipline-specific instructional practices (Bruner, 1960; Goldberg, 2011; Wineburg, 1998, 1991a, 1991b; VanSledright, 2001). The majority of the research in disciplinary literacy has occurred in the realm of reading instruction as opposed to writing practice (Pytash, 2012) or a combination of the two. In addition, the majority of the research on discipline-specific instructional practices has emerged from history education/social studies education researchers (e.g., Ashby & Lee, 1987; Ashby, Lee, & Dickinson, 1997; Bain, 2006, 2005; Lee, 2007, 2005, 2004a, 2004b; Lévesque, 2009, 2005; Monte-Sano, 2011, 2010, 2008a, 2008b, 2006; Reisman, 2012; Seixas, 1998, 1997, 1996; VanSledright, 2009, 2002a, 2002b, 1996; Wineburg, 1991a, 1991). With the current realization of the Common Core State Standards, which focus heavily on the literate practices of the various disciplines, the literacy community needs to continue to investigate discipline-specific literacy instructional practices in social studies classrooms.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

In subsequent chapters, I present information that provide insight into my inquiry. In Chapter Two, I review current literature on communities of practice, speech genres and social languages, the history investigations learning model, adolescent literacy, disciplinary literacy, the discipline of history, history as a system of knowledge, reading and writing instruction in history class, teaching history in the secondary classroom, and historical thinking in the secondary history classroom. In Chapter Three, I offer a detailed

explanation of the methods I used in my inquiry. In Chapter Four, I describe my discoveries. I present each case separately, detailing the findings from each individual teacher. I conclude the chapter with my cross-case analysis of the three teachers. In Chapter Five, I offer my discussion and implications for teacher research and practice.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

I think they [the students] have a hard time seeing the big picture. They see it in the context of this, not the bigger picture. I only know the 1920s here. I don't know the 1920s in comparison to the 1950s or the 1930s. – Michelle

As I conducted the literature review pertinent to my inquiry, I used my research questions as a guide to help me examine the extant literature. The questions that directed my inquiry are listed below.

1. What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?
2. In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?
3. In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their history instruction?

I structured my inquiry around three theoretical frameworks: communities of practice ([COP]; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), speech genre and social language (Bakhtin, 1986; Wertsch, 1998, 1991), and the historical investigations learning model (VanSledright, 2011, 2002). In this chapter I begin with an overview of these three theoretical frameworks and provide an explanation of how these frameworks support my inquiry. Next, I present the relevant adolescent and disciplinary literacy literature that informed this study. Then, I discuss literature that focuses on the discipline of history and history as a system of knowledge. I next expound on literature pertaining to teaching

history in the classroom. As closure to this chapter, I present literature on historical thinking in the secondary classroom.

Theoretical Frameworks Informing the Inquiry

Communities of practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) define a community of practice [COP] as engagement in social practice, which is the fundamental process by which we learn and become who we are. Multiple viewpoints exist regarding what constitutes a community of practice. Some researchers view a community of practice as a group of experts and novices working together in the same social context (Richards, 2006; Richards, Bennett, & Shea, 2007). Doctoral students who work with master's students, is an example of this view of community of practice (Richards, 2006). In this particular example, the doctoral students serve as the 'experts' and the master's students are the 'novices'. Specifically, the doctoral students mentor the master's students as the master's students work with children at-risk in a summer literacy camp. Others view communities of practice as "moving learning from a position of acquisition to one of active engagement with particular historical, cultural, and social practices, that are enactments of the beliefs and values of a particular group operating in a particular context" (Hart, 2005, p. 22). An adolescent literacy service-learning club is an example of this concept of community of practice (Hart, 2005). Still others view communities of practice as a "collection of people who engage on an ongoing common endeavor" (Eckert, 2006, p. 1). A governmental organization, such as the Department of Environment and Conservation, is an example of this type of community of practice (Snyder & Briggs, 2003).

In this inquiry, I conceptualize communities of practice as composed of members of a particular discipline or group, who may or may not work directly with each other at all times. Disciplines are communities of practice because they inform members how to operate within them (Leavy, 2011). According to Wenger (2006), “Members of a community of practice are practitioners. They develop a shared repertoire or resources, experiences, stories, tools, ways of addressing recurring problems—in short a shared practice” (p. 1). I believe Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers are part of two communities of practice. They are members of the discipline of history community of practice because they incorporate historical habits of thinking and historical methods in their teaching. In addition, they are members of the Advanced Placement community of practice. At the Advanced Placement Summer Institute, the teachers receive resources from the AP community, such as student samples and released exams (The College Board, 2012, n.p.) As noted by The College Board (2012):

The AP and Pre-AP Summer Institutes are subject-specific professional development opportunities. They provide teachers with the support and training to teach the AP courses and to utilize Pre-AP teaching strategies. Teachers from around the world come together at these institutes to exchange ideas and information about AP courses and exams. (n.p.)

These summer institutes allow the teachers, as Wenger (2006) stated, to share information and tools. At the institutes, the experienced APUSH teachers serve as the experts and the new APUSH teachers serve as novices in the community of practice. As Richards (2010) explained, “Experts in a community of practice mentor individuals who are newcomers to the group, and help them acquire skills and dispositions specific to a

community's purpose" (p. 318). Thus, my study adds to Richards' (2010) view of community of practice.

The primary unit of analysis is neither the individual nor social institutions but rather the informal "communities of practice" people form as they pursue shared enterprises over time (Wenger, 1998). COP's offer a conceptual framework for thinking and learning as a process of social participation. Components of this social learning theory include: community (learning as belonging), identity (learning as becoming), meaning (learning as experience) and practice (learning as doing). COP's are "social units that have a common purpose [where] members interact regularly [and] share common beliefs and vocabulary" (Richards, 2006, p. 773).

Buysse, Sparkman, and Wesley (2003) noted communities of practice in education share three essential characteristics. First, the community has "shared goals and meanings that go beyond meeting for a specific period of time to address a particular need" (p. 267). Second, they can also include an interdependent larger system—the school, the school system, and schools across the country (Buysse, Sparkman, & Wesley, 2003). Advanced Placement United States History teachers understand their discipline is part of the larger field of education and they take into account their own experiences, outlooks, and erudition within the greater field of education (Buysse, Sparkman, & Wesley, 2003). Finally, the community changes and restores itself as teachers retire and new teachers come into the field of education (Buysse, Sparkman, & Wesley, 2003). Another characteristic of a community of practice is a shared repertoire of language, tools, routines, gestures, symbols, actions, and ways of doing things a community has established in its existence (Wenger, 1998). Bain (2005) posited:

By attending to students' thinking and by embedding historians' disciplinary thinking into classroom artifacts and interactions, we can transform a class of novices into a community with shared disciplinary expertise. Participating in such a community opens up opportunities for students to internalize the discipline's higher functions. (p. 203)

One belongs to multiple communities of practices at any given point in one's life. These communities include jobs, hobbies, church, and other social institutions. COP's are everywhere (Wenger, 1998). A community of practice is not static and unchanging; it has a life cycle where the community develops, evolves, and may eventually disperse. Lave and Wenger (1991) observed, "There are ways of becoming a participant, ways of participating, and ways in which participants and practices change. In any event, the learning of specific ways of participating differs in particular situated practices" (p. 157). In this sense, learning occurs when an individual is able to demonstrate the specific practices in a particular community. From a disciplinary literacy standpoint, the individual mastered how to approach text in a particular discipline and the proper way to communicate in a particular community. I used a COP lens to examine what discipline-specific practices my participants implemented in their Advanced Placement United States History classrooms and how they instructed their students to communicate what they learned in class. Specifically, I wanted to ascertain what communities of practice my participants belonged to, where they acquired their pedagogical knowledge, and the discipline-specific language they used to communicate with their students in class.

Speech genres and social languages. Bakhtin (1986) believed secondary speech genres are more complex and highly developed modes of speech. They are not simple, everyday communications but one part that are of a particular community of practice. They are “not a form of language, but a typical form of utterance [...]. In the genre the word acquires a particular typical expression” (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 87). He envisioned two dialogic orientations among social languages: “the dialogic orientation among social languages within a single national language and the dialogic orientation among different national languages within the same culture”(Wertsch, 1991, p. 56). Different national languages exist in the same culture (e.g., one used at home, one used in the workplace). Thus, Bakhtin (1986, 1981) acknowledged different disciplines use different social languages. He defined social language or “social speech types” as “a discourse peculiar to a specific stratum of society (professional, age group) within a given social system at a given time” (Holquist & Emerson, 1981, p. 430 as cited in Wertsch, 1991, p. 57). Social languages include disciplinary jargon, generic languages, languages of age groups, and social dialects (Bakhtin, 1981). Bakhtin noted:

There is interwoven with this generic stratification of language a professional stratification of language, in the broad sense of the term “professional”: the language of the lawyer, the doctor, the businessman, the politician, the public education teacher, and so forth [...]. It goes without saying that these languages differ from each other not only in their vocabularies; they involve specific forms of manifesting intentions, forms for making conceptualization and evaluation concrete. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 289)

In his mind, no word is a neutral word; all words have the “taste” of a context such as a discipline (Bakhtin, 1981). Thus, the discipline of history has its own vocabulary, which is different from other disciplines such as physics, mathematics, and English.

Gee (2010) distinguished between what he calls little “d” and capital “D” discourse. Lower case “d” discourse refers to language in a specific community whereas capital “Discourse” includes language, speaking, writing, behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, and believing associated with a specific community. As Gee (2001) noted, “Social languages are embedded with Discourses and only have relevance and meaning within them. They can be thought of as “identity kits” (p. 719). A Discourse is a way of identifying people who are part of a particular community. People use different styles of language and portray a different identity in different settings (Gee, 2011, 2010).

Discourses “differ with the kinds of institutions and social practices of those who speak and those whom they address” (Macdonell, 1986, p. 1). Individuals are members of multiple Discourses. As one navigates through multiple Discourses, language, behavior, ways of interacting, reading, and writing change. Gee (2011) explained the key to discourse is recognition—others recognize you as a participant—a type of who (identity) engaged in a type of what (activity); discourse is also seen as a dance between people. In addition, people create identities through the use of not only language but with other “stuff” that is not language including acting, interacting, feeling, and believing (Gee, 2011).

Kamberelis (1999) defined genre as “a relatively stable set of discursive conventions typically associated with and partly constitutive of socially ratified practices and activities” (p. 404). According to Devitt (1993) knowing the genre “means knowing

such things as appropriate subject matter, level of detail, tone, and approach [...] how to conform to generic conventions [and] respond appropriately to a given situation” (p. 577). Texts, as Wineburg (1991a) noted, “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” (p. 500). In writing, different disciplines have individual text features, which distinguish them from other disciplines (Hoing, 2010). Genre involves not only texts particular to a discipline but also the practices and processes of producing, distributing, and receiving the texts (Kamberelis, 1999).

Genre is tied to my work because in part, I inquired what discipline specific text, practices, and processes of text production, distribution, and reception the teachers employed in the classroom. Further, I was interested in the discipline specific “social language” used by the teachers in the class when the teachers implemented a disciplinary literacy practice in the class. This social language was also evident in the interviews I conducted with the participants. In particular, I used the speech genre and social language lens to identify specific terminology used in both classroom instruction and interview transcripts.

Historical investigations learning model. When students study history, they acquire knowledge about past events and use the knowledge learned to interpret what happened in the past (Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2007). The Historical Investigations (HI) learning model (VanSledright, 2011, 2002a) is a synthesis of history education research on how students learn history through discipline-specific practices. The learning model arises from work starting in Great Britain in the 1970s (see Ashby & Lee, 1987; Ashby, Lee, & Dickinson, 1997; Lee, 1998; Lee & Howson, 2009; Shemilt, 1983; School History

Project, 1970) and expanded to Canada (see Lévesque, 2009; Seixas, 2006, 2004, 1997, 1996, 1994) and the United States in the 1980s/1990s (see Monte-Sano, 2011, 2010, 2008, 2006; Reisman, 2012, 2011a, 2011b; VanSledright, 2004, 2002a, 2002b, 1997, 1997/8 1996, 1995; Wineburg, 2001, 1998, 1991a, 1991b) (B. VanSledright, personal communication, August 16, 2012). There are various components to the model and each is described below.

Within this learning model, students and teachers construct a historical text. The model begins with rich historical questions. Questioning is a useful means of building a historical context (Van Boxtel & Van Drie, 2004). In a 2006 study, Van Drie, Van Boxtel, & Van der Linden found certain questions elicited better historical reasoning responses than others. For example, evaluative questions required students to use concepts such as argumentation, change, and continuity in their answer as opposed to those who answered the explanatory questions. In history, students examine various sources including primary and secondary sources (e.g., letters, diaries, treaties, images). Two types of reasoning occur when students use sources—reasoning about documents and reasoning with documents (Rouet, Britt, Mason, & Perfetti, 1996).

Once a historical question is posed, a cognitive interaction between procedures and practices (e.g., doing historical research by examining texts from the past) and second-order concepts (Lee, 1998; Lévesque; 2005; VanSledright, 2011, 2002a)—the “doing” of history occurs (VanSledright, 2011, 2002a). Illustrations of procedures include sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating, building textual models, constructing evidence-based arguments, and writing historical accounts (Monte-Sano, 2006; Wineburg, 1991b; VanSledright, 2011). Practices include the “knowledge of how to

research and interpret the past” (VanSledright, 2011, p. 50). Examples include knowing how to read sources and create interpretations. In the literature, second-order concepts are also referred to as historical thinking concepts (Peck & Seixas, 2008; Reisman, 2012, 2011a, 2011b; Seixas, 2006a; Wineburg, Martin, & Monte-Sano, 2011) and meta-concepts (Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2007). The second-order-concepts lie underneath the first-order concepts; they are the methods historians use when investigating a particular event. An example of a second-order concept would be historical significance, cause and consequence, historical perspective taking, or the ethical dimension (Seixas, 2006).

This interaction between second-order concepts and procedures and practices produces first-order concepts (Lee & Shemilt, 2003; Lévesque, 2005; Schools History Project, 1976; VanSledright, 2011)—historical phenomena, structures, persons, and periods through “student understandings such as narratives, arguments, explanations about the past and what it means” (VanSledright, 2011, p. 158). As noted in VanSledright (2011), first-order concepts are “interpretations of the past that come from who, what, where, when, and how questions”(p. 50). An example of a first-order concept would be the word “democracy” or “monarchy”. Once students produce written or oral understanding, the teacher assesses the practice or construct in order to provide feedback for improving teaching and learning. In the schematic below, I detail the Historical Investigations Learning Model’s components and interactions.

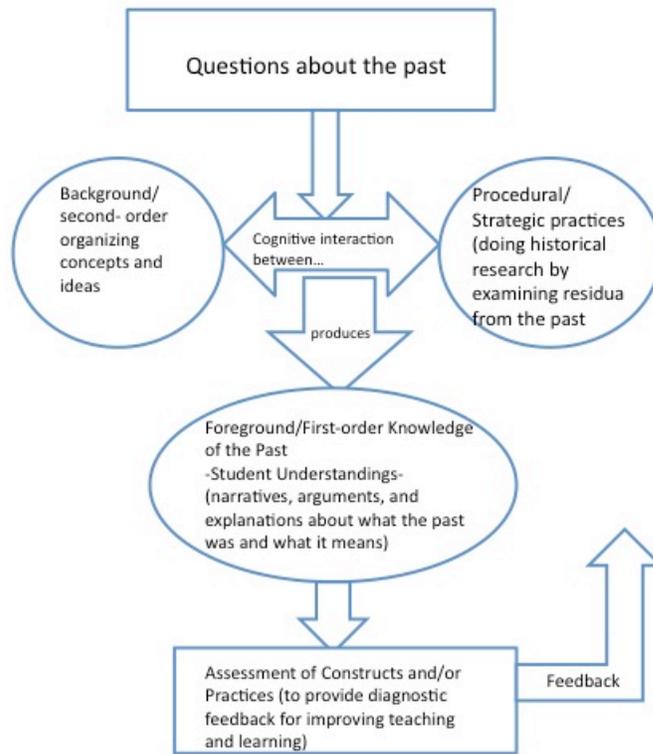


Figure 1. VanSledright (2011) Historical Investigations (HI) Learning Model. This figure illustrates a synthesis of the historical literacy research from Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. The figure was retrieved from VanSledright (2011), p.158

I used the Historical Investigations Learning Model as a lens to examine specifically what primary and secondary source texts and other classroom artifacts my participants used in their classrooms. I also used this lens to help me identify which investigative practices they implemented in class. I was interested in seeing if the participants had the students evaluate sources for bias and perspective taking and what procedural practices they had the students use while looking at texts (e.g., sourcing, contextualization, etc).

Review of the Relevant Literature

I now turn to my review of the extant literature. I begin my review of the literature with a brief review of adolescent literacy and disciplinary literacy. I next discuss literature specific to the discipline of history and history as a system of knowledge. Then, I describe literature pertaining to teaching history in the classroom. I end my review of the literature with a synthesis of literature on historical thinking in the secondary classroom.

Adolescent Literacy

Adolescence, as a unique period in one's life has been studied for more than a century. G. Stanley Hall, a noted psychologist, ushered in the age of the scientific study of adolescence with his 1904 publication entitled *Adolescence*, which outlined his view of adolescence as a period of “storm and stress” (Arnett, 1999; Steinberg & Lerner, 2004). Hall (1904) characterized adolescence as a difficult time in a person's life, for both the individual and the people around them. This difficulty was characterized by three distinct qualities found often in adolescence—conflict with parents, mood disruptions, and risk behavior (Arnett, 1999). By the 1970s, the field of adolescence moved into a second phase of study—developmental science. During this phase, researchers started to focus on social problems that emerge during the adolescent period (Steinberg & Lerner, 2004). Thus, during the 20th century, the field of adolescent studies has changed shape and direction and continued to develop a conceptual framework to study the period between childhood and adulthood.

Steinberg and Lerner (2004) posited the field of adolescence is in its third phase of study—one where “excellent conceptual and empirical work is undertaken with a

collaborative orientation to making a contribution both to scholarship and to society” (p. 52). Steinberg and Morris (2001) noted one outcome of this shift to a more collaborative focus is research specifically focused on studying adolescents in particular contexts such as schools or in their out-of-school activities (see Alvermann, 2008; Hall, 2006, 2005; Hart, 2005; Hinchman, Alvermann, Boyd, Brozo, & Vacca, 2003/2004; Moje, 2000; Moje & O’Brien, 2001). Moje (2002) posited there is much to learn about adolescent literacy studies including insight into “complex thinking about literacy and text” (p. 218). We can also observe how youth function in multiple communities of practice in the secondary school as well as how they construct their own identities (Moje, 2002).

As researchers have shifted from studying adolescence as a developmental science to one where the focus is on adolescents and their interactions in particular contexts, the literacy community has begun to put specific focus on the study of adolescent literacy. As written by Moje, Young, Readence, and Moore (2000), “The term adolescent literacy points to distinctive dimensions of the reading and writing of youth” (p. 6). This acknowledgement that adolescent literacy is different than early/emergent literacy is one that first appeared in the early 20th century. E.L. Thorndike, a prominent psychologist “made a clear distinction between the skills necessary “to read” and the reasoning ability necessary to comprehend” (Jacobs, 2008, p. 11). R.L. Thorndike, E.L. Thorndike’s son, defined adolescence as the time when “reading is no longer-to any substantial degree-a decoding problem...It is a thinking problem” (Thorndike, 1973-1974, p. 144).

In her article entitled “Adolescent literacy: Putting the crisis in context”, Jacobs (2008) outlined the various historical trends in reading instruction for adolescent students.

Trends included a focus on skill instruction such as vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, decoding, fluency, and reading speed; reading specialist utilizing pull-out programs for students who struggled with reading; the emergence of process models of reading, including psycholinguistic models, sociolinguistic models, and cognitive models; the movement from reading specialist to content-area teacher for reading instruction; and an emerging emphasis on reading as literacy (p. 16-20). This current emphasis on reading as literacy is where the field is today. Through this work on reading as literacy, researchers have produced working definitions of adolescent literacy, encompassing not just academic literacy but out-of-school literacy as well (Jacobs, 2008).

Various definitions of adolescent literacy exist. Marchand-Martella, Martella, Modderman, Petersen, & Pan (2013) defined adolescent literacy as specific reading instruction for upper elementary (starting in grade 4) through the end of high school. Luke and Elkins (2000) defined adolescent literacy as being about “complex ecological and social relations between adolescents and their symbol-, language-, and discourse-rich environments” (p. 2). The National Council of the Teachers of English (2006b) defined adolescent literacy as:

More than reading and writing. It involves purposeful social and cognitive processes. It helps individuals discover ideas and make meaning. It enables functions such as analysis, synthesis, organization, and evaluation. It fosters the expression of ideas and opinions and extends to understanding how texts are created and how meanings are conveyed by various media, brought together in productive ways... This complex view of literacy builds upon but extends beyond definitions of literacy that focus on features like phonemic awareness and word recognition. (p. 5)

Other researchers, as stated by Moje, Overby, Tysvaer, and Morris (2008), define adolescent literacy as a particular skill set. Specifically, “the ability to read, interpret, critique, and produce the discourse of a disciplinary area” (Moje, Overby, Tysvaer, & Morris, 2008, p. 111) (see Bain, 2006; Wineburg, 2001; Wineburg & Martin, 2004 for research on this skill set specifically in the history discipline).

Prior to the 1990s, the literacy field used the terms “content reading” and “secondary reading” when describing adolescent literacy practices (Moje, et al., 2000). However, in 1997, the International Reading Association (IRA) created the Commission on Adolescent Literacy, and researchers began to describe middle and secondary reading as adolescent literacy. In 1999, the Commission on Adolescent Literacy (Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw & Rycik, 1999) released a list of principles needed to be in place to support adolescent literacy growth. These principles included:

1. Adolescents deserve access to a wide variety of reading material that they can and want to read,
2. Adolescents deserve instruction that builds both the skill and desire to read increasingly complex materials,
3. Adolescents deserve assessment that shows their strengths as well as their needs and that guides their teachers to design instruction that will best help them grow as readers,
4. Adolescents deserve expert teachers who model and provide explicit instruction in reading comprehension and study strategies across the curriculum,
5. Adolescents deserve reading specialists who assist individual students having difficulty learning how to read,

6. Adolescents deserve teachers who understand the complexities of individual adolescent readers, respect their differences, and respond to their characteristics, and
7. Adolescents deserve homes, communities, and a nation that will support their efforts to achieve advanced levels of literacy and provide the support necessary for them to succeed”. (p. 4-9)

In an article entitled, “Let’s not marginalize adolescent literacy,” Vacca (1998) spoke of these same guiding principles. Specifically, he noted, “As children make the transition into middle childhood and adolescence, literacy use becomes increasingly more complex and demanding” (p. 606). This understanding that text becomes more complex as students move through the grades is something that literacy experts continue to acknowledge today (Jetton & Lee, 2012). Specifically, complexity occurs within the syntactic structures, the semantic unit, graphical representations, and conceptually (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy, 2010).

On the heels of the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a), the International Reading Association (2012) released an updated position statement on adolescent literacy, further emphasizing the notion of text complexity, discipline-specific practices, and access to an array of texts, including both print and non-print. The updated principles are:

1. Adolescents deserve content area teachers who provide instruction in the multiple literacy strategies needed to meet the demands of the specific discipline.
2. Adolescents deserve a culture of literacy in their schools and a systematic and comprehensive programmatic approach to increasing literacy achievement.

3. Adolescents deserve access to and instruction with multimodal, multiple texts.
4. Adolescents deserve differentiated literacy instruction specific to their individual needs.
5. Adolescents deserve opportunities to participate in oral communication when they engage in literacy activities.
6. Adolescents deserve opportunities to use literacy in pursuit of civic engagement.
7. Adolescents deserve assessments that highlight their strengths and challenges.
8. Adolescents deserve access to a wide variety of print and nonprint materials. (p. 5-12)

Thus, as concluded by Marchand-Martella et al. (2013), “for students to be prepared for twenty-first century higher education and employment opportunities, literacy skills need to be explicitly taught throughout the adolescent years” (p. 162).

The Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy (2010) also recognized the need to teach literacy skills beyond the elementary years. Specifically, the Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy (2010) noted:

As adolescents grapple with more complicated texts and learning demands in school, teachers must be able to offer ongoing literacy instruction that goes far beyond the “basic literacy” taught to younger children. [...] All of our nation’s young people must have the opportunity to graduate from high school fully ready for the challenges of college learning and employment in the global knowledge economy. (p. 69)

What Moore et al. (1999), Vacca (1998), the Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy (2010), and the International Reading Association (2012) address, in part, the idea of disciplinary literacy.

The RAND Reading Study Group (Snow, 2002) report noted that reading comprehension instruction in secondary, content-area classrooms is often “minimal or ineffective” (p. 5) and that there is a lack of reading comprehension instruction in content-area classes (Snow, 2002). Snow (2002) stated, “Teaching in the content areas relies on texts as a major source of instructional content. [...] [Thus] specific reading comprehension tasks must be mastered in the context of specific subject matter” (p. 5-6). This struggle with comprehension and discipline-specific texts is evident in the 2011 NAEP data. Recent statistics from The Nation’s Report Card in Reading (2011), show that “76% of eighth grade students scored at or above *Basic* on the reading assessment, 34% scored at or above *Proficient* and three percent scored at or above *Advanced*” (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2011, p. 2). One reason the students struggle with the text is because of its complex nature (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2011). Hess and Biggam (2004) concur that the text complexity is one area that affects students’ comprehension. Specifically, they noted, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) research shows this across the grade levels tested. While the implementation of disciplinary literacy practices in the classroom, and teaching students how to maneuver through complex text, is not the definitive solution to the adolescent literacy crisis, it is crucial to adolescent literacy development and learning (International Reading Association, 2012; Rainey& Moje; 2012).

Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy

Reading and writing are supporting acts (Mayo, 2000, Langer & Filhan, 2000). As Graham and Hebert (2010) argued:

The evidence is clear: writing can be a vehicle for improving reading. In particular, having students write about a text they are reading enhances how well they comprehend it. The same result occurs when students write about a text from different content areas, such as science and social studies. (p.6).

Because reading and writing are interconnected, one cannot tease out the two processes when examining literacy practices in the history classroom. They both inform each other. As described by Shanahan and Shanahan (2008), there are three categories of literacy:

Basic literacy (e.g., decoding, knowledge of sight words); intermediate literacy (e.g., reading comprehension strategies, vocabulary strategies, and fluency); and disciplinary literacy, which is the most advanced level of literacy. These are skills specialized to a particular discipline (e.g., mathematics, history, science). (p. 44)

As adolescents progress through the grade levels, texts become more specialized and are more technical in nature, and thus some students find it difficult to make the transition into complex texts as they move from primary grades and intermediate to middle and high school (Jetton & Lee, 2012). As stated by Conley, Kerner, and Reynolds (2005), “Secondary school pedagogy mostly reinforces adherence to disciplinary knowledge” (p. 23). Students are “expected to apply previously learned basic language, literacy, and technology skills to the comprehension, interpretation, and application of disciplinary knowledge” (Moje, Collazo, Carrillo, & Marx, 2001, p. 472). Disciplinary texts are filled with abstractions, which can prove difficult for adolescents (Jetton & Lee,

2012). Academic texts in the secondary curriculum are constructed in patterns of language, which differ significantly from those patterns students typically read in the elementary school (Fang, 2012). Thus, from a disciplinary literacy perspective, “literacy skills/strategies and disciplinary content are inextricably intertwined” (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 627).

Disciplinary literacy as teaching cognitive strategy instruction. Cognitive strategy instruction is an integral part of preparing adolescents for success after high school in the work place and higher education (Conley, 2008). Content enhancement routines in the secondary classroom are effective in changing how secondary students process information and perform academic tasks in various content areas (Bulgren, Deshler, & Lenz, 2007). Using the gradual release model in teaching also allows for purposeful teaching and the ability for the teacher to model disciplinary expertise and provide students with an example of the thought process of a person in the particular field (Ross & Frey, 2009).

Different disciplines use specific literacy practices in their particular discipline (Jenkins, 2011; Girard & Harris, 2012; Monte-Sano, 2011; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). For example, Moje (1996) found literacy in content-area classrooms can be viewed as an organizational tool for students to systematize their thinking and learning as well as building foundational knowledge and facilitating development of independent thinking of content material.

Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) looked at how experts read their texts and identified advanced reading skills, which would better enable students to make sense of discipline-specific texts. Study participants included discipline experts in chemistry,

mathematics, and history as well as teacher educators, high school teachers, and literacy experts. During the first year, the panel read texts applicable to their field and the discipline experts used “think alouds” to explain their thought process when approaching a document. The second year, teacher educators and high school teachers implemented the strategies developed in the first year in their strategy instruction at the university and high school level. Historians emphasized strategies that focused on an author’s purpose and perspective. Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) concluded all disciplines approach text differently; in regards to history, students should learn how to approach text like a historian, specifically focusing on author’s purpose and perspective taking. In addition, students should mirror historian’s historical thinking process.

Similar to Shanahan and Shanahan (2008), Monte-Sano (2011) found teaching students historical thinking skills specifically evidence use, perspective recognition, and interpretation of texts, in addition to reading comprehension skills such as summarizing the text, and making connections to the text, advance student’s historical writing. Monte-Sano (2011) argued that literacy practices and discipline practices cannot be separate—reading, writing, and thinking skills should be taught in each discipline: “ by learning more about what it means to be literate in various disciplines, literacy instruction may be more effectively integrated into students’ daily learning experiences” (p. 242).

Brown (1980) noted proficient readers use metacognitive strategies when they are reading independently. These strategies include making connections and predictions, making inferences, using text features and context clues to make sense of the text, and annotating the text (Brown, 1980). In history, teachers can facilitate metacognitive skills in the student, increasing meaningful learning of historical context (Donovan &

Bransford, 2005).

Researchers have found teachers can explicitly teach metacognitive skills such as annotation, inference, prediction, and connection to their students (Donovan & Bransford, 2005; Pellegrino, 2007). They can also be cognizant of improving metacognitive skills by focusing intently on reading, interpreting confusing words in the text, or pausing to allow students to write down or express any confusions or background knowledge (Pellegrino, 2007). In Pellegrino's (2007) study of metacognitive strategies and historical thinking, he found students in the experimental group (those whose teachers taught explicit metacognitive strategies such as inference, connection, prediction and historical thinking concepts) demonstrated sophisticated conceptual understanding of complex historical content based on examination of multiple and conflicting sources compared to the control group.

Likewise, Johnson, Watson, Delahunty, McSwiggen, and Smith (2011) suggested teachers should have students interpret confusing mathematical words in the text. They suggested students create a t-chart where they compare English and mathematical phrases. Sequencing notation or Venn diagrams "would also help students to articulate their mathematical reasoning" when confronted with mathematical proofs (Johnson, Watson, Delahunty, McSwiggen, & Smith, 2011, p. 106). However, as Alvermann, Rezak, Mallozzi, Boatright, and Jackson (2011) found not all content-area educators believe using generic reading strategies in the content-area classroom is the best way to go about understanding the concepts in the discipline. When asked about the practicality of the National Reading Panel's reading strategies used to teach reading comprehension, Peggy, a science education participant noted:

They are much to [sic] vocabulary based and not concept and thinking based....Science education focuses on students [sic] thinking and making sense of ideas and concepts through manipulation, experience, discussion, etc. The reading strategies focus on words and definitions, which is [sic] of course a part of science...but comes [sic] secondary to the concept as a form of good communication, not memorization. (p. 48-49)

Metacognitive strategies can also be used as a way to allow students to consider important questions to pose or investigate while analyzing content (Pellegrino, 2007). Lee's (2005) research found using metacognitive strategies in the classroom allows for knowing why caution is needed in understanding people of the past and what to look for when evaluating historical sources. The discipline of history benefits from this type of cognition since the facts of history acquire coherence only through continual internal interpretative process and filtering of noteworthy historical data toward integration into significant patterns (Hollander, 1982; Pellegrino, 2007). Alvermann (2001) suggested teachers converse with students about their out-of-school literacy strategies they use when reading text and how those same strategies can be used as the student reads in-school texts such as a chapter in a history textbook.

Girard and Harris (2012) investigated the use of a cognitive tool called the GUS in a World History classroom. The teacher used the GUS tool as a cognitive scaffold in her class to help her students prepare to write an essay. The students stated the problem, specifically identified readings from class that could be used as evidence for their essay, synthesized key points from the relevant readings on the worksheet, and constructed an argumentative essay using the sources detailed on the GUS. They concluded that

although the teacher had some success as well as some challenges, the case study raised some important concerns on introducing disciplinary literacy strategies in the history classroom particularly because of the complexity of the discipline of history (Girard & Harris, 2012). Thus, they recommend more research on cognitive tools in history is needed.

It is clear researchers have established teaching students cognitive strategy instruction helps students in understanding complex text and writing essays, particularly in history. In particular, inference, connection, and prediction are cognitive strategies used by skills readers when they read history texts. While there is a small, established research base on utilizing cognitive skills in a history classroom, it is clear continued research is needed in to further expand this research base.

Disciplinary literacy as personal and cultural literacy. Whereas history was once thought of as straightforward information and facts, the more recent viewpoint suggests history is interpretative and the views of historians must be taken into account (Carr, 1961; Collingwood, 1946; VanSledright, 2011; Wineburg, 2001, 1991a). In education, the idea of teaching students how to access and use their own cultural and contextual knowledge to make sense of a text is a core social studies disciplinary literacy practice (Damico, Baildon, Exter, & Guo, 2009/2010). Because making meaning of a text is a key social studies practice, Damico et al. (2009/2010) recommend that teachers need to help students use their cultural and contextual knowledge to make sense of texts they encounter in the social studies classroom. Thus, literacy “is a powerful tool that can be used to claim a space or establish an identity in various social interactions” (Moje, Dillon, & O’Brien, 2000, p. 166).

Text, context, and the student cannot be viewed as separate entities. Moje, Dillon, and O'Brien (2000) reaffirmed Rosenblatt's (1978) thinking who observed that personal identity and background shape and influence meaning making of text. Literacy practices are shaped by cultural and social practices of the individual reading, writing, speaking, or listening (Moje, Dillon, & O'Brien, 2000). Students need to learn how to be a part of various literacy practices and given the right tools they need to succeed in a variety of social worlds (Greenleaf, Schoenbach, Cziko, & Mueller, 2001).

Hall (2006, 2005) observed three middle school girls, classified as struggling readers, for a school year (one sixth grader, one seventh grader, and one eighth grader) and examined how they "transacted with the reading task demands of their content area classrooms (social studies, mathematics, and science) and how three content area teachers transacted with these students in relation to those demands" (Hall, 2005, p. ii). Hall (2005) found the way these struggling readers transacted with the text was not just determined by how they viewed themselves as readers but also was influenced by "their surroundings, and how they want their peers and teachers to view them" (p. ii).

Additionally, she discovered the teachers knew the struggling readers might need additional help understanding text, however, the problem could be easily remedied by asking for help or using certain strategies the teacher previously taught the class. The students noted that some of the ways the teachers instructed them to comprehend the text would reveal a comprehension weakness to the rest of the class. Therefore, in order to not show this weakness, they applied other strategies, such as asking their peers for help, observing others strategy usage, and listening to others discuss the text (Hall, 2006). Like

Hall (2006, 2005) one of my dissertation participants works primarily with struggling readers in his Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) classroom.

While the struggling readers revealed their interactions with text were shaped by their views of themselves and the learning environment, the teachers did not make a connection that “other factors influence the ways students made decisions about text” (Hall, 2005, p. ii). Thus, Hall (2006, 2005) reaffirmed what Moje, Dillon, and O’Brien (2000) found in their study that personal identity factors into meaning making of text. The students in Hall’s work did not want to be seen as struggling readers and appear weak to the rest of the class therefore, they adopted other strategies, not taught by the teacher, to help them comprehend text in their content-areas.

History texts can also serve as cultural tools (Wertsch, 1998). Wertsch (1998) looked at historical narratives that come from the “official history” and those that came from the “unofficial history” of the United States. He noted the “official history” position—a quest for freedom—is the one apparent in the history textbooks and in teacher instruction. However, there is more than one narrative (e.g., gender, class, race, ethnicity) that can be used as a cultural tool in creating an account of U.S. history and “it is possible to identify those narratives that stand in marked contrast to the quest-for-freedom story that [is] so prevalent in students’ texts” (Wertsch, 1998, p. 101). Bain (2005) specifically interspersed texts in his unit about Columbus and how Columbus debunked the “flat earth” theory. He asked his students questions about what they knew about Columbus’ 1492 voyage and what the Europeans thought and believed about the world on the eve of his 1492 voyage. His students described a story they had heard growing up—the widely accepted story of Columbus “an Italian sailor who received

funds from the king and queen of Spain to go to the east by sailing west. Europeans thought this was “crazy” because people had thought—forever—that the world was flat” (p. 189). When he probed further, his students told him this was a story “everyone knows,” and “our elementary teachers told us” (p. 190).

Because Bain found his students could not provide a “specific source of their knowledge about the flat earth” (p. 194) he provided them with accounts (e.g., a classical statue of Atlas holding a globe, an explanation from Carl Sagan of how Eratosthenes determined the circumference of the world in the third century B.C.E.) of a ‘round earth.’ Bain concluded his students, at the end of the historical investigation, no longer viewed the textbook as a “fixed entity” (p.209) but rather as one text detailing an account, students can use to construct a historical understanding. After reading other primary and secondary accounts on the “flat world” debate, the students were able to pose rich historical questions about a cultural story they had heard growing up, essentially coming to a new understanding about the “world is flat” and Columbus story. Thus, as noted by Smagorinsky and Coppock (1994) texts, both print and non-print formats “have potential for enabling students to construct meaning in classrooms” (p. 285).

O’Connor (1991) had students read various texts about the treatment of Native Americans by the Europeans (as cited in Wertsch, 1998). One group was introduced to the Native Americans in the text before the quest-for-freedom theme. The students “included information [in their essays] that was potentially inconsistent with the quest-for-freedom theme, but they organized this formation in such a way that the inconsistency was minimized” (as cited in Wertsch, 1998, p. 102). In contrast, the other group was introduced to the treatment of the Native Americans after the quest-for-freedom theme

had been introduced via various texts. The students now had the problem of “reconciling two inconsistent stories” (Wertsch, 1998, p. 103) in their narrative. This tells us that once the students were confronted with alternative histories, they could not create a smooth interpretation of the historical event. Instead, they struggled with creating a narrative comprised of what they had been traditionally taught in history textbooks (e.g., the official history) and what they learned from other historical sources (e.g., the unofficial history).

Clearly, research shows personal background influences meaning making of text. How students view themselves as readers also plays a key role in what strategies students use and how they present themselves to the rest of the class. Teachers might use particular texts in class to elicit a response from the student especially those involving “unofficial” and “official” history.

Disciplinary literacy as thinking processes. As posited by Greenleaf, Cribb, Howlett, and Moore (2010), “Readers engage in distinct thinking processes, colored by the human enterprises and habits of mind that shape academic disciplines” (p. 291). Further,

To become competent in a number of academic content areas requires more than just applying the same old skills and comprehension strategies to new kinds of texts. It also requires skills and knowledge and reasoning processes that are specific to particular disciplines. (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007, p. 10)

History texts such as primary sources and secondary sources provide a context for students to learn critical reading skills such as comparing, contrasting, and higher order thinking skills (Bain, 2006; Dunn, 2000). Reading primary source documents can elicit

an emotional response from readers (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001). Using texts with embedded primary sources in them could create opportunities for development of historical thinking and critical reading; however, teachers must model the process for the students and provide support (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001). As Barton (2005) noted, “Ultimately, we cannot depend on any single source—primary or secondary—for reliable knowledge; we have to consult multiple sources in our quest to develop historical understanding” (p. 746).

Bain (2006) noted it is rare to see the discipline of history treated in the classroom as it is viewed by historians—as an investigation of the past. In his study involving the use of primary sources and the textbook in a world history classroom, Bain (2006) found his students did not use the textbook as a source when investigating a particular aspect of the plague. Instead, they turned to the primary source documents provided by Bain. When prompted by Bain to go back and critically examine the textbook and its treatment of the plague, the students found it to be “Eurocentric” (p. 2101). Ironically, when challenged by Bain to examine the primary sources he provided to see what sources addressed a more global perspective of the plague, the students also found his treatment to be “Eurocentric” (p. 2102). A student noted, “I think it’s kind of scary that a teacher or historian can control what someone’s knowledge on something is. Knowledge can control reason and reason can control action. So misknowledge [sic] can cause an unnecessary action” (p. 2103). Bain (2006) concluded using disciplinary specific mediation, as he did with his Eurocentric sources (e.g., visuals and discourse strategies) did help students engage in historical investigation. The students became more critical thinkers of history

and of what is presented to them in texts and other sources, once they realized the sources were ‘controlled’ by the teacher (or historian).

Similar to Bain (2006), who had his students studying text for particular bias (e.g., looking at disciplinary adequacy), Conley (2012) had his students look at the disciplinary adequacy of the text as one of the requirements for his content-area literacy course. One of the preservice teachers noted the “key disciplinary ideas were buried in the dense language, graphics, and formulas” of the science text (p. 144). Another mathematics preservice teacher found that the text failed to make connections between essential concepts in the mathematics curriculum (e.g., area and space) (Conley, 2012). Because of these inadequacies, the preservice teachers found additional outside resources such as multimodal resources, to supplement the text and scaffold student comprehension of the complex text (Conley, 2012). Hart and Bennett (2012) found similar discoveries when analyzing secondary science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) preservice teacher data. Specifically, one science student acknowledged the multimodal ways in which information can be presented in science texts and the important role of multisemiotic knowledge plays in deconstructing these texts. JB, a science secondary preservice teacher said:

Although reading comprehension skills are important in science, it is almost equally as important to be able to read and interpret graphs and diagrams. There are many cases in which the information from a graph or chart is not written as text. It is assumed by the writer that whoever is attempting to find the information is able to read and interpret this method of data delivery well. Therefore, it is

critical that students can read and comprehend graphs, charts, and diagrams and thus they interact with the information in a distinctive way.

Dillon, O'Brien, Moje, and Stewart (1994) studied three secondary science teachers and investigated their use of literacy in the science classroom. One participant, Ms. Landy, stated her main objective in teaching chemistry was to develop "scientific literacy" in her students (p. 353). Specifically she said:

I want to acquaint them with general ideas and concepts about chemistry, but most of all I want them to become literate in chemistry. [...] Among those skills [needed to be scientifically literate] include reading, writing, critical thinking, questioning, deductive reasoning, and communication. (p. 353)

Bill and Jamar (2010) analyzed a mathematics teacher within a disciplinary literacy perspective and found that the habits of thinking included "individual reflection and self monitoring, looking for patterns, reasoning from and between representations, and working backwards from the end point" (p. 65). Many of these skills needed to be literate in the discipline are cognitive skills or cognitive strategies.

VanSledright and Kelly (1998) examined the implications of using multiple texts in a social studies class with upper elementary students. Unlike Bain's (2006) study, where students examined multiple sources and assessed the sources of information, the elementary age students in VanSledright and Kelly's study did not "note how differences might affect their reading and assessment of the books' content (p. 251). Thus, the authors offered two suggestions to orient students towards using and critiquing multiple sources of information. The first was to teach students strategies historians use when

examining text, and the second involved a transformation of the view of history in the classroom—teaching students history is interpretive and not objective.

Through the use of multiple texts, students might become aware of different perspectives found in primary, secondary, and tertiary sources and access to such sources can be controlled by another individual. This realization can help develop students' critical thinking skills.

Disciplinary literacy as language and text structure. Functional language analysis (FLA) enables students to recognize that different text genres have assorted meanings such as experiential, textual, and interpersonal; authors choose particular language to use in a text to convey a certain meaning (Fang, 2012a; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010; Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza, 2004). FLA shows each discipline has a “specialized way of using language that may pose comprehension challenges for adolescents” (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010, p. 596). Content-area texts are constructed differently than everyday texts and students must be taught how to make sense of content-area texts (Fang, 2012b). Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteiza (2004) noted history textbooks are difficult to maneuver through because of the grammatical characteristics used by the authors; the “grammatical characteristics of the discourse of history that make the text abstract and difficult to follow [...] become a focus of discussion as students analyze text to unpack these meanings and understand ambiguities” (p. 77). Moje's (1995) case study on a secondary science teacher focused on the teacher's ‘teacher talk’ in relation to the language of science, both in conversation and reading from the text. Moje noted, “The teacher believed that her emphasis on language, particularly terms and specialized vocabulary, helped develop students' understanding of

the concepts by encouraging them to memorize the symbols of the new language and the ways the new language was arranged” (p. 357-358). Thus, the teacher recognized the importance of comprehending scientific language and its connection to the development of conceptual understanding.

There are three types of texts in history—the recording/narrative texts, that construct the past as a story, the explanatory texts detailing explanations of the past, and the argumentative texts, that present debates about the past (Coffin, 2004; Fang, 2012a). Coffin (2004), in analyzing history texts specifically looking at causal language, through systematic functional linguistics (SFL), found “there are changes in how students deploy causal resources as they progress through secondary schooling and add new genres to their repertoires” (p. 278). She had three key findings:

1. Other than the historical account, narrative genres in history rarely use causal verbs and nouns,
2. In the explanatory text, causal relationships are used frequently and the causal relationships become grouped together as complex phenomena with the potential for such causal phenomena to be brought into nonlinear, nontemporal relations with other complex phenomena,
3. The argumentative genre is sophisticated because it requires students to use particular causal relations depending on the perspective taken by the writer while steering the reader to accept a particular view of the past. (Coffin, 2004, p. 280-281)

After analyzing history textbooks, Fang (2012a) found as historical discourse moves from simple recounting of the past events (recording texts, explanatory texts) to

analysis and interpretation (argumentative texts) of these events, there is a shift from specific human actors to groups of people, things, and places (e.g., generic nouns); nominalizations of verbs and adjectives, enabling the historian to package a series of events over a long period of time into a “thing” that has ideological connections (e.g., the “Great Depression”); causality, layers of abstraction, and evaluative vocabulary.

Researchers have found the linguistic structure of the subject area texts creates confusion. Johnson, Watson, Delahunty, McSwiggen, and Smith (2011) found that when mathematicians discuss language of the discipline of mathematics, they noted:

The key is precision and careful definition. There is also a grammar that typically begins with “Let” as an “Let ‘A’ equal...” Apprentices of mathematics must learn the language of math, the syntax and grammar of proof, and learn how to read the classic texts, which use more mathematical language than current textbooks. (p. 105)

In a review of mathematical texts, Fang and Schleppegrell (2010) found they are, “simultaneously technical, dense, and multi-semiotic, drawing on natural language, symbolic language, and visual display, which interact in discipline-specific, synergist ways” (p. 591). Like Fang and Schleppegrell (2010), Shanahan (2012) found that the multi-semiotic aspects of science texts (e.g., moving from text to formula to graphic and back again) obstructed students’ fluent reading and comprehension of text. Thus, students need to be taught to the language of the discipline in order to make sense of the disciplinary text they are reading.

Through FLA and SFL, students might become aware of specialized language and text structure used in different discipline-specific books. In particular, students might

recognize the differences between everyday texts, such as the newspaper, web pages, and magazines and textbooks used in the classroom.

Overall, disciplinary literacy can be incorporated into secondary classrooms using various methods and perspectives. Research shows there are unique language demands in history and much of the reading done by students in middle and high school is from discipline-specific complex texts (National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) 2011, 2007, 2006a, 2006b, 2004). This awareness that each discipline has its own specialized language, text structure, and habits of thinking, has led literacy researchers to conclude that adolescents require discipline specific reading and writing instruction, thereby supporting students' learning through the use of texts and literacies valued by professionals within the specific disciplines (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2006; Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, & Siebert, 2010; Moje, 2008a; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). This disciplinary perspective toward literacies requires a shift in perspective, from viewing reading and writing *across the curriculum* to reading and writing *within each discipline* [emphasis added] (Eltz, 2011). The next section addresses research on the discipline of history.

The Discipline of History

The definition of history varies depending on upon different scholars and teachers' views. Leinhardt, Stainton, and Virji (1994) interviewed two history educators and seven historians asking them to define 'history'. One of the teachers said, "All history involved interpretation and that all interpretation changes" (p. 83); the other teacher noted history is not just knowing dates; it is also "an examination of politics people have used in repose to a particular concern" and history helped "to develop a

sense of judgment” (Leinhardt, Stainton, & Virji, 1994, p. 84). The historians were also asked to provide a definition of the term ‘history’. Specifically, one historian provided a clear, succinct definition of history:

[History] is the reconstruction of past events, through a dialogue between surviving evidence about the past and existing analytical, theoretical, and political concerns in the present.... And it’s about learning who we are....about giving the people who came before us the respect that they deserve for doing what they did, and making clear that the lines of connections are there. (p. 86)

Leinhardt, Stainton, and Virji (1994) synthesized the definitions from the history educators and historians in their study and came up with this accepted definition of history:

History is a process of constructing, reconstructing, and interpreting past events, ideas and institutions from surviving or inferential evidence to understand and make meaningful who and what we are today. The process involves dialogues with alternative voices from the past itself, with recorders of the past, and with present interpreters. The process also involves constructing coherent, powerful narratives that describe and interpret events, as well as skillful analysis of quantitative and qualitative information from a theoretical perspective. (p. 88)

What Leinhardt, Stainton, and Virji (1994) described is the concept of “doing” history--an inquiry-based learning approach supported by history education researchers (Bain, 2000; Barton & Levstik, 2009; Levstik & Barton, 2005; Thornton, 2005; VanSledright, 2011; Wineburg, 2001). Within this idea of “doing” history, educators recognize students are thoroughly involved in the process of interpretation as they “do”

history (Barton & Levstik, 2000; Levstik & Barton, 2005). This is important to impart to students because the element of interpretation enters into every fact of history (Carr, 1961). The history one reads is a set of accepted judgments, not facts at all (Carr, 1961). History is an unending dialogue between the past and the present. According to Collingwood (1946), the philosophy of history is partly concerned with the inquiry (or the “doing” of history) conducted by historians. Levstik and Barton (2005) stated one cannot afford a curriculum mired in trivia and limited to learning the chronological order of events of the past. Instead, one needs a vibrant history curriculum, engaging students in inquiry or investigation.

In order to do this, students must understand that because of the act of interpretation, no history account is objective. Unlike other subjects, such as science, students cannot go back and observe the historical event again as they could in reproducing a science experiment. It’s in the past. Therefore, the only way to figure out what happened in the past is to interpret sources from the past. Historians and students must rely on the documents provided from various perspectives to interpret what occurred. As VanSledright and Kelly (1998) noted:

[We need to view] history as a set of representations of the past authored by persons who are telling stories employing different frameworks, making different assumptions, and relaying varying subtexts” [instead of] “the idea that history can be understood as an objective, fact-based account that mirrors the “real” past. (p. 261)

Historical literacy. The National Council for History Education (2006) posited:

History education must be a vital and integral component of every citizen's school experience. Historical literacy represents an important link between the language arts skills mandated by state examinations and the kind of active civic engagement that has been demanded by our political leaders. (n.p.)

Nokes (2010a) defined historical literacy as “the ability to negotiate and create interpretations and understandings of the past using documents and artifacts as evidence” (p. 66). History is interpretative and there are multiple accounts of one historical event (Monte-Santo, 2011; Nokes, 2013, 2010a). The historian examines different perspectives and events and constructs an understanding of the past using the primary and secondary sources available. Students in a classroom, which values historical literacy, become part of a community of practice, where they learn how to negotiate various texts valued by historians (e.g., primary source documents, secondary source documents) and come to their own conclusions about what happened (Nokes, 2013, 2010a). Historical literacy involves not only the learning of historical events but also the use of interpretative reasoning (Perfetti, Britt, Rouet, Georgi, & Mason, 1994).

Bruner (1960) and Schwab (1962) addressed the structure of the discipline, a component of historical literacy. Bruner (1960) noted education serves as a means of training well-balanced citizens, and the goal of education is the understanding of the structure of the discipline. Teachers teach a discipline not to produce little libraries on the discipline but to get students to think like a historian, to take part in the process of knowledge getting (Bruner, 1960). According to Lévesque (2009), “Students ought to be exposed not only to natural, immediate apprehension and cognition but also to the

‘mediated apprehension’ dependent on the intervention of formal methods of research and analysis in the disciplines” (p. 11).

The Bradley Commission on History in Schools, which was created to evaluate the state of the history curriculum in the classroom (Gagnon & The Bradley Commission on History in Schools, 1989) concluded their study with recommendations for teaching history in the schools. The first recommendation addressed knowledge and habits of mind gained from studying history; those habits of mind include the ability to:

1. Distinguish between the important and the inconsequential,
2. Grasp the complexity of historical causation, respect particularity, and avoid excessively abstract generalizations,
3. Read widely and critically in order to recognize the difference between fact and conjecture, between evidence and assertion, and thereby to frame useful questions. (Gagnon & The Bradley Commission on History in Schools, 1989, p. 25-26)

In his 2010 study on teachers’ literacy-related decisions (e.g., text selection, literacy activities) Nokes (2010b) created a spectrum of instructional practices teachers engage in, from historical narrative to historical process integration. The spectrum is designed to show teachers’ inclination to include historical processes (e.g., historical thinking) instruction in their classrooms. Nokes found that the teachers in his study were more apt to teach from the historical narrative perspective than from the historical process integration perspective (Nokes, 2010b). This notion also reaffirms VanSledright’s (2002a) claims of a teacher-centered pedagogy as the prevailing

instructional method in the debate between teaching historical content and historical processes (Nokes, 2010b).

In total, these studies show historical literacy—this idea of “doing” history—is essential to history education and has been promoted by scholars in the field and elsewhere (e.g., Bruner, 1960; Gagnon & The Bradley Commission on History in the Schools, 1989; Lévesque, 2009, 2005; Schwab, 1962). However, they also show many teachers are comfortable teaching from a narrative perspective rather than the historical literacy perspective in their classroom (Nokes, 2010b; VanSledright, 2002a). As Conley (2008) noted, “Prospective [and in-service] teachers hold fast to their views of teaching and learning based on their own experiences as students” (p. 97). More often than not, these experiences are an “authoritative narrative” (Conley, 2008, p. 97) of the content. Thus, if prospective teachers see the historical narrative perspective modeled for them in school, they will more likely than no teach in the same manner as opposed to other pedagogical styles.

Historical thinking. To counter the teacher-focused pedagogy and to support historical literacy, one skill needed is historical thinking (Centre for the Study of Historical Consciousness [CSHS], 2011). It, like mathematical thinking in math instruction or scientific thinking in science instruction, is essential to history instruction (CSHS, 2011). Defining historical thinking is necessary as it is seldom a goal in high school social studies instruction (Spoehr & Spoehr, 1994). It does not mean an individual knows more historical facts than another person, as that conception of history is one reason why students find history dull in school (Spoehr & Spoehr, 1994). Rather, historical thinking is a complex intellectual process where “an individual masters and

ultimately appropriates the concepts and knowledge of history and critically applies such concepts and knowledge in the resolution of contemporary and historical issues”

(Lévesque, 2009, p. 27). To be able to think historically requires the following abilities:

1. To imagine yourself in situations unlike anything you are ever likely to experience.
2. To develop hypotheses about cause and effect, allowing for the possibility that a cause may be quite remote (in time, in category, or both) from its effect.
3. To assess how well your hypotheses fit the facts, recognizing that reality is messy and that there will always be counterarguments available that will seem to contradict your hypotheses, and that you must take those counterarguments into account.
4. To define abstractions precisely, and to show how those abstractions, when used and defined by others, have changed their meaning.
5. To articulate your own values precisely, making sure that you are positing an opinion and not merely projecting an attitude, and that your conclusions follow logically from the evidence. (Spoehr & Spoehr, 1994, pp. 73-74)

As observed by Wineburg and Fournier (1994), “Historical thinking is essential in teaching people how to understand others different from themselves” (p. 305). Historical thinking is never context free and is crucial to understanding historical events

(VanSledright & Franks, 2000; Wineburg, 2001). The philosopher of history R.G.

Collingwood (1946) posited:

The scientific historian never asks himself: “Is this statement true or false?”

[...] The question he asks himself is: “What does this statement mean?”

[...] It is the equivalent, rather, to the question: “What light is thrown on the subject in which I am interested by the fact that this person made this statement, meaning by it what he did mean? (p. 275)

This theory of thinking historically (Carr, 1961; Collingwood, 1946; Mink, 1987) emerged from the writings of philosophers of history. As Collingwood (1946) noted, “All knowledge of the mind is historical” (p. 219). Instead of viewing the past through one’s own perspective --what Wineburg (2001) coins as presentism, “the act of viewing the past through the lens of the present” (p. 90)--one should take the perspective of the time when examining history (Wineburg, 2001). Wineburg (2001) noted historical thinking is essential in teaching people how to understand others different from themselves. When historians think historically about an event, they take the content apart, interlace information together, assess their assumptions, and edit out vacillating steps to create new thought (Wineburg, 2001).

In a study examining the development of historical understanding in elementary (second and fourth grade) and middle (sixth grade) school students, Levstik and Pappas (1987) reaffirmed the conclusions of Levstik’s (1986) study of sixth graders. They found the way the historical content is presented, examined, and then discussed, “may be the crucial factor that will decide whether elementary [and middle] school children come to understand and engage in history” (Levstik & Pappas, 1987, p. 14).

Historical thinking is one of the most difficult concepts for students to master (Lee, 2005). For example, Doppen (2000) found his students could incorporate multiple perspectives into their written narrative on the atomic bomb however many still viewed the sources as an “us vs. them” mentality. He noted as a “judge of a piece of history”, the

students were able to draw better conclusions as to why things occurred the way they did (Doppen, 2000, p. 165).

According to Wineburg (2001), historical thinking is an unnatural process. It is much easier to learn dates, names, places, and events than to go outside one's own comfort zone and think beyond one's mere existence. It is not something that springs automatically out of our psychological development, thus, historical thinking must be taught to students (Bohan & Davis, 1998; Gillaspie & Davis, 1997/1998). Its achievement goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think. Wineburg (1991b), as cited in Wineburg (2001), illustrated this point. In his study, Derek, a high school senior, read documents on the Battle of Lexington. He noted, "[Derek's] existing beliefs shaped the information he encountered so that the new conformed to the shape of the already known. Derek read [the] documents but he learned little from them" (Wineburg, 2001, p. 9). Derek did not ask himself questions about the documents and put the documents into their proper context. Instead, he inserted his own modern views of battles and warfare into his interpretation of the primary source documents. Thus, students need to be taught that historical thinking is never context free and is crucial to understanding past events (Wineburg, 2001).

Researchers found historical thinking development is not in set stages; it develops in flexible stages through childhood and adolescence (Lee & Shemilt, 2003; Levstik & Pappas, 1987; Monte-Sano, 2006; Young & Leinhardt, 1998). Two concurrent themes emerged from Levstik and Pappas (1987) data on the retellings of historical narratives: *differences of kind*, older and younger children remembered certain aspects of the story and *difference of degree*, the responses of the second, fourth, and sixth graders were

qualitatively different across the grade levels. As Levstik and Pappas (1987) found, children, even as young as second grade, can grasp the abstraction of history (e.g., under what conditions might some events become history) and the particular (e.g., the nature and cause of the conflict in the story). Thus, learning to think historically helps students learn about their own thinking process, for, as Wineburg (2001) noted, “we, no less than the people we study, are historical beings” (p. 10).

Lee and Shemilt (2003) proposed a progression model where students move from history as a story to history as understanding primary sources in context. Evidence showed uneven growth, therefore teachers should continue to develop students’ historical thinking skills as they progress through school (Lee & Shemilt, 2003). Historical thinking can also develop unevenly and prior knowledge varies among students (Monte-Sano, 2006; VanSledright, 1995; Young & Leinhardt, 1998). VanSledright (1995) noted the chronological approach to teaching did not enhance the students’ understanding of the colonial period; instead, the product was a “factual stew and fragmented understanding” (p. 339). In order to remedy the situation, VanSledright (1995) recommended taking an inquiry approach to the topic where the focus is on thematic/conceptual strands on geography, economics, political science, and social history enhancing students’ conceptual understandings.

First-order and second-order concepts. Researchers acknowledged there are two types of historical concepts—first-order concepts and second-order concepts (Dan & Todd, 2011; Lee, 1998; Lee & Shemilt, 2003; Seixas, 2006a; VanSledright, 2009; VanSledright & Lemon, 2006). First-order concepts are the content of history—individuals, events, or historical themes. Second-order concepts focus on “the concepts

and vocabulary that provide the structural basis of the discipline [and] are the tools needed for the study of the past and the construction of historical knowledge” (Lévesque, 2009, p. 30). These concepts are necessary because they “shape the way we go about doing history” (Lee & Ashby, 2001, p. 199).

Second-order concepts taught in Great Britain (e.g., Schools History Project, 1976; Lee & Ashby, 2001; Lee, 1998) in Canada (Centre for the Study of Historical Consciousness [CSHS], 2011; Peck & Seixas, 2008; Seixas, 2006a, 1998, 1993; Seixas & Peck, 2004) and in the United States include “change over time, causation, and progress/decline” (VanSledright & Limon, 2006, p. 546). In addition, in the United States, the National Center for History in the Schools (NCHS) (1996) developed historical thinking standards encompassing the five interconnected dimensions of historical thinking: chronological thinking, historical comprehension, historical analysis and interpretation, historical research capabilities, and historical issues—analysis and decision-making. These standards contain similar second-order concepts taught in Great Britain and Canada.

One of the aspects of historical thinking is historical perspective taking, otherwise known as historical empathy (Seixas, 2006a). Historical perspective taking is not the same thing as the common-sense definition of empathy where someone is able to identify with another person (Seixas, 2006a). Rather, it is:

The ability to recognize presentism in historical accounts and use evidence and understanding of the history context to answer questions of why people acted as they did, even when their actions seem at first irrational or inexplicable or different from we would have done or thought. (Seixas, 2006a, p. 10)

It is by being able to take a historical perspective that historians derive connections between the events and thoughts of actors in history. It also develops from thinking about historical events and people in their proper context and “from wonderment about reasonable and possible meanings within, in a time that no one can really know” (Davis, 2001, p. 3).

All told, historical thinking requires both the ability to take a historical perspective (e.g., historical empathy) as well as the other second-order concepts and the knowledge of how to “do” history. One purpose of this inquiry is to investigate three Advanced Placement United States teachers’ knowledge and beliefs about teaching disciplinary literacy in the classroom. The second purpose of this inquiry is to investigate what discipline-specific literacy practices Advanced Placement United States History teachers are implementing in the classroom. Students, like the “non” expert historian, can examine contradictory sources and arrive at a reasonable conclusion (Wineburg, 1998). The next section addresses history as a system of knowledge.

History as a System of Knowledge

Typically students view history as something that happened and there is a single narrative that must be learned and memorized (Nokes, 2013). However, Rüsen, as cited in Lee (2004a), posited “Historical knowledge is not to be treated as a fixed, static, given matter of human consciousness and cognition, but as a dynamic process” (p. 4). Three different typologies of history as a system of knowledge include historical consciousness (Rüsen, 2004), the developmental model of adolescents’ construction of people of the past (Shemilt, 1984), and historical stances (Barton & Levstik, 2005). According to Lee and Howson (2009), students must understand history as a form of knowledge in order to

be historically literate. They define history as “an engagement of enquiry with its own identifying marks, some characteristic organizing ideas and a vocabulary of expressions to which it has given specialized meanings: ‘past,’ ‘happening,’ ‘situation,’ ‘event,’ ‘cause,’ ‘change,’ and so on” (Lee & Howson, 2009, p. 218).

Historical consciousness. Historical consciousness is “a term established in German historical and educational discourse” (MacDonald & Fausser, 2000, p. 10). While this term relatively new in the English-speaking world, (MacDonald & Fausser, 2000), it has emerged in the literature in Canada (Seixas, 2006b; 2004), and the United States (Den Heyer, 2004; Wertsch, 2004). According to Rüsen (2004), there are four types of historical consciousness:

1. *Traditional historical consciousness* is a stance toward the past in which traditional narratives are pre-given and furnish us with the origins and values and our form of life. These latter are in turn seen as permanent and obligatory ways of living, providing us with a not-to-be questioned morality fixed by a stable tradition. Time is experienced as origins and repetitions.
2. *Exemplary historical consciousness* takes the past as embodying rules of change and human conduct, which remain valid for all times. This widens our stance toward the past, allowing us to make sense of more than a fixed tradition. Instead, we treat past occurrences as cases or examples, providing lessons for the present, including moral ones, and morality itself has a timeless validity. Time is experienced as change, but changes follow timeless rules.
3. *Critical historical consciousness* challenges stances taken in either of the first two types. It challenges traditional narratives, and it draws attention to deviations

from exemplary rules: it uses these to deny the truth of a story, or to show how timeless rules do not stand up. Counter-stories are produced, which provide a critique of moral values, displaying them as having immoral origins or consequences.

4. *Generic historical consciousness* takes a stance beyond the affirmation or denial of the previous three forms. Change is central to the past, and gives history its meaning. Differing standpoints are accepted by being integrated in this perspective of temporal change. Permanence and continuity are themselves temporalized. People and things survive by, as well as through, change. Moral values are no longer static, but are pluralized through the acceptance of ‘otherness,’ and change with time. Indeed arguments for their validity are dependent on temporal perspective. Time is experienced as itself temporalized. (Lee, 2004a, p. 4)

This *generic historical consciousness* type is what we strive for; it “is the quintessential form of a kind of modern historical thought [...] differing standpoints are acceptable because they can be integrated into an embracing perspective of temporal change” (Rüsen, 2004, p. 77). We are forever changing and evolving; to stay static would be, as Rüsen (2004) puts it, “a mode of self-loss” (p. 77). The four types of historical consciousness, however, do not succeed and displace each other; there is no ladder of progression (Lee, Ashby, & Dickinson, 2004). Rather, they can co-exist when examining any event or events in the past (Lee, 2004a).

Adolescent construction of the past. Shemilt (1984) described five stages of adolescent construction of the past.

1. *Dry Bones and a Sense of Superiority* describes an adolescent who confuses “cultural and technological supremacy with biological superiority” (p. 50). In this stage, adolescents also fail to consider motives in history.
2. *Assumption of Shared Humanity and Routine Stress on Motives* describes an adolescent who is surprised by the actions and ways of thinking of historical agents; these adolescents also tend to blur the lines between “what someone did and what they wanted to do” (Shemilt, 1984, p. 52).
3. *Everyday Empathy to Historical Events* describes an adolescent who “empathize[s] with his teacher by mentally projecting himself into the teacher’s shoes and trying to view the situation from the teacher’s point of view” (Shemilt, 1984, p. 53). An adolescent in this stage attempts to empathize with people of the past.
4. *Historical Empathy* is different from stage three because the adolescent is no longer “attempting to think [him]self into alien situations,” rather into “alien minds” (Shemilt, 1984, p. 54). An adolescent at stage four understands that past value systems, outlooks, and common sense may not be the same as they are presently (Shemilt, 1984).
5. *Empathetic Methodology* describes an adolescent who starts to question “what empathetic construction means and how it may be accomplished”. (Shemilt, 1984, p. 55)

While it would be ideal that each student is at stage four or five and experiences genuine historical empathy, teachers must accept that many students will be at the pre-empathetic stage (assumption of shared humanity and routine stress on motives) and the empathetic,

but non-historical stage (everyday empathy to historical events) as worthy goals because the student is no longer view predecessors as intellectually/morally inferior (Shemilt, 1984).

Historical stances toward the past. Levstik and Barton (2005) identified four stances toward the past.

1. The first stance is the *identification stance*. Within this stance, an individual makes connections from their own background to other people in the past (Levstik & Barton, 2005). For example, an individual might connect to another family member in the past because they have the same eye color, hair color, or personality traits.
2. The second stance is the *moral response stance*, where an individual “takes an explicitly judgmental attitude toward the people and events of history” (Levstik & Barton, 2005, p. 2). For example, individuals celebrate certain historical events such as the fall of the Berlin Wall but condemn other historical events such as the My Lai Massacre in the Vietnam War.
3. The third stance is the *analytic stance* where individuals engage in historical inquiry investigating events of the past. For example, a student may investigate the causes of the Iraq War.
4. The final stance is called the *exhibition stance*. According to Levstik and Barton (2005), this stance is common in the schools. Individuals in this stance display information they know about a particular historical topic; for example, by answering questions in the textbook, taking standardized tests, or creating a multimodal presentation on a given topic.

Each of these stances influences how students learn history as well as how a teacher teaches historical content. In sum, as a system of knowledge, history is very complex. Historians and students must contend with the pendulum of historical consciousness, four historical stances, and grapple with historical empathy when analyzing historical events. The next section addresses teaching history in the secondary classroom.

Teaching History in the Classroom

Seixas (2007, 2000) identified three approaches of teaching history in the secondary classroom: to “shape collective memory,” where the best interpretation is taught to the students; as an “exercise in disciplined knowledge and way of knowing,” where students investigate the past using second-order concepts in order to create first-order historical understandings; and a “postmodern” approach to teaching history, where the focus is for the students not to “arrive at a “best” or most valid position on the basis of historical evidence as to understand how different groups organize the past into histories and how their rhetorical and narratological strategies serve present-day purposes” (p. 20). According to Seixas (2000), the debates in history education have largely begun because many believed the purpose of history education was to shape the collective memory or the “official heritage narrative” (Lowenthal, 1998; VanSledright, 2002a) and the argument turned to which interpretation is best (Seixas, 2000).

The collective memory method is problematic because it does not teach historical thinking skills, but is a “grocery list of historical details,” (VanSledright, 2002a, p. 19). The purpose of this approach is to “contribute to social cohesion” (Seixas, 2007, p. 20). The heroes of the story are defined by their positive contributions to their nation and

curriculum developers are charged with creating a cohesive, meaningful story about the past (Seixas, 2007).

In the discipline-specific approach, “orientation towards school history provides students with active exercise in building historical knowledge and criticizing others’ historical accounts” (Seixas, 2000, p. 25). This approach has had the most research and publication (Seixas, 2000). Within this approach, Leinhardt, Stainton, and Virji (1994) noted there are four kinds of historical phenomena, which must be understood in history instruction. These include:

1. *Events*--dramatic circumstances of the actions of the people and government (e.g., wars, movements);
2. *Structures*--long-running social elements with expository features (e.g., systems of government);
3. *Themes*--explanatory principles central to historical understanding of people and nations over time (e.g., power, compromise),
4. *Metasystems*-- the metacognitive elements and tools of historiography (e.g., analysis, synthesis, perspective taking, interpretation). (Leinhardt, Stainton, & Virji, 1994)

Each of these tools helps students understand the epistemology of the discipline of history. Those who support this approach argue students hear conflicting accounts of events in popular culture and thus they need to learn how to evaluate information and come to an informed decision (Seixas, 2007).

Finally, there is the postmodern approach, where students try to “position all historical accounts in relation to the current interests of their narrators” (Seixas, 2000, p.

30). This approach must be explicitly taught to students (Seixas, 2007) and involves going one step further than the disciplinary approach. Different narratives, with their different historical agent heroes and villains, serve a specific purpose. These purposes may be ideological, political, or social in nature (Seixas, 2007).

Ultimately, the collective memory approach to teaching history is the most widely used in the United States (Seixas, 2007); however, there is evidence of the disciplinary approach being taught across the country (see Monte-Sano, 2010; 2008a, 2008b, 2006; Reisman, 2012; 2011a, 2011b; VanSledright, 2011, 2002). The disciplinary approach is also practiced in Great Britain (see Ashby & Lee, 1987; Ashby, Lee, & Dickinson, 1997; Lee, 1998; Lee & Howson, 2009; Shemilt, 1983; School History Project, 1970) and is becoming common in Canada (see Seixas, 2007, 2006a, 2006b, Seixas & Peck, 2004). Taylor and Young (2003) argued effective history teachers are those who use the disciplinary approach and they:

1. Present history as a constructivist/social activity that involves students in working with the raw materials historians use when shaping the past and in drawing on the knowledge and understanding historians bring to the history-making process, and
2. Understand that constructing the past is an associative, speculative, and imaginative process that requires learners to connect and relate various pieces of evidence to build images of the past. (pp. 170, 165)

Effective history teachers acknowledge the uniqueness of the skills needed to conduct historical inquiry and thus, strive to understand them (Roberts, 2010).

Reading historical texts. Nokes (2013) posited there are various categories of historical texts used in the classroom. These include:

1. Tertiary sources: textbooks, documentary videos,
2. Secondary sources: historians' essays, monographs, interpretations,
3. Evidence: primary sources, artifacts, photographs, architecture, fashions, music,
4. Public histories: museum exhibits, movies, popular books. (p. 23)

Nokes cautions that this classification is not absolute. For example, the movie *Birth of a Nation* (Griffith & Griffith, 1915) is considered a tertiary source in one sense if an individual is studying the origins of the Ku Klux Klan but it is also viewed as evidence for the historian studying the perception of white Southerners in the early 1900s (Nokes, 2013). Therefore, students need to be taught that various historical texts can be viewed as different categories depending on the individual's historical investigation.

In Wineburg's (1991b) seminal work on historians and high school students' practices when interpreting, evaluating, and deconstructing texts, he discovered historians use three practices to make sense of text. Using the think-aloud protocol (Erisson & Simon, 1980), he found historians contextualize (e.g., put an event into its proper context), source (e.g., examine who wrote the document and when), and corroborate (e.g., look across multiple documents). The students, on the other hand, tended to not question the primary sources (e.g., took them at face value), did not focus on the sources of the documents, and searched for the "correct" answer (Wineburg, 1991b). In a follow-up study, Wineburg (1998) once again looked at historians making sense of primary sources. He compared a historian (H1), who had a specialization in the Civil War to one (H2) who

held a specialization in another area. Each historian read a group of primary sources on Lincoln and conducted think-alouds as they read the documents. Of note are the different aspects, which emerged in the protocol. Wineburg (1998) explained:

H1's protocol exemplifies the range of ways historians create historical contexts—ways that go beyond simple notions of situating events in time and space. [...] We learn how an understanding of the Lincoln-Douglas debates is enriched by the knowledge of the life of Abraham Lincoln and his own development as a thinker. [...] We also see how the reading of history takes place against the backdrop of its own interpretative history. (p. 336)

In contrast, the “non” expert in the Civil War:

H2 was thrown into unfamiliar territory and, at least, initially, responded with confusion. Yet, as he worked through the task, H2's questions began to cluster around a set of constructs and relationships that proved crucial to his understanding. Despite early stumbling, H2's adaptive expertise was evident by the task's end, when an interpretative structure that made sense of these issues came into view. Even with major gaps in background knowledge, H2 succeeded in creating a context to explain this diverse collection of texts. (p. 337)

Wineburg (1998) concluded the ability to create context is the crucial component of historical expertise. Even though the “non” expert historian was in uncharted territory, he was able to eventually create a context to explain the collection of texts on Abraham Lincoln. Connecting what Wineburg (1998) learned to teaching practices in the school, the task he asked the historians to complete resembles the task students face when

answering a Document-Based Question (DBQ) in class or on the Advanced Placement examination (Wineburg, 1998).

Leinhardt, Stainton, Virji, & Odoroff (1994) also found, using think-aloud protocols, historians synthesize multiple sources and analyze the motives of actors in the story as well as those who wrote the history. Shanahan (2012) found similar results. In her study, she looked at how historians read texts and what strategies they used when examining various texts. She noted the historians considered whom the author was when reading, as well as the bias he/she brings to the table, the period the author worked, the publisher and the intended audience (e.g., sourcing) (Shanahan, 2012). The historians also looked at the text structure itself as well as the wording used by the author (Shanahan, 2012).

Hynd, Holschuh, & Hubbard (2004) examined the cognitive processes of college students reading of multiple historical documents. In their study, they found students engaged in similar practices as historians when approaching the text. For example, the students began to view the text not as fact, but an interpretation of a historical event. When an individual understands a text, he does not simply connect the events in the text into a sequence, rather he creates a complex scenario or model in which the events described might plausibly occur; skilled readers use a variety of strategies for revising and evaluating different models, finally converging on a model that best accounts for the events described in the text (Collins, Brown, & Larkin, 1980).

Reading history involves an intertextual protocol where texts are embraced, there is a play of ideas, and accounts and each is explored (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; VanSledright, 2012). One cannot make sense of a text one is holding unless one takes

into account the other texts one have read on the subject and one's own interaction with the text as a reader (background knowledge). Presentation of multiple texts requires more processing than examining a single text (Voss & Wiley, 2000). VanSledright (2012) found those who participated in the sourcing, corroborating, and contextualization and intertextual protocols had a deeper understanding of the past compared to those who took the textbook at face value.

Students who read passages written by a visible author (e.g., one who writes in first person) interacted with the author through mental conversations and displayed a closer relationship with the text as well as more in-depth thinking about the history presented in the text (Paxton, 2002, 1997). Multiple texts might help students form their own view of what happened in history (VanSledright & Kelly, 1998). Texts are not neat packages of information. Instead, they are slick, wary, and “reflect the uncertainty and disingenuity of the real world” (Wineburg, 1991a, p. 500). Palincsar and Brown (1984) found skilled readers slow down and give themselves extra processing time when confronted with a difficult text. Wineburg (2001) expanded on this idea; he found when skilled readers are reading conceptually dense texts, they may slow down, not because they are struggling to comprehend, but because they need to stop and talk to someone else or themselves about what they are reading.

Composition of history texts and building event models. History texts are composed of the text and subtext—a text of hidden and latent meanings (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; Wineburg, 2001, 1991a). The subtext is divided into two spheres—the text as a rhetorical artifact and the text as a human artifact (Wineburg, 2001; 1991a). As noted by Afflerbach and VanSledright (2001):

Reading history can contribute to students developing understandings of both the texts of history (i.e., the text that is read) and the subtexts of history, including what is written (and what is not written), why it is written, how it was written, and who writes it. (p. 607)

When individuals understand a text, they do not simply connect the events in the text into a sequential structure, rather they seem to create a complex scenario or model within which the events described might plausibly occur (Collins, Brown, & Larkin, 1980).

Two cognitive models, used as a way to garner students' understanding or comprehension of a piece of text or texts as well as a way to see a writer's thought process, are the construction-integration model (Kintsch, 1998) and the model of cognitive representation of historical texts (Wineburg, 1994). The construction-integration model (Kintsch, 1998) constructs representations or understandings of what a reader has read in his or her head. It aims to articulate the ways in which the text representations are constructed when readers read and ways in which cognitive processes construct them (Kintsch, 1998). There are three parts to the model: (1) decoding—perceiving the text from a page into propositions or idea units, (2) comprehension—recalling propositions from a text base, and (3) comprehension-generating a situation model (Kintsch, 1998). As defined by Zwaan (1999), “situation models are mental representations of the people, objects, locations, events, and actions described in a text” (p. 15).

Wineburg's model is similar to Kintsch's model. Wineburg (1994) noted the texts in the model are not viewed as individual texts but instead a group of texts. The historical event, the event as a text, and the background knowledge/previous experience brought by

the reader to the text are the first components of the model. As put forward by Wineburg (1994):

Using these resources, the reader of history creates various cognitive representations of the text [...] and each representation, while sufficiently distinct from one another to merit separate categories, work together in fostering historical understanding by communicating results between each other and interacting in highly-complex and unpredictable ways. (p. 92)

The next section of the model involves the representation of each of the components in the first part of the model. The representation of the text (rT) is essentially van Dijk and Kintsch's (1983) text base, where construction of meaning is formed at the word, phrase and sentence level as well as the sentence, paragraph, and whole text level (Wineburg, 1994). The representation of the event (rE) coincides with van Dijk and Kintsch's situation model, where a representation of a past event or past person is formed after reviewing several documents. Finally, in the representation of the subtext (rSB), the reader considers the authors' bias, assumptions, and convictions that the authors wish were hidden (Wineburg, 1994). All of these pieces come together to create an event model of what occurred.

Fitzgerald (2011) used Kintsch's (1998) construction-integration model to examine student causal language and mental representations of historical events. He found students either constructed situation models using the information from the textbook or situation models using information from the teacher's lecture, often not a combination of both. Argument construction is more personal than narrative, summary, or explanation and requires authors to construct their own representation or situation

model/event model (Wiley & Voss, 1999). This construction also led to better understanding of the subject matter (Wiley & Voss, 1999).

All in all, reading historical texts is a complex, intertextual process. Historians and students must create mental models of the texts, both the literal and the subtext, they are reading. Additionally, students who read texts with a visible author show a more in-depth understanding of the text as opposed to the texts where the author is third-person omniscient.

Writing in history classrooms. The history discipline has its own unique way of writing (Moje, 2008; Monte-Sano, 2006) because of the nature of historical thought (Berrong, 2011). Students are required to write historical arguments, taking perspective and context into account (Berrong, 2011). Monte-Sano (2006) noted, “[The] written argument allows us to examine the nexus between claim and evidence that can be elusive in speech” (p.2). The Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay requires students to analyze and synthesize primary and secondary source documents and use them to craft an argument (Leinhardt, 2000). Because this style of writing is different than the writing style taught in language arts and English classrooms (Shanahan, 2010), scaffolding of the process should occur. Students should be engaged in the role of apprentice and the teacher should emphasize content, structure, and the sequence a learner goes through to write a historical argument (Honig, 2010; Kamberelis, 1999).

Task interpretation. As explained by Monte-Sano (2010), “Task interpretation comprises how students understand what a writing task entails” (p. 543). Students who received instruction on the critical evaluation of multiple sources demonstrated a higher level of argumentative writing and their writing revealed historical understanding as

opposed to students who received instruction in a conventional textbook-based learning method (Goldberg, Schwarz, & Porat, 2011). Goldberg, Schwarz, and Porat (2011) stated:

Students [who received instruction on the critical evaluation of multiple sources] managed to view evidence as reflecting human perception of events and not as absolute truth or lie. Some understanding of the difference in perspective of the historical agents and of contemporary learners also seemed to develop. (p. 209)

Students who wrote analytic/argumentative essays as opposed to narrative/list essays had causal connections--the understanding that one event (an "effect") is the result of a first event (the "cause")--present in their text (Greene, 1993; Voss & Wiley, 2000; Wiley & Voss, 1999, 1996). Greene (1993) examined how two different writing tasks (problem-based and report) affected the development of students' thinking in composing in a college European History class. Results suggested the students viewed the problem-based and report tasks differently, which affected the ways students interpreted the tasks, organized their essay, and how they generated content for their essay. Specifically, the students in the report treatment group and the problem-based treatment group produced different writing structures.

Most students (5 of 7) in the report treatment group "provided background information about European recovery [the topic of the writing assignment] in order to set up [their] discussion of issues surrounding the program" (p. 63). Essentially, they produced a five-paragraph essay including an introduction, three points, and a conclusion. In contrast, those in the problem-based treatment group provided a much more detailed structure. As with the report treatment group, those in the problem-based treatment group

provided background information in their problem statement. However, once background information had been established, they instituted a causal link between conflicting goals of the U.S. and Europe and the social and economic effects of those goals. After providing the section on causation, the students proposed a solution(s) (Greene, 1993).

Newell and Winograd (1995) examined two U.S. History classes analytical essay writing. The academic class was comprised of students of advanced level and the general class was comprised of students of average or somewhat above average ability. They found the students in the academic class included more information from prose passages in their analytic essays than the students in the general U.S. History class. However, when “students at both ability levels wrote analytically about the passages, they were more likely to respond with a depth of understanding and with elaborated details when asked later to apply important concepts from the prose passages to new situations” (p. 152).

Stahl, Hynd, Britton, McNish, and Bosquet (1996) found students who were assigned narrative tasks, such as descriptive essays where students were not posing an argument, but rather describing an event, were more likely to produce essays containing statements from the text provided, whereas students who were assigned argumentative tasks produced broader statements found in multiple texts. Stockton (1995) discovered, through interviews with faculty at a small liberal arts school in Pennsylvania, as students wrote pieces using primary sources, their writing went from expository to more narrative. The organization was less rigid, and the narrative structure in these papers was more often based on the corresponding narrative form of the source than it was on an explicitly defended view of history.

Beck and Jeffery (2009) noted students had trouble expressing interpretive statements, a component of analytical essay writing. They found, “what seems to be most challenging for these students, then, is not remembering information or facts, but transforming their understanding of these facts into a coherent and meaningful assertion about them” (p. 255). Beck and Jeffery suggested further research should occur in this realm. For example, they suggest investigating whether “giving students more experience with writing from nonacademic contexts, such as social networking sites or other computer-mediated forums for written communication, might enhance their ability to engage in written interpretation and analysis” (p. 261) as well as allowing students to participate in expressive writing assignments, where they can form their opinion about a historical text (Beck & Jeffery, 2009).

Expert versus novice cognitive skill choice. Depending on the task assigned, experts and novices use different cognitive skills to interpret historical content and writing of their historical essay (Greene, 1994; Rout, Favart, Britt, & Perfetti, 1997). Greene (1994) found there are “three kinds of knowledge that distinguish the ways in which historians and college students interpret what it means to write and report or solve a problem in history—discourse knowledge, topic knowledge, and disciplinary knowledge” (p. 92). Three historians and 15 students were assigned to one of two treatments—report writing or problem solving. Through think-aloud protocols, Greene identified key differences in the cognitive demands of the historians and students. Specifically, the historians in the report writing treatment used the sources presented; however, they also used information from other texts to develop an argument/perspective.

In the argumentative treatment, the historians also went beyond the sources presented at the start of the study and looked at context, used background knowledge, and hypothesized how the presented problem could be solved. On the other hand, the college students either formed an opinion or did not form one in the report writing treatment; they also cited a single author or many authors. However, the students in the problem solving treatment used many of the same cognitive processes as the historians—they weaved information and background knowledge together in their essays, speculated, and proposed solutions to the presented problem. Thus, regardless of classification of expert or novice, the historians and students demonstrated similar cognitive, historical literacy practices when examining text.

Rouet, Britt, Mason, and Perfetti (1996) discovered there was a difference in the argumentative writing of undergraduates (the novices) and graduate students (the experts) in their study. Specifically, looking at the reasoning heuristics established by Wineburg (1991b), Rouet et al. (1996) found the contextual statements made by the experts were more elaborate and focused compared to the novice; however, corroborations per essay were the same as well as there was no difference in regards to the amount of sourcing in each essay. They also found the experts and novices interpreted the directions “express your opinion” differently. For example, the experts thought they were to “describe the problem space, the claims, and arguments that may be stated” (p. 103) whereas the novices thought they were to “decide which side is correct and explain why” (p. 103). Because of their study, Rouet et al. (1996) posited further research should be conducted on the development of instructional strategies to teach students the skills needed to evaluate and use documents in their writing.

Advancement in historical thinking. Students who learn specific historical thinking skills such as sourcing, annotation, corroboration, and contextualization (Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008, 2006; Wineburg, 1991) show advancement in historical thinking using document-based questions as a form of assessment and non document-based question writing assignments.

Document-based question (DBQ) essay. Students need to conduct historical investigations using the methods central to the discipline (Thieman, 2011). According to Grant, Gradwell, and Cimbricz (2004) the Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay, as an assessment of students' knowledge of history fails the six criteria of an authentic task (see McTighe & Wiggins, 1999) and the seven criteria for an authentic assessment (see Newman, Marks, & Gamoran, 1995). Grant et al. (2004) concluded a task such as a DBQ is not truly authentic because it is given in a classroom setting as opposed to the real world. Historians are not given a research question and set of documents to evaluate and they work in their area of expertise. Students, on the other hand, do not have a say in the question or questions they are asked. An additional problem resides in the primary and secondary sources provided; these documents have been selected by others and are sometimes edited, and can reflect the editors' bias. Students, unlike historians who can search for additional documents to help construct meaning, are unable to reference any additional sources when answering the DBQ. In addition, students write their DBQ Essays in isolation; they cannot confer with other students during testing. Historians consult each other as they interpret sources.

Reflecting on these points made by Grant et al. (2004), it seems like the DBQ is not an authentic task for students when comparing it to the work of historians.

Researchers (Barton & Levstik, 2009; Grant, Gradwell, & Cimbricz, 2004) do not advocate for replacement; instead, the task should be made more authentic. For example, Barton and Levstik (2009) noted when a teacher (or a assessment writer) chooses the primary sources for a student, the task is not an authentic one; to be an authentic assessment the students should formulate their own questions, find their own documents, and draw their own conclusions. The DBQ is a structured exercise (Barton & Levstik, 2009) that does not allow students to formulate their own questions or find their own sources.

Other researchers disagree and note the use of the DBQ allows for students to come to a greater understanding, to possess the ability to understand others by perspective taking, and to demonstrate historical reasoning skills (Onosko, 1988; VanSledright, 2001; Wineburg, 2001). Monte-Sano (2008) noted:

Developing the capacity to express a historical argument in writing teaches students that they have the power to make their own interpretations and to do so based on evidence rather than uncritical acceptance of other people's claims. [...]
Learning about evidence-based writing is the foundation of studying the past and to promote a literate citizenry capable of analysis and reasoned argument in its own behalf. (p. 1074)

Many researchers who have studied historical literacy and writing use the Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay to assess students' historical thinking (Monte-Sano, 2010; Rouet, Britt, Mason, & Perfetti, 1996; Seixas, 2006). According to Monte-Sano (2010), the Document-Based Question Essay is "consistent with notions regarding analysis of evidence, use of evidence to construct interpretation of the past, and

communication of arguments in writing” (p. 546). In addition, students who learn specific historical thinking skills such as sourcing, annotation, corroboration, and contextualization (Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008, 2006; Wineburg, 1991b) show advancement in historical thinking through the use of the Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay as a form of historical writing.

High school students whose teachers specifically teach them historical thinking skills such as annotation improve in their historical reasoning and historical writing (Monte-Sano, 2011, 2010, 2008a, 2008b, 2006, 2006). Monte-Sano (2008b) examined the teaching practices of two high school teachers (Bobeck and Rossi) in two urban high schools in Northern California. She found the juniors in each class received the same amount of instructional time on literacy practices; however, their focus differed according to the teacher. Monte-Sano found students in Bobeck’s class learned conventions of analytical writing and dissecting historical documents whereas Rossi focused on lecture, independent work, essay writing, and reading the textbook. As noted by Monte-Sano (2008b), “propositions developed from individual case studies (from a seven month period) were tested on all student’s writing samples and so led to the creation of the rubric” (p. 1052). Upon analyzing student writing (pre-and-post essays) using the Development Rubric of Evidence-Based Historical Writing, Monte-Sano found, 81% of students in Bobeck’s class improved on argumentation and 75% improved in historical reasoning whereas Rossi’s class showed declined scores or no change in argumentation or historical reasoning.

High school students, who receive instruction on historical inquiry, produce more historically accurate, elaborate essays than students who receive no instruction on

historical inquiry strategies (De La Paz, 2005; De La Paz & Felton, 2010). These essays also contain more claims (De Laz Paz, 2005; De La Paz & Felton, 2010). De La Paz (2005) looked at two groups of students, one who received instruction in historical inquiry essays and argumentative writing and one who did not. Those who received instruction in historical inquiry and argumentative writing demonstrated mastery of the target strategies and wrote historically more accurate and persuasive essays. In addition, students who read works where a visible author was present, as opposed to an anonymous author, produced an essay, which were more likely to take a first person approach, recognized audience agency and audience awareness, and was more likely to pose questions to the audience in the essay (Paxton, 2002). Further, students who continue to receive instruction on document-based question (DBQ) writing, produce essays, which moved from the typical “knowledge telling to knowledge transformation” (Young & Leinhardt, 1998, p. 25)-- the argumentative essay (Leinhardt, 2000; Young & Leinhardt, 1998).

De La Paz, Malkus, Monte-Sano, and Montanaro (2011), in studying the effect of on-going teacher training through Teaching American History (TAH) grants, found “when teachers participated in 30 or more hours of networking activities, [compared to those who did not participate in additional training once the workshop was finished], students’ scores, (on Document Based Questions) show a pattern of substantial improvement” (p. 512).

Non-document-based questions. When writing an essay where historical information comes from memory as opposed to the ability to refer to documents, experts (history doctoral students) contextualize the situation more frequently than novices

(psychology doctoral students) (Rouet, Favart, Britt, & Perfetti, 1997). Rouet et al. (1997) found the specialists used contextualizing—the act of putting information into a context (1.75 statements versus 0.68) more frequently in their writing, but there was not a difference between the groups in regards to sourcing or corroboration. For example, both the novices and the specialists used positive connections in their essays (5 for the novices and 6 for the specialists). Overall, analysis of the essays showed the two groups studied their historical documents with different purposes in mind as evidenced in their ranking, and subsequent explanation as justification, of historical documents in terms of usefulness and trustworthiness. The novices' focused on building up a solid knowledge base on the issue in order to write the essay whereas the specialists examined the documents focusing on interpretation and evidence—two historical thinking skills.

Research quite clearly demonstrates Document Based Question (DBQ) Essays allow for the development of historical thinking and argumentative writing skills. Students learn how to examine multiple documents (primary and secondary), corroborate across documents, and evaluate the source of the document(s). Thus, a context supportive of the growth of students' historical thinking along with the weaving of historical literacy into the class content produces student gains in historical reasoning and analytical writing. The next section addresses the research on strategies used to teach historical thinking.

Historical Thinking in the Secondary Classroom

The notion of critical thinking in social studies has been promoted since the Progressive Movement, however the idea first emerged during the latter portion of the 19th century (Cuban, 1991; Evans, 2004). As Stanley Hall noted:

The high educational value of history is too great to be left to teachers who merely hear recitations, keeping the finger on the place in the text-book, and only asking the questions conveniently printed for them in the margin or the back of the book. (Hall, 1883, p. vii)

Social studies teachers were encouraged to embrace a more student-centered instructional style (Bain, 2005); however, many teachers continued to rely on the tried and true method of lecture instead of the student-centered approach (Cuban, 1991).

While this traditional approach to instruction (e.g., lecture, rote memorization, recitation) continued to be commonplace in social studies teaching (Cuban, 1991), the idea of critical thinking or reflective thinking (Dewey, 1933; Griffin, 1942; Wesley Committee, 1944) also continued to be promoted in the field. Griffin (1942), in his dissertation on preparation of history teachers, wrote that the purpose of the history teacher was to get students to understand the process of reflective thinking. Two years later, the Wesley Committee (1944) reaffirmed Griffin's belief. The Wesley Committee noted history courses needed to teach critical mindness, ability in reflective thinking, locating and using materials and judgment comparison.

The events of the Cold War in the 1950s led to a return from social education to academic study (Evans, 2004). The new movement, called the New Social Studies, promoted the idea that students needed to “learn the process involved in creating historical narratives” (Baron & Levstik, 2004, p. 82). The Advanced Placement (AP) program was born during this era (Rothschild, 1999). Ultimately, the New Social Studies movement did not capture the attention of social studies teachers across the country (Evans, 2004); teachers still used traditional teaching methods in the classroom (Cuban,

1991). Evidence showed that some colleges were educating preservice teachers in the inquiry method (Lord, 1969), which was promoted by the New Social Studies movement. By 1973, the Advanced Placement United States History test contained a Document-Based Question, that “reflect[ed] seismic shifts in the content and practice of history instruction in the nation’s colleges” (Rothschild, 1999, p. 187).

Because of the publication of *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), the Bradley Commission on the History in Schools (Gagnon & the Bradley Commission on History in the Schools, 1989) was formed (Evans, 2004). The Commission argued the U.S. needed more and better history in the schools and the other social studies could be integrated into history (Evans, 2004). The National Commission on Social Studies (1989) released its own report agreeing with the traditional history camp (Evans, 2004). In 1996, the National Center for History in the Schools released history standards; these standards include content standards as well as historical thinking standards (National Center for History in the Schools, 1996).

Current research on teaching historical thinking in the classroom shows it can be taught to some degree either through progression or teaching strategies (Bain, 2005; Levstik & Pappas, 1987; Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008, 2006; Stahl, Hynd, Britton McNish, & Bosquet, 1996; VanSledright & Kelly, 1998; Young & Leinhardt, 1998). The next section addresses strategies to teach historical thinking, implementation of primary sources, and historical writing in the classroom.

Strategies for teaching historical thinking. Students can do history if they learn how to do history (Levstik & Barton, 2005; VanSledright, 2002a, 2002b, 1996;

VanSledright & Franks, 2000; VanSledright & Kelly, 1998). After teaching American history to fifth graders, VanSledright (2002a, 2002b) concluded the key is to teach students that history is an interpretative process. Class discussion provides a forum for students to share their interpretations and receive feedback from the teacher and peers, similar to what a historian does when composing a manuscript (Dickinson & Lee, 1984; Doppin, 2000; Leinhardt, Stainton, Virji, & Odorof, 1994). Three activities that help the students improve their contextualized thinking include providing background knowledge, asking guiding questions, and teacher modeling of the contextualized thinking process (Reisman & Wineburg, 2008). Along with contextualization, the teacher can instruct students on sourcing and corroboration (Wineburg, 1991b).

Teachers can also converge on the mental schema of a story, and teach history as a story, although this suggestion has not been validated by empirical research (Perfetti, Britt, Rouet, Georgi, & Mason, 1994). They can also model various historical practices including reasoning, interpretation of subtexts, and perspective-taking (Leinhardt, 1993).

Strategies for implementing primary and secondary sources. Students' historical understanding can be improved if they are exposed to a variety of texts (e.g., primary and secondary sources) in the social studies classroom (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; Bain, 2005; VanSledright 1996). However, as found by Stahl, Hynd, Britton, McNish, and Bosquet (1996), in order for students to fully benefit from examining multiple primary source documents, students must be instructed on how to corroborate across sources and how to implement varying perspectives into their writing. Stahl et al. (1996) concluded, "The disciplinary knowledge of history, or the ability to think as a historian [...] may need to be directly taught" (p. 446). When students move

from the textbook to primary and secondary source documents, they confront texts that are more complex. These complex texts require different structures and processes than narrative text (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; Britt, Rouet, Georgi, & Perfetti, 1994). Thus, students must be scaffolded on how to evaluate a source or multiple sources (Bain, 2005; Britt et al.1994; Stahl et al., 1996).

Students should be taught how to source a text (e.g., who wrote the primary source) and examine the author’s perspective (Afflerbach & VanSledright, 2001; Lee 2005). In addition, students need to learn the difference between record—a source intending to tell us something about some event, process, or state of affairs (e.g., a newspaper clipping) versus a relic—a source not intended to tell us what happened (e.g., a coin) as well as the difference between intentional and unintentional evidence (Lee, 2005). Ultimately the discipline of history can be complicated because the discipline demands reflection; students cannot learn how to evaluate primary sources through practice alone: reflection is key (Lee, 2005). Hallden (1994), addressing the idea of the “paradox of understanding history,” said:

In order to understand the explanatory power of a [historical] fact, students have to find an interpretation of the fact in the context of what needs to be explained. Yet, what needs to be explained is what is intended to be stated by the presentation of these facts. (p. 33)

Strategies for historical writing. Students who learn strategies for historical writing, such as historical reasoning and argumentative writing demonstrate mastery of the targeted strategies, thus producing more accurate and persuasive essays (De La Paz, 2005; Monte-Sano 2006). Wiley and Voss (1999) noted, “In order for students to gain

deeper understanding of subject matter, writing tasks must require knowledge transforming, not just knowledge telling” (p. 306). Excellent instruction can support the development of complex writing skills (Young & Leinhardt, 1998). Modeled and explicit instruction along with many opportunities to write historically may assist students in writing argumentative essays (De Laz Paz, 2005; Felton & Herko, 2004; Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008a, 2008b, 2006). Students who receive instruction on how to write historically tend to write better argumentative essays than those who do not receive explicit instruction (De La Paz, 2005; Monte-Sano, 2010, 2008a, 2008b, 2006). In addition, students who receive specific feedback on their annotations and historical writing show development (Monte-Sano, 2008a, 2008b, 2006). Overall, if given modeled instruction and scaffolding through the inquiry process, students can learn how to think historically, evaluate primary sources, and write historical arguments.

Summary

It appears there are specific practices used by educators to teach historical thinking skills in the social studies classroom. Students learn discipline specific skills such as corroboration, sourcing, and contextualization, that Wineburg’s (1991b) research has established as the cognitive processes used most frequently by historians when examining primary and secondary source documents. These practices are geared towards teaching students to think like historians when approaching text and composing essays. Research has shown even though these are considered “expert” historian practices, novice history students can, and do, use them as well (Greene, 1994; Rouet et al., 1996).

Teachers who have been effective have fostered students’ historical thinking and developed their argumentative writing (De La Paz, 2005; Monte-Sano, 2006; Wiley &

Voss, 1999; Young & Leinhardt, 1998). Specifically, students who learn how to think historically and compose argumentative essays have a more in-depth understanding of history, write historically accurate essays, and move away from knowledge telling to a knowledge transformation where students manipulate evidence to support their argumentative claim (Monte-Sano, 2006). Thus, we can conclude writing an argumentative essay requires students to do more complex mental processing of the historical content, and accordingly students have a stronger understanding of their topic than students who simply compose narrative essays (Voss & Wiley, 2000).

Argumentative writing is also one of the writing genres that will be prevalent in the schools with the implementation of the Common Core State Standards and is “the heart of critical thinking and academic discourse” (ASCD, 2012, n.p.). Because the Common Core State Standards have yet to be fully implemented in the history classroom, I did not include them in my review of the literature.

Teachers should note that in providing opportunities for students to develop historical thinking skills in their writing they are helping their students learn how to do history, not simply learn history. As Bain (2000) noted, as cited in Sipress and Voelker (2009), about his experience of pursuing a graduate degree in history while teaching high school history:

During the evenings, I interacted with others who defined historical study as a way of thinking, a manner of conducting research, and a style of writing. [...] In the high school, by contrast, history was a subject students took and teachers taught differing from other subjects only in the facts covered. (p. 19)

The historical literacy practices teachers introduce in the classroom, and the sorts of historical discussions which occur around those historical literacy practices, are crucially important to doing history. It is not enough to say we are learning history in the classroom—learning facts through rote memorization; rather what we should be saying is we are doing history. To make learning authentic, teachers must provide “students the skills and resources necessary to create and interpret history” (Korbin, Abbott, Ellinwood, & Horton, 1993, p. 39).

Chapter Three: Methodology

Always to go back to the original source because even with statistical data we are always taught especially in history to go back to those original sources not just trust the stats that were provided to us. —George

I conducted this inquiry during the spring semester, 2013, at three high schools near the university where I am enrolled as a doctoral candidate. I chose a qualitative research design because I wanted to understand the experiences of the three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers as they offered disciplinary literacy instructional practices to students enrolled in their Advanced Placement United States History class. I chose these Advanced Placement United States History teachers as study participants because the AP curriculum outlines specific disciplinary literacy skills students should learn in the AP classroom (The College Board, 2010). The College Board (2010) course description specifies:

Students' should learn to assess historical materials—their relevance to a given interpretive problem, reliability, and importance—and to weigh the evidence and interpretations presented in historical scholarship. [Students should also] develop the skills necessary to arrive at conclusions on the basis of an informed judgment and to present reasons and evidence clearly and persuasively in essay format. (p. 4)

I was interested in identifying what disciplinary literacy strategies teachers have students employ in the classroom to help them assess historical materials and pose

historical arguments. With the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a), which will be implemented in 45 states, the District of Columbia, the Department of Defense Education Activity, and four territories in 2014-2015, emphasis on discipline-specific literacy practices in the history/social studies, science, and technical subjects, I believe it is imperative to understand what disciplinary literacy pedagogical practices teachers are currently utilizing in the classroom before state departments of education and local school districts consider what additional professional development should occur before the complete realization of the CCSS.

I selected a descriptive case study design to explore my three participants beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy because I wanted to better understand the participants, the APUSH teachers, within a particular setting, the Advanced Placement United States History classroom (Yin, 2003). I chose a qualitative research design to study the APUSH teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Qualitative research best allowed me to study the APUSH teachers and disciplinary literacy pedagogy because I was able to observe each teacher for an extended amount of time and conduct a series of in-depth interviews with each participant about their beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the classroom. Initial structured interviews with each of these participants allowed me to understand what they knew and believed about disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the history classroom. In my initial interview, I addressed the issues of why and how of pedagogical decision-making. Specifically, I asked my participants to describe how their experiences in high school and college history classes influenced their

teaching of history, how their experiences in historiography helped them develop historical literacy, and how they develop students' literate skills in the history discipline.

Classroom observations allowed me to see how their knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy influenced their instructional practices. A second semi-structured interview enabled me to jointly construct meaning with my participants as we talked about their implementation of discipline-specific literacy strategies in the classroom. Document/artifact analysis gave me insight into the literacy practices the teachers offer in the classroom.

During the spring semester, 2013, I investigated three APUSH teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy. The following questions guided my inquiry:

1. What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?
2. In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?
3. In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their instruction?

I collected the following data: two interviews with each of the teachers, observations of two units of instruction per teacher, a conceptual map that depicted their ideas about themselves as a historical literacy teacher, and classroom documents and artifacts. A unit of instruction typically lasts one to four weeks, depending on how quickly the teacher covers material in class. In addition, I maintained a researcher

reflexive journal where I wrote down any perceived bias and my thought process as I made sense of the data.

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, I describe the research design and methodology I employed in the inquiry. I present information pertinent to all aspects of my inquiry: the research design, the context of the study, population sample, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Developing the Design of the Study: Two Pilot Studies

During the fall semester 2012, I conducted two small pilot studies to help me develop my methodology for the dissertation study. These studies helped me fully flesh out the design of my dissertation study, including my research questions, study participants, and the structured interview question format.

Pilot observations. In the fall semester, I observed three possible study participants for my pilot observation study. These individuals became the participants in my dissertation. Because they served as the teachers in my dissertation study, I assigned them the same pseudonym in the pilot and in the dissertation.

George's pilot. George is a first year teacher at East High School and has a master's degree in history with a focus in Latin American history and modern United States History. He has a Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction in interdisciplinary education. This was his first year teaching Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH), although he had taught another AP class previously (e.g., Advanced Placement World History). I observed George teaching one class period of AP US History in October 2012. Because he taught at a school on A/B block schedule, he taught the students for extended periods of time (roughly 90 minute periods). Therefore, he was

able to cover more material in a class period. However, because the students rotate on an A/B block schedule, he saw one group of student three times a week on the “A” schedule and two times the next week on the “B” schedule.

The day I observed, George covered a section on the Industrial Revolution specifically focusing on “Commerce and Industry” and “Men and women at work.” As the students walked into the classroom, George directed them to the bell work question on the front board. He asked the students to define “nativism.” Then, the students completed the “Recall and Reflect” questions in their textbook on the previous section of reading. After the class fished the “Recall and Reflect” questions, George led the class through a textual analysis of two primary sources found in the textbook—a selection from the *Handbook to Lowell* (1848) and a modern day labor agreement.

Prior to the start of class, George told me he was not using his typical reading aloud format today—popcorn reading and instead planned on asking for volunteers to read. He wanted to “switch it up a bit” and if the students did not volunteer to read, he would revert to popcorn reading. After analyzing both texts, the students orally debated the position “The life of the factory worker is good/bad” using the text information as support. During the reading and debate, George and the students made connections to the factory model school, particularly as they read the *Handbook to Lowell* (1848) and the modern day labor agreement. One student, whose sibling was in his first year of college, made a connection between the boarding house laws and the dormitory rules at college.

George also asked the students to complete Cornell Notes (Pauk, 1962) on the assigned readings “Commerce and Industry” and “Men and Women at Work” to use as a study tool for the upcoming test. Cornell Notes are a variation of the two-column note-

taking graphic organizer. Students list keywords and questions on the left side of their paper and main ideas on the right side of the paper. Underneath the notes, the students write a summary about what they just read (Donohoo, 2010). He assigned an essay prompt on EdLine to the students, that was due the following Monday. George used both content-area literacy strategies (Cornell Notes) and a discipline-specific practice (text analysis) in his class instruction.

Michelle's pilot. Michelle is in her sixteenth year at South High School. She has taught APUSH for ten years. She has a master's degree in social science education. Her school was on a traditional, seven period day. I observed her last period of the day in October 2012.

The day I observed, her class continued a discussion started earlier in the week on the reform movements of the mid-19th century. The guiding question that lead her discussion was, "What was the most successful reform movement in 1840?". She asked the students to defend their argument, and to use evidence from the texts they read in class to support their argument. She also used a graphic organizer in class and asked the students to classify the key individuals in the reform movement in the 1800s as: abolitionists, women's rights, or temperance movements. Her pedagogical style was discussion-based instruction.

After spending much of the period conversing about the key individuals in each of the major reform movements of the mid-19th century, she ended class with a debate in which she called on volunteers to answer the guiding question, specifically "What was the most successful reform movement in 1840?". The students had to provide a coherent answer, reflecting on the information they had previously read in he textbook and other

sources, as well as the day's discussion. Many of the students believed the abolitionist movement was the most successful movement in the 1840s because other movements grew out of the abolitionist movement. Many of the women who supported women's rights started out as abolitionists (e.g., Lucretia Mott, Susan B. Anthony, Lucy Stone, Elisabeth Cady Stanton). Others believed the women's movement was the most successful because it led to the Seneca Falls Convention in 1848 where the Declaration of Sentiments, based off the Declaration of Independence, was drafted. Still others argued that none of the movements were successful. Specifically, these students presented a case where each of the movements started to gain traction in the mid 1800s, however they did not achieve their goal until later on in the 19th or early 20th century. For example, members of the temperance movement wanted to reduce or prohibit the sale of alcoholic beverages however, the ban on alcoholic beverages did not occur in the United States until the passage of the Eighteenth Amendment in 1920. Likewise, the women's movement advocated for women's rights. However, the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution, allowing women to vote, was not passed until 1920.

Michelle, like George, used both a content-area literacy strategy (the graphic organizer for classifying the various social movements of the 1840s) and a discipline-specific practice of crafting an argument in her class instruction.

Shay's pilot. Shay is in his fifth year at West High School and his sixth year of teaching. He holds a bachelor's degree in secondary education with a social studies focus. This was his fourth year teaching APUSH. I observed Shay teaching one period of AP US History in November 2012. His school followed a traditional, seven-period day.

The day I observed, Shay organized his students into cooperative groups in which they analyzed primary and secondary sources. He asked his students to work in groups of four to five and to examine and analyze the nine primary and secondary sources provided, and come to a consensus as to what sources would help them best answer the Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay.

Prior to starting group work, Shay led the class through a discussion on the first task they needed to do when they sit down to complete a DBQ. He reminded them:

First you must look at the number of sources given and then use the “all but two” theory to decide which sources to use in your answer because you will not have time to use all of the sources (e.g., usually nine are provided, thus use seven).

Then, look back at the prompt to see what you needed to answer (in this case the prompt was: Historians have traditionally labeled the period after the War of 1812 the “Era of Good Feelings.” Evaluate the accuracy of this label, considering the emergence of nationalism and sectionalism.).

After his reminder, he asked the students to recall the time-period of the “Era of Good Feelings” and note that information down on their sheet of notebook paper. Shay reminded the students of the paragraph requirement for the DBQ response (4-5 paragraphs) and urged them to write a five-paragraph essay answering all parts of the required prompt; he also repeated the document info requirement—“use at least two pieces of information from each source to help construct a response.” Finally, he reminded the class of the “outside information” rule—50 percent of the paper should be composed of information not included in the documents provided (e.g., prior knowledge).

As the students evaluated the documents, Shay walked around the classroom assisting the students in their interpretation. He conducted checks on how the students were labeling sources—either as sectionalism or nationalism because they needed to address these points in their actual essay responses. He also posed questions to the students to get them to think further about their prior knowledge regarding the time-period, the documents provided, and the authors of the documents.

Each of the participants implemented discipline-specific literacy practices into their classroom on the day I observed. Of interest that is the amount of discipline-specific literacy practices varied among participants. All of Shay's instruction revolved around discipline-specific literacy practices, specifically those of corroboration, contextualization and sourcing. George and Michelle addressed corroboration in both of their classes however, not as in depth as Shay. In addition, George and Michelle used a graphic organizer tool in their classrooms, an intermediate literacy strategy as classified by Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) literacy typology.

Interview pilot. In December 2012, I conducted a pilot interview with three social science education majors (two doctoral students and one master of arts of teaching (MAT) student) in order to check the clarity of my structured interview questions and to practice my coding scheme. I received university Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, each of my participants signed a consent form, and I assigned them a pseudonym. The interview questions focused on the following areas: general information about the participants, participants experiences in historiography, their general educational experiences as a student of history, their knowledge of general disciplinary literacy, and how they develop students' literate skills in a discipline. I include quotes

from the participants to provide insights into the themes. The block quotes are in Century font so the quotes stand out from the rest of the text. I coded the interview transcripts using descriptive coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009) and pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009). Below is an example of my descriptive coding process.

Table 1

Descriptive Coding Example from the Interview Pilot Study

<p>Judy: All I used in high school was the textbook. It was the 70s. We used the textbook (1). High school history, and I'm thinking mostly of my US History class, which was pretty rote, read the book, answer the questions, take the test, write a paper (2).</p>	<p>(1) TEXTBOOK (2) MEMORIZATION</p>
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Table 2

Pattern Coding Example from the Interview Pilot Study

<p>KRISTEN: I think authentic learning is a vital part of every subject area (1). I think not only as students learn to be practicing historians where they interpret historical documents from their own perspectives (2) it can train them to be critical thinkers in other areas. [...] Disciplinary literacy is having both the informational knowledge (3) and the procedural knowledge in order to successfully at least conduct the basic procedures which would involve that any sort of study in that subject (4). Students should be able to analyze primary and secondary sources (5) and be able to discern between primary and secondary sources (6) as well as conduct their own written interpretation of these sources (7).</p>	<p>(1) AUTHENTIC (2) INTERPRETATION (3) CONTENT (4) SECOND ORDER CONCEPTS (5) ANALYSIS (6) PERCEIVER (7) INTERPRETATION</p>
<p>JUDY: They [students] need to obviously they need to have the ability to compare across texts (8), they need to be able to read current texts and reference those back to historical documents and verify (9), they need to be able to compare historical documents and look for similarities and differences (10).</p>	<p>(8) CORROBORATION (9) CONFIRMATION (10) CORROBORATION (11) ANALYSIS (12) SYNTHESIS</p>
<p>MICHAEL: The ability to analyze documents is very important but not just analyze them (11); synthesizing the information into a coherent meaning (12). Not just, okay here's this newspaper</p>	

Table 2 Continued

article, here's this cartoon, here's this short essay (13) CONNECTION
but why the three or four items together, how they
relate to each other, what that association to them
that speaks to the deeper meaning that is presented
(13).

Pattern Coding Analysis

authentic
interpretation
content
second order concepts
analysis
perceiver
interpretation
corroboration
conformation
corroboration
analysis
synthesis

Pattern Code generated after researcher reflection: DEVELOPED HISTORIAN'S HEURISTICS for WORKING with HISTORICAL EVIDENCE

Four themes emerged across participants. All three social studies education majors 1) focused on the "all knowing" textbook, unit tests, and essays in high school history; 2) developed primary source knowledge in college; 3) utilized intermediate literacy strategies in the history classroom; 4) developed historians' heuristics for working with historical evidence.

Theme one: All three social studies education majors focused on the "all knowing" textbook, unit tests, and essays in high school history. All three pilot participants said the majority of their assignments in high school history class, both standard and AP, involved taking unit tests and writing essays, or research papers on specific topics in class. Two of the three participants reported exclusively using

textbooks in their high school regular history classes. Kristen, however, stated she did not use a textbook in her AP World and AP US History classes. Rather, she read historical novels. She noted:

We never really used textbooks in my AP History courses. We focused on historical nonfiction novels and then for example in my AP US History class used Howard Zinn's *A People's History of the United States* (2005) as our main text.

Judy stated her experience in history class was pretty much rote memorization. She explained:

All I used in high school history was the textbook. It was the 70s. We used the textbook. High school history, and I'm thinking mostly of my US history class, which was pretty rote, read the book, answer the questions, take the test, write a paper.

Michael echoed this sentiment:

In high school, it was a long time ago, the books that we had we definitely had a textbook for each specific course that we took. In high school, I remember doing short essays and I believe one or two short papers.

These comments are not unusual. Researchers (Cuban, 1991; Bain, 2006, 2005; Barton & Levstik, 2003) acknowledge history teachers tend to turn to the textbook as their main means of instruction. As Barton and Levstik (2003) stated, "Numerous studies show that even when teachers understand the process of constructing historical knowledge, and even when they are familiar with relevant teaching methods, they do not necessarily incorporate those into instruction" (p. 359). Although one cannot speculate if

the teachers Judy and Michael referred to had training on the process of constructing historical knowledge, one can see from *The Nation's Report Card: U.S. History 2001* (2002) that “44% of 12th-grade U.S. History students claim to read a textbook about every day” (p. 97). Thus, using the textbook in history classes something a little less than half of twelfth graders reported using on a daily basis in their classroom. It is a common occurrence. Only 10 percent of twelfth graders reported reading something other than the textbook in 2001 and seventeen percent said they never read supplemental materials not found in the textbook (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2002).

Theme two: All three social studies education majors developed knowledge of primary sources in college. Each participant said he or she became familiar with the literate practices of the history discipline while in college. However, the participants noted their experiences with primary source instruction varied across the college experience, depending on their background. Kristin, an undergraduate history major, used compilations of primary source texts frequently in college whereas Michael, also an undergraduate history major, purchased individual texts to use in class. Judy, an arts major in college, exclusively used a textbook in her classes. Her experiences with primary sources were mainly self taught or learned in graduate school. She stated:

I don't think I learned anything about primary sources either cause that was still back in the 80s. In graduate school, we did a lot of reading texts of the founding documents and that sort of thing and the idea of using personal narratives, diaries, letters, I've since done with my students and I've done a lot of self teaching of how to use photographs and how to

analyze photographs because I found those to be actually the most engaging.

Michael also learned about photo elicitation, among other text analysis methods, in graduate school. He stated, “[In graduate school we learned] photo analysis, worksheets, things like that; methods of examining documents in segments and dividing them into partitions or using group think analysis approach to analysis of the particular document.” Kristen believed, even though she was a history major as an undergraduate, she had learned more about the interpretation and analysis of primary sources in her Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) program than in her undergraduate program. She stated, “I probably now have learned more about interpreting primary sources through the teacher education program on how do you teach kids how to interpret primary sources rather than being taught it as a student in those history courses.”

Social studies education researchers have examined the incorporation of historiography in teacher education, particularly social studies methods courses and teaching students to specifically examine primary sources documents. Yeager and Davis (1995) examined students in a social studies student teacher experience. They were interested to see if the students understood, in part, the process of analyzing primary and secondary source documents as evidence in history inquiry. Yeager and Davis noted those preservice teachers who did not teach history with the investigative approach might have done so because it was not emphasized in their methods course.

In a similar study, Yeager and Wilson (1997) examined one social studies methods course and looked at the ways the course facilitated the historical thinking development of the preservice teachers. They discovered, through interviews and

observations, “most of the students believed that the methods course, in combination with their previous history classes, had the greatest influence on their notions of historical thinking” (Yeager & Wilson, 1997, p. 122).

Theme three: All three social studies education majors utilized intermediate literacy strategies in the history classroom. Kristen and Michael both talked about the incorporation of intermediate literacy strategies, as classified by Shanahan and Shanahan’s (2008) literacy typology, into the history classroom. Michael noted:

We used a lot of Creating Independence through Student-owned Strategies strategies (Santa, Havens, & Valdes, 2004), Roles, Audience, Format, Topic (RAFT; Mitchell, 1996), we were focusing on audience was a big focus of all the pieces we were putting together, not just letting someone write, I wanted them to write for a specific reason to a specific group and focus on why they were writing.

Kristen also planned on using CRISS strategies in her social studies classroom. She said:

I would definitely use for reading and writing as well a pre-during-post activity. Always. And I think those can vary to keep the student engaged. For example, having some sort of, what is that called—anticipation guide—that they can fill out. Where on the left side before you read evaluate these statements and then after you read evaluate these statements. So there is your post and them for writing, I definitely think doing concept maps are very important so students can organize their thoughts.

Interestingly, Judy, who was a certified reading teacher, did not specifically name any reading or writing strategies she used in her practice. Instead, she talked generally about the way she taught her middle school history class. She explained, “ My history classes were meant for students who were level 2 readers. So basically it was a reading class and the content was history.”

Cantrell, Fusaro, and Dougherty (2000) compared the effectiveness of two types of journal writing—K-W-L journal format and the summary format on learning social studies in four middle school classrooms. They found “the K-W-L groups learned much more content material to a statistically significant degree than did the summary groups” (p. 1). Cuthrell and Yates (2007) acknowledged the social studies have been marginalized in the schools. Because of this, educators should “redesign their daily instructional practices to increase the teaching of social studies’ goals and objectives” (p. 38). One way in which this can be done is to incorporate social studies content into the language arts block and integrate social studies content with intermediate literacy strategies. Myers and Savage (2005) noted one way to enhance student comprehension of social studies texts, particular the textbook, is to teach students generic reading comprehension strategies such as a Reading Action Plan (Alvermann & Eakle, 2003).

Theme four: All three social studies education majors developed historians’ heuristics for working with historical evidence. Wineburg (1991a) highlighted three specific strategies for working with historical evidence: sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization. Nokes (2011) also noted, “Historians engage in close reading, fill in gaps in the evidence with logical inferences, remain skeptical about interpretations, and allow room for new evidence that is constantly being uncovered” (n.p.) Each participant

specifically emphasized the use of teaching historians' heuristics to students in APUSH.

Kristen noted:

I think authentic learning is a vital part of every subject area. I think not only as students learn to be practicing historians where they interpret historical documents from their own perspectives it can train them to be critical thinkers in other areas. [...] Disciplinary literacy is having both the informational knowledge and the procedural knowledge in order to successfully at least conduct the basic procedures which would involve that any sort of study in that subject.

She explained further, “[Students should be able to] analyze primary and secondary sources and be able to discern between primary and secondary sources as well as conduct their own written interpretation of these sources.”

Judy agreed with Kristen. She said:

They [students] need to obviously they need to have the ability to compare across texts, they need to be able to read current texts and reference those back to historical documents and verify, they need to be able to compare historical documents and look for similarities and differences.

Michael also talked about corroboration. He said:

The ability to analyze documents is very important but not just analyze them; synthesizing the information into a coherent meaning. Not just, okay here's this newspaper article, here's this cartoon, here's this short essay but why the three or four items together, how they relate to each other,

what that association to them that speaks to the deeper meaning that is presented.

The pilot interviews gave me additional insight into the minds of social studies educators as well as giving me an opportunity to practice my descriptive and pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009). Furthermore, I was able to talk to the participants about the clarity of my structured interview questions. The comments from the participants made me reflect on the way I worded my structured interview questions and caused me to separate one question (e.g., How do you choose and use and what do you believe are appropriate texts for your students?) into two questions (e.g., How do you choose and use appropriate texts for your students? What do you believe are appropriate texts for your students"?). They noted the rest of my questions were clear and they understood what was being asked of them.

Summary of the Pilot Studies

The findings from the two small-scale pilot studies—one observation and one interview—helped me refine my research questions, my study methodology, and my structured interview protocol for my first interview with my dissertation participants. It also allowed me to further refine the coding process I planned to use in my data analysis.

Design of the Dissertation Study

Qualitative design. Qualitative research is an interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary field and that crosscuts the humanities and the social and physical sciences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). There are five traditional qualitative approaches to research: narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study

(Creswell, 2003; Patton, 2002). There are seven general characteristics of qualitative research:

1. A focus on meaning and understanding,
2. An inductive process,
3. Researcher as the key instrument,
4. Rich description,
5. Study design is emergent and flexible,
6. Purposeful sampling,
7. Researcher spends a substantial amount of time in the natural setting.

(Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002)

In line with the seven characteristics of qualitative research (see Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002), I sought to understand three study participants' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy and their implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the Advanced Placement United States History classroom. I relied heavily on observation—an inductive process of data collection. Furthermore, I was the key instrument in data collection. My observations lead to rich descriptions of the disciplinary literacy practices. My study design was emergent and flexible—if one of the teachers in the inquiry did not use disciplinary literacy practices in the classroom, I could justifiably remove the individual from my inquiry. I observed each teacher during two units of instruction in their Advanced Placement United States History classroom.

The three main processes of qualitative research are data collection, data analysis, and interpretation (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As noted by VanSledright (1996), constructing history follows a similar process: “interrogating evidence, looking for

patterns, and developing themes all within the context of a historian's frame of reference" (p. 135). During data collection, the researcher provides rich description of what occurred during the study (Patton, 2002); during analysis, the researcher looks for patterns in the data (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Then the researcher interprets the data, much like a historian interprets historical documents.

In my inquiry, I adhered to the three main processes of qualitative research—data collection, analysis, and interpretation. I placed myself in the Advanced Placement United States History classes, observing the discipline-specific literacy practices that occurred. My data collection occurred in a social setting, and the inquiry focused the knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of discipline-specific literacy, which is consistent of qualitative inquiry (Merriam, 2009). Thus, my goal was to understand the lived experience of the participants (Patton, 2002).

In order to understand the lived experiences of my participants, I collected data that consisted of interviews, observations, concept maps, and classroom documents and artifacts. I examined the data keeping in mind my theoretical frameworks of communities of practice ([COP], Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), speech genre and social language (Bakhtin, 1986; Wertsch, 1998, 1991), and the historical investigations learning model (VanSledright, 2011, 2002). I uncovered themes, codes, labels, segments, incidents, categories, chunks, or units from the data collected (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). Interviewing, as noted by Merriam (2009), "is the best technique to use when conducting intensive case studies of a few selected individuals" (p. 88). Interviews are necessary to find out information we cannot directly observe in the context of the study (Patton, 2002). Observations allow the researcher to record participant behavior as it unfolds (Merriam,

2009) and are “conducted to triangulate emerging findings; [and are] used in conjunction with interviewing and document analysis to substantiate the findings (Merriam, 2009, p. 119). Documents offer insight into what cannot be observed in the classroom or answered in an interview.

Case study design. I selected a case study design because it is the most appropriate for answering my research questions. A case study:

Involves the [examining] of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e., a setting, a context) [...] over time, through detailed, in-depth, data collection involving multiple sources of information, and reports a case description and case-based themes. (Creswell, 2007, p. 73)

The purpose of case study is to “gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about each case of interest” (Patton, 2002, p. 447). It involves arranging data into cases in order to study the case in-depth and to compare and contrast the cases (Patton, 2002). There are three steps to case study research:

1. Assemble the raw data (interview transcripts, observations, documents/artifacts, etc),
2. Construct the case record (this is an optional step where the data is organized into a manageable file) and
3. Write a final case study narrative (Patton, 2002, p. 450).

Once an initial within-case narrative has been written, the researcher has the option to analyze the data further using cross-case analysis (Patton, 2002).

As noted by Stake (1995), a case study is the examination of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important

circumstances. The focus of a case study is to develop an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases (Creswell, 2007, 2003). The unit of analysis in a case study can be an event, a program, an activity, an individual, or individuals (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 2002). Specifically, the unit of analysis, not the topic of investigation, characterizes a case study (Merriam, 2009). Some researchers view case study as a research methodology (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 2003) while others (Stake, 2005, 1995) view it as a “choice of what to be studied” (Creswell, 2007, p. 73).

Data collection methods in case studies include interviews, observations, documents, and artifacts (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 2002; Stakes, 1995). Case data includes all the information one has gathered about a particular case (Patton, 2002). One method of sampling is purposeful sampling in which the researcher selects cases, which either provide different perspectives, are accessible, unusual cases, or ordinary cases (Creswell, 2007, 2003). Merriam (2009) posited, “Purposeful sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned” (p. 77). The case study reports the meaning of the case and the lessons learned (Creswell, 2003).

Strengths of a case study design include insights and illuminated meanings that expand its readers’ experiences, which can be constructed as tentative hypotheses that can help structure future research. A case study also offers a means for investigating complex social units consisting of multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon (Merriam, 2009).

This methodological approach can also be seen as a product or both a process and product (Patton, 2002). As Patton (2002) specified, ultimately in a case study, “the

analyst's first and foremost responsibility consists of doing justice to each individual case. All else depends on that.”(p. 449).

Descriptive case study. I chose a descriptive case study because I wanted to describe the natural phenomena of the disciplinary literacy practices in the Advanced Placement United States History classroom (Merriam, 2009). The purpose of a descriptive case study is to provide rich description of the events (Merriam, 2009). They are to purely describe (Yin, 2003). As observed by McDonough and McDonough (1997), descriptive case studies may be narrative in form. The challenge of a descriptive case study is that “the researcher must start with a descriptive theory to support the description of the phenomenon or story” (Zainal, 2007). In order to provide rich description, data collection includes multiple sources of data (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2003).

Descriptive case studies can focus on ‘What’ questions (Yin, 2003). When a researcher uses a descriptive case study, he or she tries to gather information on a particular piece of an issue or topic (Yin, 2003). As explained in Baxter and Jack (2008), “ a descriptive case study is used to describe an intervention or phenomenon and the real-life context in which it occurred” (p. 548).

The focus of my descriptive case study was to provide rich, thick description of the case. For my descriptive case study, I selected three Advanced Placement United States History teachers as participants in my inquiry. The sources of data for this study include interviews, classroom documents/artifacts, a conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher, observations, and a researcher reflexive journal.

Context of the Study

I conducted this research in three high schools in a large school district in a state in the southeastern part of the United States. All schools and participants were assigned a pseudonym.

The schools. In my inquiry, I looked at the discipline-specific literacy practices of three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers at three different schools. East High School was located a large city in a southeastern state. It was founded as a school for African Americans in the mid-1900s. The school serves grades 9-12. The school is a magnet school and has a pre-collegiate academy for STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) on site. The four magnet programs include: Engineering, Computer Systems Engineering, the Academy of Computer Game Design, and Biomedical-Biotechnology Sciences (Identifying Reference, 2012a). It is deemed the most technologically advanced high school in the local school district (Identifying Reference, 2012a).

In 2010-2011, 70 percent of the students were African American, 16 percent were Hispanic/Latino, and 10 percent were white (Identifying reference, 2012a). For the 2010-2011 school year, East High School received a “D” for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying reference, 2011a). In the 2011-2012 school year, East High School was classified as a “Intervene” school by the state Differentiated Accountability Plan (Identifying Reference, 2006). According to the plan, a school that is classified as “Intervene” must meet three of the four conditions:

1. The percentage of non-proficient students in reading has increased over the past five years;

2. The percentage of non-proficient students in math has increased over the past five years;
3. 65% of more of the school's students are not proficient in reading;
4. 65% or more of the school's students are not proficient in math.

(Identifying Reference, 2009, n.p.)

While the school received a "D" for the previous school year, for the 2011-2012 school year, East High School received a "B" for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying Reference, 2013a).

South High School was located in a large city in a southeastern state. It was founded in 1959, and was named after a well-known educator in the county. The school has an International Baccalaureate program, and serves grades 9-12 (Identifying Reference, 2012b). According to the district website, "the [South] High School multicultural family is committed to preparing students to meet the challenges of the future by promoting lifelong learning, social awareness, and 'Pride Through Excellence'" (Identifying Reference, 2012b).

In 2010-2011, 48 percent of the students were white, 25 percent were Hispanic/Latino, and 13 percent were African American (Identifying Reference, 2012c). For the 2010-2011 school year, South High School received a "B" for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying Reference, 2011b). In the 2011-2012 school year, South High School was classified as a "Correct I" school by the state Differentiated Accountability Plan. In order to be classified as "Correct I", the school must meet the following criteria:

1. “A,” “B,” or “C,” or ungraded schools that have missed AYP for four or more years and have met at least 80% of AYP criteria. (Identifying Reference, 2009, n.p.)

For the 2011-2012 school year, South High School received an “A” for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying Reference, 2013b).

West High School was located in a large city in a southeastern state. It was founded in 1927, and was named after a notable United States entrepreneur. It is also considered one of the top 100 schools in America and has been honored by *U.S. News and World Report* and *The Washington Post* as one of the top high schools in the nation (Identifying Reference, 2012c). The school serves grades 9-12.

In 2010-2011, 66 percent of the students were white, almost 19 percent were Hispanic/Latino, and almost nine percent were African American (Identifying Reference, 2012c). For the 2010-2011 school year, West High School received an “A” for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying Reference, 2011c). For the 2011-2012 school year, West High School was classified as a “Correct I” school by the state Differentiated Accountability Plan (Identifying Reference, 2006). For the 2011-2012 school year, West High School received an “A” for the school grade by the state Department of Education (Identifying Reference, 2013c).

In this southeastern state, school grades are determined by calculating percentages:

50 % of the grade is based on performance and learning gains (e.g. statewide assessment tests in reading, mathematics, writing, and science) and learning gains from all students and those who are in the 25%; and the ‘other’ components

including participation in accelerated curriculum (e.g., AP, IB, Dual Enrollment, AICE, and Industry certification), performance in accelerated curriculum, graduate rate, at-risk graduation rate, and college readiness. (Identifying Reference, 2012d, p. 2)

Schools receive 150 points for the percentage of students in grades 11-12 taking accelerated curriculum courses such as AP US History and another 150 points for the percentage of students in those courses who earn college credit on the exam (Identifying Reference, 2012g, p. 2). Therefore, the higher the percentage of students enrolled in AP courses or other accelerated curriculum courses, the higher the percentage of points the school will receive. This percentage can ultimately affect the final school grade, which is also tied to funding provided to the school.

As explained by Gonzalez (2012), “[Identifying Reference] high schools are being judged by the number of students enrolled in college-level classes. It’s tied to bonus money from the state” (n.p.). The formula also gives points to schools for student participation in accelerated classes, such as AP, which can also help a school reach a higher school grade, leading to bonus money (Gonzalez, 2012). In this Identifying Reference state, a school receives a lump sum of money from the state (per pupil) if the school grade increases or if the school grade maintains an “A” grade from one year to the next year. This is essentially group performance pay based on a specific action (Prodgursky & Springer, 2007). In this instance, the specific action is the school having a higher grade.

The course. According to The College Board (2010) course description, the AP United States History course is offered to [eleventh grade] students who “wish to

complete studies in secondary school equivalent to an introductory college course in U.S. History” (p. 4). The course material reflects an introductory level United States History course offered at the college level and is based on data from multiple universities and colleges around the country (The College Board, 2010). In the course, the students learn how to assess historical materials and how “to weigh the evidence and interpretations presented in historical scholarship” (The College Board, 2010, p. 4).

Population and Sample

Most qualitative studies have a small sample within a context in order to attain deeper insight and rich description of data (Merriam, 2009; Miles & Huberman, 1994). I had three participants in my study because I wanted to gain deeper insight about disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the Advanced Placement United States History classroom. I conducted two interviews with each participant throughout two units of study. According to Hurwitz and Day (2007),

A unit plan is a series of lessons organized around a single theme, topic, or mode. The unit plan should provide the teacher with a concise overview of the unit, including information about works, materials, and special preparations that need to be considered. The unit should be organized to emphasize sequence of learning activities. (p. 358)

I utilized convenience sampling to choose the three Advanced Placement United States History teachers. Convenience sampling signifies the participants were accessible and willing to participate in my study (Merriam, 2009). Prior to the start of the fall semester, I contacted the social science education professor who serves on my committee to ask if he could provide me with names of individuals who might be willing to

participate in my study. He recommended I contact another professor in the department because she keeps in touch with graduates of the program. She is also on many committees in the department and knows many of the students in the social studies education program.

At the start of the fall semester, I emailed the professor in the Social Science Education department at my local university and asked her to provide me with names of current students or graduates of the program who might be willing to participate in my study. I emailed the individuals she recommended and two APUSH teachers agreed to participate (e.g., George and Michelle). I also contacted the Supervisor of Secondary Social Studies and Driver Education and he sent out an email in my behalf to the APUSH teachers in the county. One APUSH teacher agreed to participate (e.g., Shay). I assigned pseudonyms to my participants and their schools.

Each of these participants was considered to be an exemplar educator (B. Cruz, personal communication, August 23, 2012; D. Holt, personal communication, October 17, 2012). According to work by Allington and Johnston (2002), teachers can be identified as exemplar by others in their particular field or grade level. My participants were identified as such by educators in the field of social studies education. George and Michelle were recommended for the study because they were excellent teachers and a district administrator told me Shay was an outstanding APUSH teacher when I emailed the district administrator to let him know who responded to my email request.

Prior to the final selection of these teachers and after obtaining both district and university Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and consent from the participants, I observed one class period of instruction for each teacher. I specifically looked at how

each teacher incorporated disciplinary literacy pedagogy in his/her classroom. While the amount of disciplinary literacy pedagogy implementation varied across the group, each teacher used discipline-specific literacy strategies in the classroom.

Table 3

Research Plan for Dissertation Study

Week Of	Unit Title	Teacher	Data	Researcher
Jan. 14-18, 2013 (prior to start of district second semester)	N/A	Shay	Interview 1 Conceptual Map of a Historical Literacy Teacher	Transcribe Interview 1 (Shay) and send for member check
Jan. 23-25, 2013	The Age of the City	Shay	Interview 1 (Michelle) Class Observations Documents and artifacts Conceptual Map of a Historical Literacy Teacher	Transcribe Interview 1 (Michelle) and send for member check Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
Jan. 28- Feb. 1, 2013	The Age of the City and From Crisis to Empire	Shay	Class Observations Documents and artifacts	Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
Feb. 4-8, 2013	From Crisis to Empire	Shay	Interview 2 (Shay) Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Transcribe Interview 2 (Shay) and member check Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts

Table 3 Continued

Feb. 11-15, 2013	The Roaring 20s	Michelle	Interview 1(George) Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts Conceptual Map of a Historical Literacy Teacher	Transcribe Interview 1 (George) and send for member check Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
Feb. 18-22, 2013	The Roaring 20s	Michelle	Class Observations Documents and artifacts	Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
Feb. 25-March 1, 2013	Great Depression and New Deal	Michelle	Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
March 4-8, 2013	Great Depression and the New Deal	Michelle	Interview 2 (Michelle) Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Transcribe Interview 2 (Michelle) and send for member check Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts
March 18-22, 2013	The Cold War	George	Classroom Observations Documents and artifacts	Documents and artifacts Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts

Table 3 Continued

March 25-29, 2013	The Cold War/The 1950s/1960s	George	Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Researcher reflexive journal Documents and artifacts Non-participant observation notes
April 1-April 5, 2013	Cold War/The 1950s-1960s	George	Interview 2 (George) Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Transcribe Interview 2 (George) and send for member check Researcher reflexive journal Documents and artifacts Non-participant observation notes
April 8, 2013 *make up day for holiday the two weeks before	The 1960s-1970s	George	Class Observations Classroom documents and artifacts	Researcher reflexive journal Non-participant observation notes Documents and artifacts

Situating myself in the research. In qualitative inquiry, the researcher is the key instrument in data collection. I collected interview data, examined classroom documents/artifacts, and observed behavior. In this inquiry, I was a non-participant observer in the classroom during two unit of study per teacher. I observed the disciplinary literacy instructional practices of the Advanced Placement United States History teachers. I interviewed each study participant twice and collected classroom documents and artifacts. It was important for me to let the data tell the story and not enter into the inquiry with my own agenda (Janesick, 2011). As a researcher, I wanted to be reflexive in my

practices. Creswell (2007) defines reflexivity as “conscious of the biases, values, and experiences that he or she brings to a qualitative research study” (p. 243). I was cognizant of the possibility of bias and used a researcher reflexive journal to record down any potential bias.

Because I was the main instrument of this inquiry, I include my competence and skills as a researcher. I think it is important to identify my methodological training, both in the field and in the classroom. I am a doctoral candidate and have been a primary, co-investigator, or research assistant in five qualitative studies and one quantitative study. I have presented at scholarly conferences at the local, state, national, and international level as first and second author. My publications include six manuscripts in literacy journals (five as first author, one as second author), one manuscript in a multicultural education journal, and one manuscript in an online international social studies journal as first author.

I studied Qualitative Research I and Qualitative Research II as a doctoral student. These two experiences offer credibility and competence to my analysis of the data. I also have participated in another disciplinary literacy inquiry that focused on preservice teachers’ beliefs and practices in their field experience with a colleague located on the west coast. In the disciplinary literacy project, I served as a member of the data analysis team. We applied a systematic procedure for data analysis. We conducted the first iteration of analysis independently, using an analytic induction approach to analyze each set of qualitative data (Patton, 2002). We collaboratively reduced the results from the initial coding scheme to help us form our model for recoding the data. We also turned to previous disciplinary literacy research to help us form the recoding model.

This model included codes for beliefs and practices; literacy levels (basic, intermediate, disciplinary) framed by Shanahan and Shanahan (2008); and content knowledge, identity, and discourse as framed by Moje (2008a). Patterns of literacy instructional beliefs and literacy instructional practices were identified for each case. A series of cross-case analysis procedures compared students within and across disciplines to seek convergent views across cases as well as divergent views among cases. These analyses facilitated our organization of the identified patterns into themes. I was able to modify the data recording model used in this study to fit my dissertation research, as a way to organize the data for coding. This work has led to one additional manuscript under review in teacher education journal and one manuscript currently in progress with the goal of submitting it to a literacy journal by mid-summer.

Historical literacy bias. As the researcher, I must acknowledge my own bias. I am a former social studies and reading teacher who employed discipline-specific literacy practices in her own high school classroom. In my doctoral studies, I have studied this branch of literacy instruction for the past two years. On my own, I conducted an inquiry on social studies teachers' perceptions of their role in literacy development as well as participated as a data analyst in another study specifically examining disciplinary literacy in the secondary classroom. I have presented disciplinary literacy, specifically historical literacy, strategies at regional reading conferences with a reading coach colleague in the past year. In addition, I attended a summer institute on the implementation of historical thinking concepts in the classroom in Toronto, Ontario, Canada. I believe students need to learn the structure of the discipline and how to think like a member of a discipline. Ultimately, I hoped to see the three teachers implementing disciplinary literacy

pedagogical practices in their APUSH classes on a daily basis. Because I have a bias towards historical literacy, I was cognizant about my bias and recorded it in my researcher reflexive journal. I also utilized a peer reviewer during my study to help keep my biases in check. These two ethical considerations are described in more detail later in this chapter.

Data Sources

Table 4

Research Questions and Descriptions of Data Sources from the Study Participants

Questions	Data Sources	Participants
What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?	Interview	Teacher participants
	Conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher	Researcher
In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?	Interview	Teacher participants
	Conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher	Researcher
In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their history instruction?	Non-participant observation notes	Teacher participants
	Documents and artifacts	Researcher
	Interview	
	Researcher reflexive journal	

Conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher. Each teacher filled out a conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher where they described the following:

1. What their job entailed on a daily basis
2. How they see themselves as a teacher of history and historical literacy
3. What literacy skills students need in APUSH
4. Where they acquired their knowledge about disciplinary literacy pedagogy

I analyzed the concept maps with the first interview transcripts to create a picture of what the teachers knew about disciplinary literacy, how they saw themselves as teachers of literacy and history, and where they acquired their knowledge.

Non-participant observation notes. I observed each teacher daily for two units of instruction. A unit of instruction typically lasts one to four weeks; most last two weeks. Observing two units of instruction allows me to “enhance my understanding of teachers’ curriculum practices” (Thornton, 1988, p. 310). I recorded my observations in a descriptive manner and I assumed a non-participant role in the classroom. Merriam (2009) noted a non-participant observer allows the “researcher to have access to many people and a wide range of information, but the level of the information revealed is controlled by the group members being investigated” (p. 124). Thus, the students and teacher were aware of my presence in the classroom. Direct observation of class times allowed me to see what is happening in the classroom in real time (Yin, 2009).

Interviews. I utilized a structured and semi-structured interview format. I structured my first interview allowing me to learn about my participants’ background and view on the teaching and learning of history using discipline-specific practices. I formulated questions for my second interview from my own field and researcher journal, enabling us to jointly construct meaning (Merriam, 2009). For the second interview, I utilized a semi-structured interview format. This format allowed me to “respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic” (Merriam, 2009, p. 90). Interviews have a targeted focus and provide insightful information yet can be inaccurate because of poor recall (Yin, 2009). In order to circumvent inaccuracies due to poor recall, each interview was audio recorded. I

recorded each interview with a digital recorder and transcribed each following the interview. I asked the participants examine the transcripts after each interview, employing the use of member checking, a safeguard for verisimilitude (Janesick, 2011).

Documents and artifacts. The documents and artifacts I collected included the following: lesson plans, classroom handouts, project handouts, test reviews, and practice Document-Based Question (DBQ) packets. These documents/artifacts did not contain any identifiable student or teacher information and I used them for data triangulation (Merriam, 2009). Some teachers allowed me to take pictures of the documents, rather than provide me with a hard-copy. Shay used more classroom artifacts and documents in his instruction than Michelle and George. These were physical artifacts, which gave me insight into classroom instruction (Yin, 2009).

Researcher reflexive journal. I kept a researcher reflexive journal throughout the course of the inquiry. Janesick (2011) explained for a qualitative researcher, journal writing can “refine” the researcher as the key research instrument in the study (p. 154). It serves as a good way to document the story as it unfolds.

Data Analysis

In qualitative research, a researcher first organizes the data in some appropriate fashion, interprets the data, and reports the discoveries (Stake, 1995). I organized the data in accordance to my research questions, in an excel spreadsheet format. For each participant, I created an excel spreadsheet where I included my interview quotes, observation notes, descriptive codes, and whether the data addressed research question 1, 2, or 3. I modified the chart format I used in a previous disciplinary literacy study described previously in this chapter.

Table 5

An Example of Michelle’s Data in Excel Spreadsheet

Interview Data	Descriptive Codes	Research Question 1, 2, or 3
Grad school history classes helped my theoretical and pedagogical understanding of historical literacy.	College	RQ 2
Um I use a lot of the AP resource materials and released AP questions. Um like that have all the document-based questions that you can go back and obviously, that’s written at their level. Anything, I mean I’ve given them stuff I’ve read it grad school. It’s a little bit harder for them to read—some it’s a stretch, some get it but I think as long, the more they have available to them the stronger they’re going to be.	Materials	RQ 2, RQ 3
Depends on the level. I mean I’ve even gone and done some gender analysis in some of my classes like my higher-level classes I’ve really looked at um the movie you know Deep Throat and whatnot. I wouldn’t do it in your low level readers aren’t able to handle that anyway since their immature but your higher level readers can have conversations. We’ve had you know we’ve read books, pieces of books, there’s a whole book, that we just read a couple of chapters, actually a couple of paragraphs about where the term black came from and you know where the term white came from and you know black always meant a little less than white before we even find black people. So, it depends on the level of the class. I do that with most classes, some classes I pull back just a bit because I don’t think their maturity level is there. Why have the conversation then?	Groups	RQ 3

Since my case study involved three teachers, I first analyzed the cases separately using within-case analysis utilizing descriptive coding (Saldaña, 2009) and then analyzed the three cases using cross-case analysis, specifically pattern coding (Creswell, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009). Once I coded my data using descriptive coding, I transferred my descriptive codes to a word processing document and grouped the codes according to similar descriptive topic. Through reflection on the codes, I was able to create a pattern code, or theme for the grouped descriptive codes. The within-case

and cross-case analysis allowed me to provide a rich description of the case and the themes that emerge from the data (Creswell, 2003).

Within-case analysis. In within-case analysis (Merriam, 2009), each case is considered individually. The purpose of the within-case analysis is to examine all of the data so the researcher can learn as much as possible about each of the cases. In within-case analysis, the researcher describes and explains (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1994) posited data displays, a visual format presenting the information and providing a picture for the reader, helps organize the data during within-case analysis.

Descriptive coding. In the within-case analysis cycle, I examined the data following the guidelines of descriptive coding, which “summarizes in a word or short phrase the basic topic of the passage of qualitative data” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 70). Descriptive coding is appropriate for all types of qualitative research, especially those inquiries with varied data sources (Saldaña, 2009). Wolcott (1994), as cited in Saldaña (2009) noted, “Description is the foundation for qualitative inquiry, and its primary goal is to assist the reader to see what you saw and to hear what you heard” (p. 71). The following is an example of descriptive coding:

Table 6

Descriptive Coding Example from Dissertation Study

<p>GEORGE: I think I have my own unique style and really, I just try to cover the curriculum and I try to present it to them in a way that connects to their lives and the things they find interesting (1). I start with the foundations and scaffold everything else off that—their interests (2) and for me that touches on all of the projects we do (3).</p>	<p>(1) CONNECTIONS (2) RELEVANCE (3) CURRICULUM</p>
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Once I completed my within-case analysis using descriptive coding, I grouped all my similar codes together and constructed themes for each participant. Saldaña (2009) wrote, “A theme is a phrase or sentence that identifies what a unit of data is about and/or what it means” (p. 139). Then I wrote up a narrative describing each participant in my inquiry, before gaining a deeper understanding of my case through cross-case analysis. Below is an example of my thematic coding.

Table 7

Example of Creating Themes from Michelle and George’s Descriptive Codes

Descriptive Code	Descriptive Code
Level	Transferable
Scaffold	Across Curriculum
Advanced	Level
Remedial	Comprehension
Struggle	Vocabulary
Level	Strategies
Group	On Level
Ability	School-wide
High	Graphic Organizers
Low	
Theme: <i>Varied instruction in her class according to the levels of her students</i>	Theme: <i>Implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his history classroom</i>

Cross-case analysis. As a researcher, I wanted to describe Advanced Placement United States History teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy. In order to gain a deeper understanding of my cases, besides as a single case analysis, I employed cross-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña,

2009). Individuals' experiences vary from experience to experience, particularly since each of my participants work with different student populations, and therefore cross-case analysis is an appropriate choice (Patton, 2002). Individuals use cross-case analysis to search for patterns, which emerge across the various individual experiences (Patton, 2002).

Pattern coding. For my cross-case analysis, I reanalyzed the data in depth to “develop a coherent synthesis of the data corpus” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 149). Specifically, I used pattern coding. One of the goals of pattern coding, according to Saldaña (2009), is to develop a theme or themes from the data. The following is an example of pattern coding:

Table 8

Pattern Coding Example from the Dissertation Study

<p>SHAY: I talk about republican motherhood and the women's responsibility back in the 1700s after the Revolutionary War was to teach their children republican virtues (1) and I think even more that's what we should be doing still. Teach them republican virtues, teach them how to be American citizens (2), teaching them where we came from so they can see where we are headed (3).</p>	<p>(1) REPUBLICAN VIRTUES (2) CITIZENSHIP (3) THE PAST</p>
<p>MICHELLE: I think that the main goal is to give them appreciation of US history (4) so that they become dedicated US citizens, one that votes based on “I did some research as opposed to well, this guy looks good (5).”</p>	<p>(4) APPRECIATION (5) CITIZENSHIP</p>
<p>GEORGE: I think it's so important to teach them to be good human beings and citizens (6). If they learn nothing else, if they learn that, I will be happy.</p>	<p>(6) CITIZENS</p>

Pattern Coding Analysis

republican virtues
citizenship
the past
appreciation
citizenship
citizens

Table 8 Continued

Pattern Code Generated: BELIEVED CIVIC EFFICACY WAS THE PURPOSE OF SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNING

Document and artifact analysis. Saldaña (2009) noted descriptive coding is appropriate for documents and artifacts as s a detailed inventory of their contents. This approach allowed me to analyze the data and create a “basic vocabulary of data to form bread and butter categories for further analytic work” (Saldaña, 2009, p. 71).

Ethical Considerations

Trustworthiness. I employed rigorous methods of data collection, analysis, and writing to increase the trustworthiness of my findings. Creswell (2007) discusses various validation strategies that can be employed by the qualitative researcher in order to ensure trustworthiness. I employed the following:

1. Prolonged engagement in the field—I was present in one class per day, five days a week, for two units of study per study participant.
2. Triangulation of data—I used a variety of data sources in my inquiry, specifically I conducted interviews, observed the study participants as they taught, and analyzed classroom documents and artifacts and each participant’s conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher. These various data sources allowed me to cross-examine my findings.
3. Peer review—I used a peer reviewer to debrief my notes and ask me questions about my data collection and methodology.
4. Clarify researcher bias—I stated my personal background so the reader understands my position and beliefs.

5. Member checking—I sent my participants their interview transcripts after I interviewed them to review for accuracy.
6. Rich and thick description—I provided in detail the setting of the study.
7. Methodological triangulation—I used more than one method of data collection in my inquiry. I observed class periods and took non-participant observation notes, interviewed each teacher twice, and kept a researcher reflexive journal.

Peer reviewer. I utilized a peer reviewer in order to limit biases and increase the trustworthiness of my discoveries (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). The purpose of a peer reviewer is to ensure the discoveries are plausible (Merriam, 2009). Samantha (a pseudonym), my peer reviewer, is a doctoral candidate in special education at the university. As a doctoral student, she studied Qualitative Research I and Qualitative Research II. She gained experience coding data in Qualitative Research II and in conducting her own dissertation study. We met to talk about my methodology and data collection throughout the semester. I showed her my codes and she reviewed them after I finished observing each teacher.

Confidentiality. I stored classroom documents and artifacts, interview transcripts, and non-participant observation notes on my locked and password-protected computer. Any paper files were housed in a locked filing cabinet at my house. They will remain in my locked filing cabinet for five years and then shredded.

Summary

I conducted research in one large, urban school district in a southeastern state. I investigated the discipline-specific instructional knowledge, beliefs and practices of three

Advanced Placement United States History teachers. I focused on how their knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their literacy instruction in the history classroom. In order to gain insight and a deep understanding, I observed one class session per day per teacher for two units of study, conducted two interviews for each of the three participants, asked them each to fill out a conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher and collected and analyzed classroom artifacts and documents. I kept a researcher reflexive journal. In order to analyze data on this descriptive case study, I utilized descriptive coding for my within-case analysis and pattern coding for my cross-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994, Saldaña, 2009).

Chapter Four: Discoveries

I think constant awareness on both sides for students and teachers [is needed]. Not only on what's going on in the text but what's going on in their heads and what's going on in my head as the teacher. Because that interaction is what really drives a history course and the way they interact with the text, the way they interact with me, the way I interact with the text and it goes back to all those biases and prejudices, identifying what's relevant and for me that's really what drives it and has to be done. –George

I limited my research to three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers in a school district in a southeastern state. In qualitative studies, it is acceptable to have a small number of participants in order to obtain thick and rich data from each participant (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002). I observed each teacher for three to four weeks of time. I watched each teacher instruct his or her students during two units of study. For this reason, I decided to conduct a descriptive case study. Using a descriptive case study, allowed me to illustrate an in-depth understanding of the beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy of my three Advanced Placement United States History teachers.

In this chapter, I provide a brief background of my participants. I present descriptions and interpretations of my discoveries. Within these descriptions and interpretations, I tie specific quotes and themes back to relevant literature from teacher education, history education, and literacy education. I utilize direct quotes from each participant, which are typed in arial font, and I include my observations and reflexive thoughts, from my journal in times new roman italics. In the first section of the chapter, I

provide within-case analysis of each participant. I provide my analysis of the interview transcripts, the conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher, the classroom observations, and documents/artifacts. I offer discoveries, in the form of themes, about the participants' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy and how those knowledge and beliefs influence their instructional choices in the classroom. In the final segment of the chapter, I organize the information into themes from my cross-case analysis. Seven interconnections occurred. All three teachers 1) believed in student-centered classrooms as the best pedagogical choice, 2) utilized document analysis in the history classroom, 3) established communities of learning in the classroom, 4) believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies instruction, 5) utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom, 6) apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre, and 7) varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students. Two differences among participants also emerged. All three teachers 1) exhibited varying levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy, which influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom, and 2) demonstrated varying understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy. According to Mathison (2004) cross case analysis is "an analysis that examines themes, similarities, and differences across cases" (p. 94).

During the spring semester of 2013, I investigated three Advanced Placement United States History teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in their classrooms. The following questions guided my inquiry:

1. What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?

2. In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?
3. In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their instruction?

Within-Case Analysis of the Three Advanced Placement United States History

Teachers

In this investigation, I examined three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in their history classrooms. I separate my within-case analysis into separate cases detailing the experiences of each participant.

Case One: Shay

Background information on Shay. Shay was in his fourth year teaching Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) and had taught at his current school for five years. This was his sixth year of teaching. He is from the Midwest. Shay has a bachelor's degree in secondary education with a focus in social studies, specifically political science, economics, and U.S. History. According to Shay, at his university:

You had to take 18 credit hours of history, 12 credit hours of economics, and 12 credit hours of political science or other social sciences. I wanted to focus more on U.S. History so I kind of varied. I took one class that was about the 1950s, then I took a class about American diplomacy post-World War II, and I took a class about unions. So, I took many classes covering many topics in U.S. History and I think it's really helped me in teaching this class knowing the information.

As I walked into Shay's classroom, I saw a room filled with historical images. On the far right wall was a set of pictures of former students called the "Wall of Fame." Each student wears a dress shirt and tie and is posed in front of an American flag. Shay explained to me the Wall of Fame contains pictures of all nine students from his class that scored a five on the AP United States History exam, the highest score possible. On another wall, there were pictures of the presidents and posters of early city life and factory life in the late 1800s. On the front wall, newspaper clippings from significant events in history such as Nixon's Resignation remind students and visitors about turning points in American history. Shay also displayed a Constitutional poster set in his room. On the back wall, under an American flag, there were two newspaper pieces about the World Trade Center and September 11th, 2001. The desks, for most of my time in his class, were arranged in small group formats with five to six students sitting in each group. This classroom set up is indicative of his student-centered teaching philosophy.

From my reflexive journal: Shay has been a willing participant in my study since our initial contact. Indeed, Shay expressed his interest in my study because it is "right up his alley" and he noted his interest in literacy by explaining he has "a lot of beliefs about literacy instruction." I am anxious to hear about those beliefs and see if and how his beliefs about literacy instruction translate over to classroom practice.

In this case study, I report on Shay's beliefs, knowledge, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in his Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) classroom during two units of instruction. The findings of this study expand upon the ways in which we think about discipline-specific literacy pedagogy in the

content-area classroom, specifically in a classroom where the teacher received no formal literacy training in college.

Shay's within-case themes. In the next section, I present three themes that represent what Shay knows and believes about disciplinary literacy pedagogy and how his knowledge and beliefs influence his disciplinary literacy instruction in the history classroom. I read the data multiple times and categorized the data into chunks based on my research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I offer direct quotes from Shay to reveal his understanding of disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

Theme one: Shay implemented historical thinking skills and strategies into his classroom instruction. Shay addressed various “historical thinking skills and strategies” in his classroom on a regular basis. On his concept map, Shay identified various skills he believed students need to be able to do in an APUSH class; those skills included the “analysis of primary sources and using the analysis with their outside information to support a thesis.” Both in and out of class, he used what he defined as “reading strategies” in addition to historical thinking skills and strategies to prepare the students for a writing activity in class, either a reading check, to use as outside information or background knowledge on a Free-Response Question (FRQ) or a Document-Based Question (DBQ) essay, or as a reference for reading check or gallery walk question. Within this theme, Shay had his students utilize various historical thinking skills or strategies as part of their reading preparation for writing either a Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay or a Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay.

Shay emphasized various historical thinking skills and strategies as a way to help his students read the text and then as a method to prepare his students to write either an

essay in class or a short response for a reading check. What is interesting to note is that when I asked him about which specific historical thinking skills he employed in the classroom, he said he did not teach any of them in class. However, after conducting observations, analyzing his directions to the class, and examining interview transcripts and his concept map, I discovered he utilized three historical thinking skills in class. The three historical thinking skills and strategies he addressed in class were:

1. Identified the importance of historical people, places, and events
2. Encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence
3. Contextualized historical documents

Subtheme one: Shay identified the importance of historical people, places, and events. A subtheme that emerged from the theme historical thinking skills and strategies was the concept of historical significance or what Shay defined as “identifying importance”. Shay believed one of the main discipline-specific, historical thinking, literacy skills his students needed to know was identifying importance (e.g., people, places, events) otherwise known as historical significance in the literature (Seixas, 2006). This was evident in both his interview and his classroom observations. Shay focused on this historical thinking concept through the use of reading strategies specifically guided readings, reading checks, and gallery walks.

Shay noted the biggest challenge he faced was “teaching them [his students] to be efficient when they are reading [and] teaching them how to figure out what’s important [in the text].” Shay explained the strategies he implemented in class are specifically targeting the idea of identifying important information in the text. He said if students are

not taught this concept, they tend to overlook significant individuals, events, or places in history. Shay said:

The biggest thing they need is to figure out in the text what's important. You know instead of...I've looked at some of their notebooks and they'll literally write entire paragraphs from the text into their notes and in college that's not going to be sufficient. You're going to waste a lot of time. So they need the skill of identifying what's important and leaving you know the minor stuff. That's a literacy skill they need.

Shay taught identifying importance to his class through multiple in-class and out-of-class activities. Each chapter, he assigned what he called a "Guided Reading" packet, which was "designed to help students read the chapter and take notes, pulling out the key information from the text".

Shay noted:

The guided reading is used to help students read the chapter and take notes. The AP U.S. textbook is very complex with a lot of information. If I were to throw the book at them and say, take your own notes, they would be lost, or they would write down everything...importance be damned. So, my guided reading (sometimes referred to as an outline) is just a list of questions students should answer that will prepare them for my assessments and the AP Exam. Some questions are very straightforward. "Who was Boss Tweed?" Some questions are a little more complex.... "Explain the role of city machines on Americanizing immigrants." One

answer is very short. “Boss Tweed was the political boss of Tammany Hall.”

One answer is a little longer. “City machines played the role of providing immigrants for jobs, food, and money; they also taught immigrants about the democratic processes; all of this was done in exchange for their votes.” Something like that. I have learned that without guides, students will look over someone like Boss Tweed because they don’t think he’s important because he’s not a household American History name. By doing these guides, students are learning important names for my assessments as well as the AP Exam.

Shay highlighted this skill of ‘identifying importance’ again during another observation. In this particular observation, the class completed a reading check—another reading strategy Shay implemented in his class quite frequently. The purpose of the reading check was to ensure the students were reading the material and completing the reading guides. He once again brought the class’ attention to the important pieces of information in the text and how these particular events or people in history pose lasting historical significance. The class answered one question for the reading check. They could use their notes from the reading guide. Once the reading check was complete, Shay held a discussion with his class, addressing the significance of the topics he chose for the reading check.

From my notes: Today, the students are completing a reading check on material they read about the age of the city. Shay asks the question: “Characterize movies and its impact.” Many of the students finish quickly; only a few take longer than 5 minutes to

*answer the reading check prompt. Once the students finished the reading check, Shay displayed an organizational map from the two sections on the board. The organizational map is another way Shay brings their attention to the key pieces of information from the readings. Because the students were asked a question about the movies, Shay first focuses his discussion on the leisure during the late 1800s/early 1900s specifically identifying key information about movies (e.g., “D.W. Griffith’s *The Birth of a Nation* (1915), one of the most racist films of all times comes out during this time period,” and “Movies were the most important form of mass entertainment and were highly popular with all classes and reached all parts of the country”), sports (“Baseball was the most popular sport followed by football,” and Teddy Roosevelt creates the NCAA to make rules and equipment because of football’s violence”). He then, through discussion and questioning, has the students help him identify important information about mass consumption, yellow journalism, and political machines.*

He also makes connections to what they are talking about to current examples in society and talks about the significance of these particular events, people, place, or things in the long term. The discussion centers on the question: How are these particular leisure concepts still significant today? He concludes the class urging the students to spend the rest of class discussing the concepts they are still unclear about as a way to prepare for the quiz tomorrow.

During one of my observations, I saw Shay enact another reading strategy he used to stress identifying importance and summarization—the gallery walk.

From my notes: The students just finished reading section 18.1 on the age of the city. Today’s class is focused on this section of text and the students are completing a

gallery walk around the room. The gallery walk is designed to force students to synthesize information—a strategy for reading historical texts— from the text and pull out the key points from the reading to answer questions about the text. The purpose is not to write down any piece of information but to confer with your group to write down the most important piece of information about the topic. Shay divided the class into six groups and reminds the students that they are moving from station to station writing down the most salient details from the text. He also reminds them not to be an “information hog” and write down everything you remember from the section. The students cannot use their notes from the guided reading packets, but they can take the guided reading questions with them to help facilitate conversation.

The students are rotating around the stations, talking in their small groups about the question that is asked, and deciding, as a group, the best response write to answer the question. Shay is walking around the class, checking responses, answering questions, and giving them additional information to think about if they are stuck. He reminds the students that they “cannot write the same thing that the other group wrote down—they have to address a new aspect.” Once the students rotate to all stations and are back at their original starting point, the groups construct a summary of the key points that will be read to the class. As each group read their summary aloud, Shay pointed out key information and emphasized certain points they need to know for the quiz, test, and AP Exam. The students seem to enjoy this gallery walk activity. They are actively discussing the content of the text, and some groups are even debating what they believe is the most important piece of information they should write down to answer they question. The

students are also talking about the long-term significance of the events and people from this particular section of the text.

This notion of identifying what is important or significant in the text is a historical thinking concept. In the illustration above about Boss Tweed, Shay noted the students typically would not pay attention to Boss Tweed because he “is not a common household name in American history.” However, if directed to look at the significance or importance of Boss Tweed in American history, one can see that he plays a large role in the development of the labor movement in the United States as well as the long-term development of New York City. In the movies example, Shay is once again reinforcing how the simple concept of “the movies” has a lasting effect on the American culture.

Seixas and Peck (2004) noted:

Significant events and people may be those that have the greatest impact on people and our environment over the longest period of time. “Significance” is about a relationship not only among events and people of the past, but also about the relationship of those events and people to us, in the present, who are doing the historical thinking. (p. 111)

Seixas (2006a) concluded there are two aspects of significance:

- (1) Resulting in change (e.g., the event/person/development had deep consequences, for many people, over a long period of time) and
- (2) Revealing (e.g., the event/person/development sheds light on enduring or emerging issues in history and contemporary life or was important at some stage in history within the collective memory of a group or groups). (p. 3)

For someone or something to be considered significant does not mean both criteria have to be met. In the Boss Tweed example, his significance in history resulted in long term change for both the city of New York and for the development of the labor movement, thus having deep consequences for a large group of people over time. In the movies example, the movie D. W. Griffith's *The Birth of a Nation* (1915) sheds light on the enduring issue of racism in America, especially directly after the Civil War.

Subtheme two: Shay encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence. Another subtheme from the larger theme of “implemented historical thinking skills and strategies into his classroom instruction” is “encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence.” Shay had his students write quite frequently in class either composing Free-Response Questions (FRQ) Essays or Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essays. Each time he assigned an essay in class, he reminded his class to “use primary sources as evidence” in their essay response.

From my notes: Today, the students are working on a Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay in class today using Jacob Riis's text, How the Other Half Lives (1890). They are answering text-dependent questions about the Riis text, and then putting their answers into essay form. After handing out the document and putting it into its historical context, Shay gives his directions to the class:

Make sure you are talking to your partner and you are bouncing ideas off your partner to help you answer the questions. You might learn a different perspective. You are writing a short essay—six to eight sentences, a healthy paragraph for each response. Make sure you provide evidence-supporting evidence in your essay. Do not put something like this “Riis describes life in the tenements as

crap.” No crap, the book tells us that. Provide detailed evidence about the text in your answer.

The students read and Shay circles around the room as they read. Conversation levels pick up as the students finish reading and start discussing. I see Shay walk over to a pair of students and ask them, “What have you come up with for question one?” One of the students provides an answer, and Shay says, “Did you find that evidence in the text?” The student shakes his head no. At this point, Shay reminds the class again to use evidence from the text. He says, “Once again as a reminder, you should be discussing these questions with your partner and providing examples from the text to support your answer.” This statement is reiterated throughout the class period. He tells them that on the AP Exam, and the FRQ, they must use evidence to support their answer. “There is no right or wrong answer guys, they want to see if you can use the text as evidence to support your answer,” he once again states at the end of class.

Today, the students have already prepped the primary sources for the DBQ earlier in the year. Today in class, they are answering the question: “In the early 19th century, Americans sought to resolve their political disputes through compromise, yet by 1860 this no longer seemed possible. Analyze the reason for this change.” They are writing their response to the question using the SOPs from earlier in the year. The students are not able to work together on the writing however, they were able to work together to prep the sources.

Prior to instructing the students to start writing, Shay reminded them about some key points from the DBQ handout he gave them at the start of the year. He said, “A strong thesis statement at many times can be found in the question. Try to use the majority of the

documents in your response.” The students worked quietly in class and wrote for about 45 minutes of class time. The prep sheet allowed them to immediately start writing, as they already knew which documents they were going to use in their essay. After class, Shay explained to me that the students write roughly 7-8 essays, citing primary source evidence in each, throughout the year and break down 10 DBQs to help them prepare for college and for the AP Exam.

In his first interview, Shay said he enjoyed synthesizing information gleaned from multiple sources and constructing an assertion. Shay equated this task to one of a “detective,” something that he felt was “exciting” because he was able to “pull information from each source and then put it into a paper.” Shay explained his thoughts about document analysis, synthesizing information from multiple sources, and using those documents to write a DBQ. He said:

It’s kind of like you’ve got a mixing bowl. What’s the document telling me, you throw that into the mixing bowl. What can I add to it to mix it up and then kind of put that into a coherent thought on paper.

Primary source evidence—texts from the past (e.g., letters, books, records, photographs, audio recordings, newspaper accounts, drawings, etc.) are considered treasures to those who study the past. As noted by Seixas (2006a), “Primary sources may reveal information about the (conscious) purposes of the author as well as the (unconscious) values and worldview of the author” (p. 5). Historical thinking, as explained by the National History Education Clearinghouse (2012) involves “learning how to read, question, contextualize, and analyze these [primary] sources” (n.p.) in order to construct a historical narrative. Historical narratives cannot be called historical

narratives unless they are supported by evidence from primary and secondary source documents. Without evidence, historical narratives simply become stories, works of fiction about a particular event, person, or time-period.

Subtheme three: Shay contextualized historical documents in class instruction.

The final subtheme from the larger theme of “implemented historical thinking skills and strategies into his classroom instruction” is “contextualized historical documents in class instruction.” Shay acknowledged the importance of putting the documents in their particular context and reminded the students, through activating their prior knowledge, about the importance of contextualization. Often times when he introduced primary source documents in class, he would briefly contextualize the documents for the students.

From my notes: In today’s class, Shay’s students were working on a Free-Response Question (FRQ) using an excerpt from Jacob Riis (1890) How the Other Half Lives text on the tenement living conditions in New York City in the late 19th century. Unlike a Document-Based Question (DBQ) where students are looking across multiple sources, the students are looking at one text and answering a set of questions about the text using that one source. The questions are text-dependent questions, something the authors of the Common Core encourage students to use in the classroom. Prior to directing the students to read the text, Shay put the document into its proper context. He asked the students to look at the date the document was written and to recall specific information about that time-period in American History.

He reminded the students about the Industrial Revolution and how individuals were moving from the rural areas to the cities at this point in history. He also reminded them that many immigrants, such as Jacob Riis, were also coming to cities such as New

York City to find work. Thus, cities were overcrowded and filthy. He also pointed out the picture on the first page of the document as a means of contextualizing the excerpt from Riis' How the Other Half Lives (1890).

As I sat and watched him introduce the excerpt to the class, I began to wonder to what extent do we contextualize primary and secondary source documents and is there a certain amount of contextualization needed? If I were teaching this piece to my students, how would I contextualize this situation? Would I introduce tenement living conditions in New York City in the late 19th century with a piece of video about the slums or even bring in additional photographs? Are the students truly putting the document into the proper context when they are reading or are they still looking at it from a 21st century perspective? I am interested to see what he does with this information tomorrow. He mentioned showing a video so I wonder if it will help with their contextualization of the time- period and conditions in the slums?

*From my reflexive journal: After class, I continued to think about what is appropriate, in regards to text, for teachers to use to contextualize historical events. I'm thinking back to a conversation that occurred in class last week when Shay was talking about movies and leisure. The movie *The Birth of the Nation* was brought up. According to the Library of Congress, the movie is deemed historically, culturally, and aesthetically significant. I remember reading that recently after the movie came up in class. It is mentioned in the textbook, and it is a reflection of how some people felt in the South after the Civil War. However, is it appropriate to show the class to put the time-period into context? I don't think it is. I would not show that movie to my students. But that makes me think back to when I was in a film and television class in high school. We watched *The**

Birth of a Nation in that class. I remember it specifically. I would not show that movie to my students, it is far too racist and not appropriate for the classroom. That being said, I wonder what movie he is planning on showing tomorrow and how it will help contextualize this time-period for the students.

There were also missed opportunities to contextualize information in class.

From my notes: Today Shay showed a video from the History Channel called “Cities.” Shay handed out a sheet of questions to the students and they watched the video the entire class period, filling out the worksheet. The video took up the entire class period. The students seemed to enjoy watching the video—especially the part where the narrator described building skyscrapers and the dangers workers faced every day on the skyscraper frames.

After class, I asked Shay what was the purpose to show the video to the class. He explained, “It was partly a review of concepts that they have already seen such as the Industrial Revolution, Jacob Riis, and tenement housing. It also served as a means of introducing them to concepts that we will start exploring in the next few days such as the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory. I plan to find a couple primary sources about the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory and another factory disaster and have the students compare and contrast the sources within the next few weeks.”

From my reflexive journal: I walked into class today and found that Shay was showing the students a video from the History Channel called “Cities.” Jacob Riis is featured in the video however Shay does not stop the video to talk at all about the reading from yesterday and the images shown on the screen today. I think this was an opportunity to really contextualize the information for the students. Connections could have been

made and a discussion about the city life in New York, especially in the tenements could have happened.

I was a bit disappointed to see Shay just sitting in the back of the room, working on grading papers, while this opportunity to contextualize city life passed by. I wonder why he did not stop the video and make a point to talk about the pictures we just saw on the screen? I recognize this is part of my bias here, especially towards historical literacy concepts and strategies. Because I think contextualization is so important, I would have stopped the tape to talk about the pictures we saw. Some of them were horribly sad—babies and children in filth, over crowdedness, people sitting on top of each other, squashed into the rooms in these tenement houses like sardines in a can, human waste on the floor and on the street. I can only imagine how bad it smelled—like the sewage treatment plant by my house 1 million times over!

Reisman and Wineburg (2008) noted contextualization or the “act of placing events in a proper context” (p. 202) gives teachers an opportunity to create a rich description of a historical time-period. Essentially, when you contextualize, you are putting the text (e.g., document, visual, audio, etc) into its place and time.

Contextualization is required to write a historical narrative (VanSledright, 2011). It is a difficult process because students tend to judge historical actors they are studying using contemporary morals and values instead of thinking about the historical actors in their proper context (VanSledright, 2011). Unless the context is created for students, history becomes, once again, a disconnected discipline to students, one that “dwells in the shadows of an ever-more vibrant present” (Reisman & Wineburg, 2008, p. 206).

Anthony and Miller (2013) postulated one way to make “social studies instruction more rigorous, more student focused, and more authentic” is to develop students’ historical thinking capabilities (n.p.) by incorporating primary sources into classroom instruction. This enables teachers to teach the detailed study of a historical event. While examining a historical event, students will also utilize the other historical thinking skills and strategies Shay taught his students—contextualization (e.g., What else is going on in the world? What time-period are we looking at here?) and historical significance (How did this event result in great change over long periods of time for a large number of people?). Thus, as Wineburg (2005) proclaimed, “Historical thinking is a powerful form of literacy that has the potential to teach us about text in ways that no other area of school curriculum can offer” (p. 662).

Theme two: Shay acquired beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy during his college preparation. The theme “acquired beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy during his college preparation” became apparent in Shay’s initial interview, which required him to answer questions about his own experiences in school, his experiences in historiography, and how those experiences influenced his teaching of United States History. College was the main place Shay learned about teaching discipline-specific practices. He said, “The main place I acquired knowledge was at college. Indiana University, in my opinion, was ahead of the curve as far as guided readings, and group analysis of documents/sources.” Shay was quick to admit he was unfamiliar with the term “disciplinary literacy” because it was not a topic of discussion in his college education courses. However, he offered a definition:

Teaching literacy within your subject area. Disciplinary literacy is teaching them how to better read a history book or better read a math book or a English book. I think disciplinary literacy is teaching them how to—okay this is my history book and this is what I have to look for. Is it something like that?

When I probed further, Shay stated, “I think it’s great [to teach discipline-specific practices in the classroom]. I think students need to learn how to go back and forth between multiple sources.” He explained the importance of teaching discipline-specific practices, in the classroom because his role is in part, to get them prepared for college:

And again that what I try to do in my class is to teach them how to write like they’re a history major because some of them will go and take history and I’d like think what I’m doing gets them prepared for college and writing history and I would like to think AP Lang[uage] is teaching them to write for their English class and math and science are doing the same thing. I think that’s great teaching them how to write different ways because you never know to write different ways cause you never know which is going to come in handy for them when they get to college. I absolutely think students need to learn how to you know go back and forth between the multiple sources. I think it’s good for them because that’s what they are going to do in college. In college, they want you to use multiple sources and I’m trying to teach that to my students.

It was during college that Shay was also exposed to other sources of text (e.g., unofficial histories) other than the social studies textbook. While he was exposed to these

other texts and strongly believed students should be introduced to the “official” history and other non-mainstream historical viewpoints, he was hesitant to incorporate some of them into his own instruction. He explained:

I would like to. But to me, you know, it’s a slippery slope. A couple of years ago I had students read Howard Zinn [author of *A People’s History of the United States*] because I had to read Howard Zinn in college. He presents an entirely different side of history and I enjoyed that. I ate that stuff up. Down here, you know Zinn is very liberal. You can even see that in his writing how liberal he is and I never, no parent ever emailed me, how dare you make my student read this liberal garbage or whatever but you know it’s a possibility. That’s the slippery slope and I don’t want to get in trouble, I don’t want to make the news.

Would I like to incorporate Zinn in my class? Absolutely. Because to me what better way to compare and contrast history than looking at Zinn and looking at what was approved in the state of [Identifying Reference]. You know I don’t want to ruffle feathers. I just kind of go with the flow, teaching out of this book, and I’ve mentioned Zinn a few times and if they are [the students] really interested in learning about history they can pick it [Zinn] up on their own.

The assignments he gave to his students were a reflection of his college experience. He noted:

In college, it was a lot of independent reading, it was a lot of listening to the professor um just kind of tell stories about what he's learned, what he knows. And you know in college everything was written. It was all essays.

In particular, Shay implemented guided reading and reading checks, two strategies he learned in his undergraduate education courses. The students read the textbook outside of class and complete the guided readings, emulating Shay's own college experience. He also has his students complete at least one Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay or one Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay per unit much like he had to complete in college.

Both in class and in his initial interview, he specifically mentioned two tests he learned about in college: the Subject, Occasion, Audience, Purpose, and Significance (SOAPS) test and the Currency, Reliability, Authority, and Purpose/Point of View (CRAP) test. He said:

The professors would sit there and say, 'Is this source credible?' Cause you can find anything anywhere especially with the Internet anymore. You can find anything anywhere. Well [investigate] the credibility—'Who was the author?' [You need to] research who the author is. 'Is it this some guy?' 'Is it a professor?' 'Is it some guy whose earned his doctorate degree in you know what you're looking at?' 'Or is it just some guy who is you know sitting at home and adds stuff to Wikipedia that he thinks is important?'

In his classroom, Shay implemented a version of the SOAPS test, that he's modified over the years to due to AP exam preparation as his main strategy to prep students in using primary sources as evidence. Shay explained:

I have modified this [SOAPS] throughout the year to SOP (Subject, Occasion, Purpose/Point of View). The reason I have done this is for the AP exam prep. On the exam, students get 15 minutes to analyze all of the documents for the DBQ and there isn't enough time to do a SOAPS for every document. It is my belief that subject, occasion, and purpose are the three best ways to analyze the document—they should be able to get quality information out of the sources using just these three. Students will compare and contrast the sources. It is just another way to analyze documents and it is a skill needed when reviewing sources for a research paper in college.

From my notes: Today's class involved students working on a SOP for a set of sources. They are not using the sources to write an actual DBQ, however they are practicing prepping sources like they would on the AP Exam. Shay handed out an old DBQ packet—actual question and primary sources from the AP Exam. He told me he uses the released documents and questions from The College Board organization as a means of preparing his students for the test. The students worked in groups completing the SOP (subject, occasion, purpose/point of view) and Shay circulated around the classroom helping the students when they had a question or got stuck. He also talked to students about their background knowledge or what he calls "outside information".

The students actively conversed with one another and spent time looking at each document (there are 9 provided) before deciding which ones they want to prep. Shay did not tell them which ones to prep—he reminded them at the start of class that all the documents are relevant—why else would they be included in the packet if they were not?—And that it is their choice in what documents they use. The key, he said, is to be able to make an argument and cite evidence in the documents chosen to back your claim. After class, Shay and I talked briefly about the activity. He reiterated that this process-teaching them a SOP is helpful not only for the AP Exam but also for writing papers in college. The students, he said, needs to be able to look at a number of documents and figure out which ones they are going to use for their college history research papers

Shay said he believes students need a certain skill set after graduating from a high school and this skill set was something he learned in college. He noted:

To me it's research, the whole document analysis. Going through 10 documents and of these 10 which of these four or five best help you answer this question. Which one has the best information you can use? Another skill set is thesis writing and defending the thesis. There are many times early on in the school year when I have to tell students this isn't a creative writing class and they want to have these very elaborate attention getters that wouldn't really impress a history professor or poli[tical] sci[ence] professor or an economics professor. I kind of tell them that history professors are more to the point, tell me what happened. Don't make it all cute and bubbly.

Shay teaches his students this skill set throughout the year. He has the students engage in document analysis multiple times throughout each unit and early on in the school year, he teaches the students how to write a thesis statement. He explained that he models the writing process of the students:

What we do, I call it a Columbus prompt and I put a prompt up on the board and it's the first week of school and I say, "Write me an introduction for this." So I let the students have at it and then I have my own Columbus prompt that I've typed up. I don't tell them I did it, I tell them it's from another student and I put it on the board and we sit and critique it. I say, "What do you think of this one?" And for the most part the consensus is what's on the board—what the student did is really good. I forgot to say at the same time I have them critique each others papers so they kind of peer review that way their peers can say, "Well, you know up on the board the thesis is very clear and three points are going to be covered whereas you've got a thesis where there is something at the top, something in the middle, there is something in the bottom. Take all three and combine them into something.

Shay has acquired what Shulman (1986) called pedagogical content knowledge "which goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter for teaching" (p. 9) as evidenced by classroom observations. He has an understanding, and puts into practice, the "ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others" (Shulman, 1986, p. 9). He essentially talks with his students about their understanding of the content, rather than talking at them

(Shulman, 2000). In doing so, he ensures his students do not have an illusory understanding of the content (Shulman, 2000); instead, they have a deeper understanding on the historical content.

Theme three: Shay utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction.

Shay has a laid back teaching style he has his students work in collaborative groups. His teaching style, he acknowledged, was a reflection of his own high school history class and college history classes. In part, this is how he teaches the investigative process of history. The theme “utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction” was evident in his interview transcripts and classroom observations. He had:

A high school teacher, he was very laid back. On occasion, he would put some notes on the board and for the most part he would talk history with us and I try to do the same thing. I don't think I've put any notes of the board this year with the exception of the exam review that we had to do. For the most part, it's [my classroom] a lot of group work and I go station to station and somewhat interact with them. I take a very hands off approach, let the students figure the stuff out and I'm always there as a safety net. If you have a question, if there's a dispute in your group, you know ask me. I do find that when students can discuss it with one another they seem to understand it a little bit better.

This was something I saw in my observation of Shay's class the previous fall.

From my notes: The students are working in small groups evaluating primary source documents to help them answer a Document-Based Question (DBQ) and Shay is walking around the room assisting the students with their interpretations. He reminds me

of my own style of teaching, one that is very laid back and where the students and I are constructing knowledge together through our discussions. The students are working to prep all nine of the primary source documents in front of them and labeling them as either nationalism or sectionalism in accordance to the question prompt. Shay is continuing to walk around and facilitating discussions about prior knowledge the time-period, the documents, and authors. He is also asking probing questions to get them to think more in depth about the “Era of Good Feelings”, which is the topic of the prompt.

Shay also acknowledged that his college classes in the college of education influenced his teaching style. He said:

You know anymore in college they sat there and preached guided reading, you know teachers take a hands off approach and I’m finding as far as my pedagogy and especially with what the county wants us to do now as far as everything is student led.

His style of teaching was also reflected in the classroom activities he thought were essential to keep students interested in history. Shay believed students needed to be able to discuss historical events and draw parallels from one event to another. He noted:

You can make parallels to the Great Depression and the stock market crash and compare that to what happened in 2006 because they are eerily similar. So you know having discussions, small group or whole class discussions; you got to make it relevant to the students to make it more interesting for them because they don’t care what happened in the 1930s because their parents weren’t even born then. In fact, their grandparents might not have been born then. So trying to make it relevant [is key].

Within this theme of collaborative groups, Shay believed one of the best ways to do this was through group work where students investigated historical events. He said, “[I] let them work in groups, let them discuss readings, let them you know, give them, give the group a set of questions and let them debate about what is the author trying to say.” This practice was evident during two of my observations where the students were examining multiple primary source documents.

From my notes: The students were given two primary source documents—Ida Tarbell’s (1904) The History of the Standard Oil Company and Henry Demarest Lloyd’s (1881) Monopoly on the March, a small excerpt from the larger article Story of a Great Monopoly. Shay instructed the students to read each of the primary sources, using SOP (subject, occasion, and purpose) and compare and contrast the sources. He told them to identify the author of the document, look at each document and corroborate across them, essentially completing a document analysis for each source. The students completed the SOP test for each document and discussed the documents in small groups. After class, Shay explained to me that the activity allows the students to continue to “build upon their skills developed earlier in the year in preparation for the AP Exam.”

From my notes: Today’s class is on DBQ prep. The students have 10 documents in front of them and they are prepping the documents so they can write later on. Shay wants them to focus on the classification of documents—either as effective or ineffective documents and government or reformer-geared documents. In groups, the students are analyzing the documents. They are writing down ‘document information’ and ‘outside information’ and then as a class, debating which documents are effective or ineffective and government or reformer for the argument they are going to make. Shay provides an

example thesis statement on the board answering the DBQ prompt. While the students are not writing today, he wanted them to go ahead and start thinking about the thesis statement and how to craft one for this particular question being asked. At the end of class, Shay reminds the class that when it comes to writing a thesis statement, not to “stand on the fence. Take a stand and defend your argument.”

Barton and Levstik (2003) noted students need to be able to investigate the past, form their own questions, analyze and interpret primary and secondary sources, and essentially “participate in their own interpretative, evidenced-based inquiry” (p. 358). Although many teachers consider this best practice, they do not all teach like Shay. Why is that? Barton and Levstik (2003) point out that research suggests teachers are concerned with two main tasks: classroom management and covering as much content as possible. This mode of teaching, where students are investigating and drawing conclusions for themselves, takes time and established procedures. Thus, “it will always take a back seat to coverage of the textbook or curriculum content” (Barton & Levstik, 2003, p. 359). Shay even voiced his frustration with the sheer amount of content required in the curriculum. He said:

I like the curriculum that in AP US, social, political, economics is what we are supposed to cover and I absolutely love that. If I could change the curriculum, I would shorten it. I would find some sort of cut off point because history is only getting longer you know and we still have to start the year with who populated the Americas. Well you know when you have to teach who populated the Americas through President Obama’s term, well twenty years ago you only had to teach through Reagan’s and who

populated the Americas through Reagan. Now you have to teach who populated the Americas through Obama. I wouldn't change what the curriculum asks for; I would change how much of it we have to cover.

As evidenced by his practices in the classroom, Shay encouraged his students to interpret and evaluate sources, and work together in groups to construct meaning. His practices reflected what Bain (2005) noted in regards to learning environment--"history teachers need to design student-, content-, and assessment-centered learning environments to support students' historical study" (p. 206).

Shay said he became an educator because he:

Likes seeing the light bulbs go off [in his students' heads]. I enjoy seeing the progress of student writing. You'll have some essays at the beginning of the year that are just awful but you take your time, you grade them, you know it takes me a week to grade essays because I like to put constructive criticism. I always enjoy watching progress. I think that is why I went into education. I like to see the progress in young people.

Case Two: Michelle

Background information on Michelle. Michelle was in her tenth year teaching Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) and has taught at her current school for 16 years. She is a native to the area. Michelle has a master's degree in social science education. Michelle has a laid back teaching style and a student-centered classroom. Her teaching style, she acknowledged, is influenced by both her own experience in Advanced Placement United States History and her experience at the university.

She noted:

It [my experience in APUSH] probably showed me what not to do. It was more lecture as opposed to getting the students actively involved in the material. I learned a lot of cool details and I learned how to tell a story but I don't know that it was influential. I liked the teacher but I don't think he was effective at all.

She continued to explain:

I say all the time this evaluation system we're under in [Identifying Reference] County, people struggle with it but it's really not an issue with me because I learned all of that in [Dr. Cruz] methods class. Like how to teach. This is how you deliver information.

As I walked into Michelle's classroom, I saw a room with student work hanging from the clothespins and string stretched across the ceiling. Michelle had pictures of former students posted around her desk and filing cabinet area. Student work hung on the walls, projects from her World and U.S. History classes. At the front of the classroom was a white board where she writes the daily bell work. Next to the white board was a set of U.S. and world maps. Michelle conducted class from the front of the room; she sat in a green swivel chair and led her class in discussions about the material. The desks were in rows with an aisle down the middle of the classroom. The students faced each other across the main dividing aisle. The set up of the class allowed for student debate and active involvement in class discussions. Getting the students actively involved in the class was something I saw in my observation of Michelle's class the previous fall.

From my notes: The students are talking about the most successful reform movement of the 1840s. While Michelle is taking them through a graphic organizer and

relaying information to the class, she is not lecturing to the students. Instead, the students are actively engaged in open dialogue and allowed, even encouraged, to challenge each other's responses to the essential question: What is the most successful reform movement in 1840? The students are engaged in conversation the entire class period. It is clear that they feel comfortable in her class, want to share what they read in the chapter or previous knowledge about the topic, and are excited about debating with their fellow classmates. While the students are debating the topic, Michelle reminds them they must provide evidence to back up their argument. Michelle seems laid back and enjoys being with her students. She allows them to express their opinions in class, and continually reminds them to provide evidence in their responses, not simply just an opinion with nothing to back it up.

From my reflexive journal: When I initially contacted Michelle, she seemed incredibly excited about the study and willing to serve as a participant. She said it "sounded like a good time" and that she is "more than interested." Since Dr. Cruz recommended her to me because she was someone who had participated in the Global Studies Project at the university and has tutored students in U.S. History, I am anxious to see her in the classroom.

This case study details Michelle's beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy and how her beliefs and knowledge impacted her literacy practices in the classroom. The findings of this study expand upon the way in which we think about discipline-specific literacy pedagogy in the content-area classroom.

Michelle's within-case themes. In the subsequent section, I present four themes that represent what Michelle knows and believes about disciplinary literacy pedagogy and how her knowledge and beliefs influence her disciplinary literacy instruction in the history classroom. I read the data multiple times and categorized the data into chunks based on my research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I offer direct quotes from Michelle to reveal her understanding of disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

Theme one: Michelle acquired disciplinary knowledge and beliefs in graduate school. The theme “acquired disciplinary knowledge and beliefs in graduate school” was emphasized multiple times in our discussion about disciplinary literacy knowledge and beliefs and on her concept map. Michelle said she learned about interpreting, analyzing, and evaluating primary sources through both her graduate level history courses and her graduate social studies education courses. Specifically, Michelle explained:

I think I really learned how to do it [analyze primary sources] in grad school where you would take a source and you're learning from a history professor who is an expert in his field and the classes are more confined. It's not American History I where you are going from colonialism to the Civil War, you're just learning you know, 1945 and post World War America.

She went on to further detail questions she learned in graduate school to evaluate sources, questions she uses with her own students:

Who wrote it? What's their motivation behind writing it? The audience they are trying to appeal to? What they are using to appeal? [For example], if they are using William Jennings Bryant's Cross of Gold Speech, if I'm

looking at primary sources, he is invoking God for a specific reason that was important at that time you know. You have to look at it in the context of what is going on historically.

While she readily admitted she was not familiar with the term disciplinary literacy, when I asked if students need to be taught to read and write like member of the discipline, she said:

I think it's needed. I mean I always tell them [students] when you're writing in a history class they [the authors] are dead. They did it; they're not doing anything or saying anything. They are dead. Cause I know in English class they're taught the passage is alive, you know it's living, it's still going on. I do think you need to teach them the difference. My kids who read more history books write more like historians.

This was also something she heard while in graduate history classes.

The goal of historical interpretation is to understand the past, thus students must approach the documents from the proper context (Monte-Sano, 2006). If students explain their interpretation through present-day, twenty-first century bias, there is a lack of historical reasoning present. The key to remember when composing historical essays is, “historical events have already happened and cannot be fully reconstructed” (Monte-Sano, 2006, p. 8). Thus, interpretation relies on the available documents and records to create an incomplete picture of the past. The Common Core State Standards for Writing in 6-12 (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) establishes different writing standards for English/Language Arts and History/Social Studies. For English/Language Arts, students should be able to:

1. Write arguments to support claims with clear reasons and relevant evidence,
2. Informative/explanatory texts to examine a topic and convey ideas, concepts, and information through the selection, organization, and analysis of relevant content,
3. Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, relevant descriptive details, and well-structured event sequence. (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 45-46)

For History/Social Studies, students must be able to:

1. Write arguments focused on discipline-specific content,
2. Write informative/explanatory texts, including the narration of historical events. (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 64-65)

As evidenced by the standards, for English/Language Arts, students are required to write three types of texts in class whereas in History/Social Studies, a large portion of the writing deals solely with constructing historical events and interpretations. As found in Appendix A of the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010b):

In English language arts, students make claims about the worth or meaning of a literary work or works. They defend their interpretations or judgments with evidence from the “texts” they are writing about. In history/social studies, students analyze evidence from multiple primary and secondary sources to advance a claim that is best supported by the evidence, and they argue for a historically or empirically situated interpretation. (p. 23)

The authors of the CCSS (2010b) noted being able to craft an argument is key for college and career readiness and is “important for the literate, educated person living in the diverse, information-rich environment of the twenty-first century” (p. 25).

Ultimately, Michelle said her graduate school history classes helped develop her theoretical and pedagogical understandings of historical literacy, in particular, looking across and synthesizing information gleaned from multiple sources. She said:

We did a lot of that [corroboration and synthesis] in my graduate history classes. This author thought the first battle of the Civil War was Fort Sumter. This one is really asserting it was Bleeding Kansas so where does the evidence lead you to get to your place?

As a result of both her masters level classes in history and her masters level pedagogical classes, Michelle has obtained with VanSledright (2011) considers three of the essential pieces of a proper teacher preparation program—the disciplinary structure of history and the learning theory and correlative teaching practices from the research on what it means to teach history. Her goal, which was reflected in what she learned in graduate school, was for her students to be:

Historically literate—My students can read a primary source document and figure out what time period its from. Or at least they can look at this point of view, this perspective, and ask ‘What is this person saying and the then begin to evaluate it. Is this true? Do I believe it? Or apply it as a social document, political document, economic.

Theme two: Michelle developed disciplinary knowledge as an Advanced

Placement (AP) grader. Michelle also talked about the fact that she is an “Advanced Placement (AP) grader” and she believed that role helped develop her understanding of what constitutes a good AP Document-Based Question (DBQ) essay and a good AP Free-

Response Question (FRQ) Essay. In addition, serving as an AP grader has been very influential in her knowledge of historical literacy. She said:

The AP grading I think has been very influential in this is what a good essay is. I think you really need to focus on the rubric. They need to have a well-developed thesis. They need to have specific factual information. They need to have some kind of—I call it commentary or analysis—on that information. It is not enough to say that the Lusitania was a ship that sunk. You have to say the sinking of the Lusitania really brought the United States closer to war with the Allies against Germany.

She communicated to her students specifically what The College Board wants to see from them on their Free-Response Question (FRQ) and Document-Based Questions (DBQ) Essay in May and what the students need to do to receive the highest point values on their essay responses.

From my notes: Today the students are prepping for a FRQ Essay they will write tomorrow. Michelle is stressing not only the idea of questioning but having the students use more “custom details” and “commentary” in their responses. She defined “custom details” as specific historical evidence and “commentary” as manipulating the evidence. She told the class to write economic, social, and political down on their paper and to pick one term in the 1920s, write what it is and how it impacted the 1920 economically, socially, and politically. One student shows her his paper and Michelle addresses the entire class. She said:

You cannot end your essay with a question. When are you are the AP level, you are answering the question, phrased as a statement in your work. You can have

that question yourself but you must answer the question. You must use evidence to answer the question.

After the students work on their commentary for a few minutes, Michelle goes to the front of the board and talks them through how to break the prompt apart to set up their essay and compose an appropriate thesis statement. She said her plan of attack, if looking at the prompt (The 1920s were a period of tension between new and changing attitudes on the one hand and traditional values and nostalgia on the other hand. What social, political, and economic factors proved this tension?) would be to set up a paragraph per social, political, and economic factors as well as both new and changing attitudes and traditional values and nostalgia. EX: economic- new and traditional, social-new and traditional, and political-new and traditional. At the end of class, she told them that tomorrow they would write a timed essay (35 minutes) and they can only use the notes they bring from class today—the thesis statement and examples they worked on today.

From my notes: The students are working on their Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay today. The question is: The 1920's were a period of tension between new and changing attitudes on one hand and traditional values and nostalgia on the other. What social, political, and economic factors proved this tension? The students are able to use their thesis statement and notes from yesterday.

Prior to starting the timer, Michelle said:

You got to have more than one example for social, political, and economic. You cannot just say “flapper” for example for social and move on. They are [The College Board] looking for tons of evidence and how you incorporate your

evidence into a well thought out essay. Remember, you cannot say “I” or “in my opinion.” Just restating the question will not get you full credit. You must state a thesis. How many of you feel like you are going to rock this essay? How many of you think you are going to get a 5/9 on the essay? Once you finish your essay, turn it in and pick up a review sheet for the test on Friday.

As the students write, Michelle grades papers from another class (AP Macro I believe) and the classroom is dead silent. A few students look back at the graphic organizer of social, political, and economic classification from earlier in the unit when they classified each term in the unit as social, political, or economic. I guess the students look at the graphic organizer because they did not provide more than one example on their notes and need to think about other factors to answer the question.

*From my reflexive journal: Reflecting back on the time I saw Shay’s class complete a FRQ on Jacob Riis, Michelle does her FRQ differently. Shay provided the students with one document—part of Riis’ *How the Other Half Lives* (1890) whereas Michelle is having the students rely on their background knowledge and notes for evidence; she did not provide them a primary source to use. From what I understand about free response, I believe the students rely on their background knowledge to answer the question. This response is all about them manipulating the evidence they already know from their terms sheet and their class discussions/readings to answer the question asked. I think Shay’s FRQ was a simpler version of a DBQ as opposed to a traditional FRQ required by The College Board.*

I see another comparison to Shay’s class—I have yet to see the students read out of the textbook in class. I’ve actually not seen the class bring in a textbook. I assume, like

Shay's class, reading is done at home. I plan to ask Michelle about this as well. I wonder if I will see the same thing in George's class?

From my notes: Today is Senior Skip Day. Even though all of Michelle's students are juniors in this class, about half the class skips today and starts spring break early. Because so many students are absent, Michelle allows them to use their book while completing their last FRQ for the unit. She gives them two choices for their essay: Analyze the causes of the Great Depression or Analyze the effects of the New Deal. She told them they could set up the New Deal essay one of three ways: 1) focus on just the First New Deal, 2) focus on the Second New Deal, 3) focus on relief, recovery, reform. The Great Depression question is one that is on a released APUSH Exam; she made up the New Deal question. Because it's senior skip day, and so many students are absent, the room is quiet throughout the period. This is one of the first times I've seen Michelle's students use the textbook in class. The other time was when she had another teacher cover her class for a few minutes and the students worked on their reading questions until she came back from the main office.

Theme three: Michelle prioritized questioning and manipulating of evidence.

Michelle emphasized two strategies throughout our discussion—"questioning and manipulation of evidence." These were also apparent in her observations. When asked about her specific reading and writing strategies, she said:

It's more questioning. They read and then I question what do they get out of it. What about this? What about this? Sometimes they do it together and I'll have kids questions other kids. They'll be in groups to talk about the material themselves. The more they talk the more they learn.

She further explained her style of teaching and the strategies she uses on a daily basis:

I give them a list of questions from the chapter to do on their own and I try to do something with the information. Like when we did the Civil War, you know they had to answer their questions but we looked at Harriet Beecher Stow's Uncle Tom's Cabin, we looked at the Dred Scott Decision, we looked at Bleeding Kansas and John Brown and decided which one—like rank those factors, which one was most important in causing the Civil War. Could we go back and cause it? So, they do some individual work but in class, we try to manipulate the evidence and have these great historical discussions on what we are doing with it.

From my notes: The students walk into the classroom and immediately get started on the bell work on the board: Rate Harding and Coolidge as President. After giving the students a few minutes to work on the bell work, Michelle calls on students to answer the question. While she listens to the students provide their answer to the bell work, she continually reminds them to “use their evidence” and asks them questions to help their thinking process. For example, with one student she asked the following questions: “Are my Republican presidents doing a lot in office? Passing legislation? Are they just occupying the office? Why do they not have a lot to do?” ‘Why’ is a word that is frequently used in her class as well as the question ‘How do you know that?’

Michelle constantly asks questions in class. There is continual dialogue in class; the students discuss material themselves, challenge each other, and are allowed, and encouraged to ask each other the question: ‘How do you know that?’ Michelle wants her students to provide evidence, manipulate the evidence to form a coherent argument to

answer the question. This is also apparent when she talks about their essay writing next week in class. She reminds them that she wants them to provide a custom detail and specific commentary, manipulating evidence, in their essays.

For each unit, her discipline-specific goals were for her students to “analyze the social, political, and economic factors” of whatever time-period they were currently studying and to continue to develop her students critical thinking skills through the use of questioning and manipulating evidence. She developed her students reading and writing skills through questioning, graphic organizers, and teaching them to manipulate evidence. She explained:

[I develop their reading skills] by [having them] read and then reviewing and asking questions. They read the textbook at home and then answer their questions but we do stuff with the information so hopefully that clears up some of the misconceptions they might have when reading the book or to help them understanding or flow through the book a little easier. I use KWLs, descriptive bubbles; they use some kind of graphic organizer and do something with the information right away. [For writing] I think they just need to write. But I think like setting up the essay, starting out with a well-developed thesis. A plan of attack so they know exactly how they are going to move from paragraph to paragraph and what exactly they are proving.

In addition to working with her students on a plan of attack for each essay, Michelle gave feedback in her class. For example, if the student is not providing enough

specific facts, the student corrected the essay and turned it back in for a new grade. She “pick[ed] one thing that they need to correct and that’s it” for each essay.

Michelle wanted her students to be able to defend their answer by providing evidence to support what they are saying, may it be writing a thesis statement or answering a multiple choice question. This historical thinking concept was evident in her class on multiple occasions. ‘You need to be able to defend it’ was a key phrase she said to her students. She also utilized questioning techniques where she had the students focused on eliminating answers to multiple choice questions that were not feasible by recalling prior information learned about the topic.

From my notes: Today’s class is focused on reviewing APUSH style multiple-choice questions. Michelle gives directions to the class: Raise your hand if you want to answer and then if you get the question correct, you get to call on the next person to answer a question in class. Remember, we are thinking about what answers we can eliminate. We are attacking the multiple-choice questions—actively using our background knowledge to eliminate answers. Throughout the class period, Michelle continues to ask the same questions over and over again—Which answer choices can I get rid of? What do I know about the 1920s? She wants the students to talk out their reasoning and eliminate choices they know are not feasible.

Michelle constantly pushed her students to use evidence in their responses and to provide an answer they can back up as opposed to one that is general. This was evident in how she prepared her students to write a Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay.

From my notes: Today Michelle’s class prepped for a Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay they will write tomorrow. While the students are completing the bell work

(What is the difference between fundamentalism and modernism?) she is writing the prompt on the board: The 1920's were a period of tension between new and changing attitudes on the one hand and traditional values and nostalgia on the other hand. What social, political, and economic factors proved this tension? One of the students raises her hand to answer the bell work. She explained the fundamentalists were Republican and Michelle stops her. Michelle said, "I would not say this is a Republican/Democrat thing but a social issue."

After the class discusses the bell work question, which is tied to the writing prep assignment today, Michelle asks a student to give her example of something in the 1920s that some shows how people are trying to hold on and move forward. One student replies the Scopes Monkey Trial. Michelle unleashes a number of questions to the student. She questions, "How is this holding on and moving forward?" While the student is answering, she writes on the board: Scopes Monkey Trial. She asked, "What is the trial about?" The student replied, "Evolution vs. Creationism." She said, "Where is this taking place?" He replied, "South (Tennessee)." All of this information gets put on the board. She then asked more questions about the main individuals involved in the Scopes Monkey Trial. Once the facts are written on the board (e.g., Scopes-teacher on trial, William Jennings Bryan-prosecutor, Darrow-defense), she says, "[If you were using this example in your essay you would] use the facts to manipulate to create a well developed thesis."

Later in class, she asks another student to provide her with an example of another factor that contributed to the tension in the 1920s. A student identifies the KKK and Michelle said, "Give me an example of how the KKK wants to hold on? What are they

doing?” The student said they burned crosses. Michelle, seeing the student not truly understanding what she is saying, questions again. “They only did this to allow them to hold on. What else are they doing? What are their intimidation tactics?” After a few more minutes of questioning, the student still is not making the connection. Other students are trying to whisper the answer to the student and Michelle stops them. She wants them to discover things on their own.

Finally, the student says the KKK killed black people. Michelle is still not getting the specific evidence she wants. Therefore, she turns this into a mini-lesson on essay writing. She says, “Your essay must have evidence. You can’t just say the KKK killed black people. You have to be specific and provide evidence to back up your claim.” Another student volunteers the answer Michelle has been looking for. He says the KKK lynched black people. This statement turns the conversation to the statement the student just made. Michelle asks, “Is the KKK only targeting black people?” Other students say no and that the KKK targeted Jews, immigrants, and Catholics as well. Michelle then questions again, “What pattern is emerging in the 1920s? We are isolationists, not looking overseas.....” The classroom is silent. “Nativism,” she replied. “Many Americans believed the only people who should live in this country are those who were born here.”

This questioning continues for a good portion of the class period. Michelle stresses to her students the importance of backing up claims by using evidence and being able to manipulate the evidence to form a coherent essay. She wants them to think through what they know about a topic on their own and arrive at their own conclusions instead of regurgitating what the text said.

From my notes: Today marks the second day on a project revolving around the First and Second New Deal. Michelle's students started the project yesterday and their task is to classify the New Deal programs as reform, recovery, or relief. After each group finished their classification, Michelle handed out a worksheet with the answers on it to see how close they were in their classification. She told them, "I don't 100% agree with all the answers on the answer key. Do I care what you say? How you classify the terms?" The students shake their head 'no.' "What do I care about?" she asked. "If you can defend it. I want you to look at their reasoning to see why the authors of the worksheet responded the way they did. I don't care if you look at their reasoning and change your classification. All I care is that you can defend your answers with evidence." I think this classification graphic organizer is preparing the students for their essay on Friday. Michelle has not said they are preparing to write, however, this seems similar to how she prepared them to write their 1920s essay.

Michelle noted:

I used to always say, but I don't say anymore [to my students] 'Good historians ask questions; great ones answer them.' I think if they can start asking those questions, they can question themselves into a right answer or into a thesis, into an essay.

This philosophy spilled over into her belief about promoting both official and unofficial history in her classroom. She said she promoted the "official" history by "forcing her students to read the textbook and then do something with the information." When she talked about "unofficial" history, she said:

I allow them to explore. You don't always have to agree and I think that's why the AP Exam is kind of cool. It's only 60% right, and that's passing, so I think that's part of it. You're allowed to not agree and you can still get a passing score.

From my reflexive journal: Encouraging students to take a stance was something I saw Michelle iterate frequently in class. She reminded her students that they could disagree with her position, or someone else's position as long as they could provide evidence to back their claim.

Allowing students to take an active role in their learning can also contribute to understanding. In exploratory learning, otherwise known as inquiry-based learning or discovery learning (Barnes, 1992a, 1992b; Thornton, 2005) knowledge is rich and multidimensional and students do not passively accept what the teacher is saying, instead they come to their own conclusions using the evidence in front of them. In exploratory or discovery learning, there is interaction and talk in class, students are engaged in a discipline, students are able to voice their opinions, strategic thinking occurs, and students serve as the knowledge creator as opposed to knowledge consumer (Harvey & Daniels, 2009).

Even when the students have a class celebration, she still reinforced questioning and manipulating evidence in the classroom discussion. Michelle, as a means of assessment, had a 1920s "speakeasy" party in her classroom. Each student came to class as someone from the 1920s. The students were encouraged to ask each other questions, challenge each other's claims, and manipulation of evidence to prove a point.

From my notes: Today is the 20's party to celebrate the end of the unit on the 20s. Tomorrow is the test. The students came to class dressed up, in character, as a key individual from the 1920's. When I arrive at the classroom door, two students are knocking the secret knock and giving Michelle the password to enter the "speakeasy" aka the classroom. Michelle hands out a 1920's project sheet and the students circulate around the room meeting other individuals from the 1920s. The sheet has the following questions: What person are you today? What role did your person play in the 1920's? Did your person make a social, economic, or political impact in the 1920's and explain the impact? Once they fill out their portion of the sheet, they have to walk around the classroom and conduct four interviews of their fellow 1920's classmates. For each interview, they ask the same questions: What is the name of the person you are meeting? What is their impact of the 1920's? Is this person more about fundamentalism or modernism and explain.

Characters include specific individuals such as Henry Ford, Al Capone, John Scopes, and Babe Ruth, along with more generic groups from the 1920's such as flappers, silent movie actresses, and gangsters. Even while the students are eating and in a party setting, Michelle still asks them questions about their character. She questions them, expecting to hear evidence they learned about their person to teach others in the class about their individual.

Michelle also implemented her questioning technique with her students when they went over an assessment in class. She wanted the students to talk through their answers and justify why they arrived at a particular answer on their unit assessment.

From my notes: The students took a test today over the 1920's. Michelle told them that they were going to do something a little different today. Once they finished their test, they were to turn it in but to keep the test paper. She wanted to go over the answers with the class. She reminded them, "You are shooting for a 60% on the test. If you get a 70%, I am throwing you a mental party in my head." While the class took their test, I took one as well to see how I would do (I got a 19/26—not bad for someone who has not studied this information in many years).

Once all the tests were turned in, Michelle came to the front of the room and sat in her green chair. She starting at question one and asked a student what he chose as his answer. While she is doing this though, she is asking them how they eliminated possible choices. For example, she said to one student "What is the key to this question? (The question was: As President, Calvin Coolidge generally...)" I want to know about the differences between the Republican and Democratic presidents during this time. What do the Republican Presidents do? How do they support business? What's your evidence to support that?" Instead of simply telling them the correct answers, she talked with them about each question and asked them questions about their background knowledge as a way to infer how they responded the way they did. When they came to a particularly tricky question, Michelle would poll the class to see who selected A, B, C, D, or E and then she would reason her way through each response narrowing it down to two possible choices.

From my notes: After the quiz today, Michelle had the students work on eliminating answer choices on the multiple-choice questions in their AP Exam practice books. Like before, she had them reason through the answer choices to narrow it down to

possibly two choices and then decide from there which is the correct answer. It seems like many in the class continue to stop at the first answer choice they see that might be correct and do not examine the rest of the choices. The students seem distracted and uninterested. The most common answer provided for the questions is “B”. Michelle reminds them that they need to look at all the answer choices, use their prior knowledge about the material to find the best answer to each question. She reminds them:

If you approach the questions on the AP Exam this way, you know what you will get? A one on the test. It’s pretty silly for you to sit in here all year and then not get college credit just because you don’t want to examine all of the answers and really think about the correct answer for each of the multiple choice questions

Her comments seemed to do the trick and the students livened up actively participating and providing their reasoning for the rest of the questioned talked about in class. Once again, a common question Michelle said in class was “What’s your evidence?”

Her teaching style was also reflected in the classroom activities she thought were essential to keep students interested in history. Michelle believed students needed to be able to really think about the topic and be able to do something with the material they are learning either through a class discussion, debate, or paper. She said:

I think you need to cover a certain amount of material but in depth. They can always go and look up a date or a president. I mean sometimes I do that, but they need to be able to do something with the information they read.

In addition, she noted, “You kind of have to let the kids do it on their own and ask specific types of defined questions to help scaffold, to help draw information they might

not originally see.” Both of these classroom activities were evident in her teaching style as she had the students actively discussion the topic and “doing something with the information they read” as well as scaffolding additional information through her defined questions.

From my notes: Today, after the students took a quiz, Michelle handed out pieces of paper with the key terms from the reading on them. The students worked in groups to classify the terms as economic, political, or social. She said:

You are going to get a couple of terms in your group and you are going to talk about each term your group receives. You want to think about the objective for the readings—evaluate the social, political, and economic impact of the 1920s, because you need to use the social, political, and economic in the essay next week. Don’t put the term in the most obvious category. Think outside the box. The graphic organizer is on the wall. After you classify all the terms, I am going to ask you why you choose social, political, or economic. This is your evidence for your essay. You are going to qualify it [the terms] as something.

The students worked together in row groups and classified the terms. After classifying the terms, Michelle led a class discussion, asking multiple questions, on why terms were put one place as opposed to another. She reminded the students the terms could be considered economic by one group, but another group might classify it as political or social and that was okay as long as the evidence to back the claim was there. The students had to use evidence to justify their reasoning. Some students debated a term could be considered social and economic or social and political. For example, one student said he could place the term ‘automobile’ in the social category because it

allowed individuals to travel and go on trips and other social outings however, he could also put it in the economic category because of the jobs created by the new industry.

Another student said the Ku Klux Klan (KKK) could be considered political because of their stance (e.g., nativism) and intimidation tactics used in the South (e.g., lynching, burning crosses), however he could also see how the KKK could also be classified as a social because the organization reflected the social tensions of the time (e.g., enforcement of prohibition, anti-immigration). This classification graphic organizer led to some interesting debates in class and Michelle continued to scaffold information out of the students. It was evident to me she wanted them to not just classify their terms into the various categories of social, political, and economic, but for them to actually be able to do something with that classification—to provide a justification and really think about the topic at hand.

Thornton (2005) noted, “The most effective learning of content stems from engaging methods” (p. 82). In an inquiry or discussion-driven lesson, the role of the teacher is not to lecture rather, the role is to “stimulate and direct student curiosity” (Thornton, 2005, p. 84). Michelle’s class is largely discussion based, as evidenced from her first interview and classroom observations. Her purpose in class is to have her students “manipulate the evidence and [as a result] have these great historical discussions on what we are doing with it.” Sadly, this discussion method is not frequently used in the social studies classroom. Nystrand, Gamoran, and Carbonara (1998) found “discussion averaged only half a minute per class period” (as cited in Hess, 2002, p. 10) in 48 social studies classes. The American Historical Association’s Statement on Excellent Classroom Teaching of History (1998) specified students “be given frequent opportunities for

discussion and writing in order to learn to practice the art of interpretation and to see the implications of their own analysis” (n.p).

Michelle, through her use of historical discussions and writing, taught her students to be analytical thinkers who can, in her words, “do something with the information they read.” She strived to make sure her students were not simply participating in “illusory understanding” (Shulman, 2000, p. 131) rather, they were participating in verbal conversations, which according to Shulman (2000) prevent illusory understanding. As noted by Shulman (2000), if you study theories on pedagogical theory on student learning, the central idea is social manifestation (e.g., conversation, discussion, dialogue). The discourse was not controlled simply by the teacher; rather the teacher and students actively participated in constructing knowledge.

Theme four: Michelle varied instruction in her class according to the levels of her students. For Michelle, the literacy tasks in her classroom varied in response to the level of her students. She explained:

I think that is the biggest thing—the higher the reading level, the better the kid does because they understand what the [multiple choice] question is asking. At the end, you know they think the test was easy because they did not understand it. If they were looking for certain answers as opposed to digging at a deeper level for the question. And I think it’s the same for writing. If you do well on the multiple choice, you do well on the writing because you are able to analyze or think at a higher level.

Throughout our discussion on disciplinary literacy instruction, she talked about differentiating instruction according to level of her class. Michelle mentioned teaching to

various levels multiple times. For example, when she was answering a question about teaching disciplinary specific literacy skills to students she said:

I mean I put them on different levels. If we are writing an essay and this kid has no idea how to write, like we'll start your first paragraph in an AP History essay is your thesis and plan of attack. Tell me what you're trying to prove and how you're going to prove it. And then we break up the paragraphs. It's very specific.

Some of my kids are far beyond that, you just write, you don't worry about this, you just write [is what I tell them]. But I have to go through with some kids, this is a topic sentence, write a fact, now do something with that fact. You know I always use sports. The [identifying reference] are a football team. There's your fact. The [identifying reference] are going to win the Super Bowl next year because they have a great new head coach. Now you're doing something with that fact—you are manipulating the information and using evidence to support your thesis, which they don't get very well [if they are lower level students].

Michelle continued to talk about differentiating instruction to meet the needs of her students. When asked about what discipline-specific practices students need to learn in the classroom she said:

Depends on the level. I've even gone and done some gender analysis in some of my classes like my higher-level classes. I've really looked at the movie about Deep Throat [*All the President's Men*, Coblenz & Pakula, 1976)] and whatnot. I wouldn't do it in...your low level readers aren't able

to handle that anyway since they are immature but your higher level readers can have conversations. We've had, you know we've read books, pieces of books, there's a whole book that we just read a couple of chapters, actually a couple of paragraphs about where the term 'black' came from. So, it depends on the level of the class. I do that with most classes, some classes I pull back just a bit because I don't think their maturity level is there. Why have the conversation then?

This idea of level was also apparent when she talked about the challenges she faces in supporting and developing her students' literacy skills in the APUSH classroom, particularly when it comes to reading and writing instruction. Many of her students were low-level readers and struggled to read the textbook.

From my notes: Michelle and I talked a bit about level today, particularly reading level. She told me the class I'm observing is the lower of her two APUSH classes, when it comes to reading level. Many of the students are below level on the state reading test. While we talked she cut out test questions from an APUSH Exam prep book for the upcoming test on the Great Depression and New Deal. She does not use the exam maker provided with the textbook because she feels like the questions in the exam maker are not true AP questions. The ones from the prep book are released test questions.

From my reflexive journal: I find this interesting because Shay relied on the exam maker from the textbook company to create all of his multiple-choice tests. She said the multiple-choice questions are a good predictor of if the student will pass the AP Exam or not. She also said many of her students, who are the lower readers, will get frustrated with the multiple choice questions and pick something they've heard of for their answer,

instead of really thinking about the question. This is something she has seen in her class and on their tests.

Michelle also brought up the fact that students have been taught formulaic writing, which she has to un-teach to her students in APUSH:

They are low I think by the time they get to me. Some of them have, I don't want to say been passed along, they don't read very well therefore they don't write very well. There's a strong correlation—your stronger readers are your stronger writers. End of story. They've been taught a certain formula how to write and they want to follow you know a formula—this is my hamburger, this is my bun. How about just defend? Make an argument. They don't make one; I write that constantly in my essays, make an argument, make an argument. Don't just tell me a story to be safe. Make an argument and try to defend it.

From my notes: Michelle tells her students frequently to make an argument and back it up with evidence. Today in class, the students were prepping for a Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay, and she told them multiple times they had to make an argument, using specific evidence, not just generic statements, in their essays. She had a conversation with a student today about this very thing. She told her she (the student) is very general in her essays and that needs to change in order for her to do well in the class and on the AP Exam. Michelle then directed her comments to the entire class. "I'm not just talking about this one student," she said. "This is directed to about 10 of you in here." After commenting to the entire class about being more specific in their essays,

Michelle worked with the student during the class period because she needed assistance in crafting her thesis statement.

From my reflexive journal :I am interested to see what happens tomorrow when the students write in class. What comments will Michelle makes after reading the timed writing essays? What will she say to the students throughout the class period? She cannot help them on their timed essay tomorrow. She cannot provide any assistance during the AP Exam in May either. She constantly reminds them to use evidence and manipulate their evidence so I will not be surprised if I hear her say something similar tomorrow, multiple times as they write.

VanSledright (2011) noted a more potent approach to teaching history involves teaching students how to investigate history and draw their own conclusions. Students are taught how to seek a position and argue it effectively using evidence to prove their point. Thus, this idea of discussion, manipulation of evidence, and moving away from a teacher-centered approach to teaching history goes against the more common approach to teaching history—that of lecture as the sole means of pedagogical practice (VanSledright, 2011). Michelle’s class centered around scaffolding information from the students as opposed to what Levstik and Barton (2005) call “initiation-response-evaluation pattern where the teacher asks a question, a student responds, and the teacher tells her whether the answer was right” (p. 21). Rather, in Michelle’s class, she continually questioned her students, digging deeper into their prior knowledge about a topic, as a means to learn and comprehend information.

Case Three: George

Background information on George. George was a first year APUSH teacher at his current school. He has been a teacher for the last ten years teaching various Social Studies classes in the county. He also worked at the district office. George has an undergraduate degree in Social Science Education and a master's degree in History with specializations in Latin American History and Modern United States History. He also has a doctorate in Curriculum and Instruction in Interdisciplinary Education. George went into teaching because he did not have a positive experience in his history classes in high school and he went into teaching to "change it" and give students a positive experience in the classroom. He noted:

I became an educator because I had a lot of examples of bad educators and I was always told I wasn't allowed to complain unless I had a solution to the problem and my solution to the problem was becoming an educator.

On the day I interviewed George for his initial interview, he met me in the front office and walked me back to his classroom. Classes were over for the day and the administration urged students to either get off campus or go to their Extended Learning Program (ELP) classrooms. We walked upstairs to his classroom and he unlocked his classroom door. As soon as I walked in, the door slammed shut. George was nowhere to be seen. I heard some commotion in the hallway, many voices, and decided it was best if I did not open the door or get involved. I was not a school district employee and did not want to get caught up in a fight or confrontation in the hallway between students.

As I sat waiting for George to come back into the room, I took an inventory of what his room looked like. His student desks were in traditional rows facing the

whiteboard. Above the door is a quote about education: “Education—a highly important and valuable commodity that you should pursue with great passion, yearn and learn from a brighter future.” On the right side of the classroom, facing the white board was a set of Document-Based Question (DBQ) posters. The first one said “DBQ Police looking for Specific Factual Information” and the second one is an acronym APPARTS, which stands for Author, Place and Time, Prior Knowledge, Reason, The main idea, and Significance. He also has tiger posters on the wall, signifying the school mascot. At the front of the room were DBQ tip posters—understand, formulate, plan, write, and checklist and a famous quote by Franklin Delano Roosevelt: “We, too, born to freedom and believing in freedom, are willing to fight and maintain freedom.” His desk was in the back of the classroom and above it is a picture of his family.

I sat in George’s room for roughly 10-15 minutes before he entered the classroom. “I bet you are wondering where I went,” he said. “A student tried to steal another student’s car in the student parking lot,” he continued. “I saw it through the second-floor window and went after him. I got as far as the fence before I realized I’m too old to jump this fence. But I can identify the student.” After giving him a few minutes to catch his breath, we began the interview. Almost immediately, he was called down to do a police report, identifying the student who attempted the auto-theft. Later in our interview, his classroom phone rang. He had a conversation with another school employee about the event that just occurred. Sadly, according to George, such situations occur off and on throughout the school year. He told me he has frequently done pat downs to check for weapons. All of these events kept George on his toes and ensured that each day will be different.

At the conclusion of my time in George's class, he asked if I could stay late and talk to him for a few minutes about a phone call he received that day. After class, he informed me he had received a job offer at a teaching university in the southeast for the following fall. I asked him about his interview and he said, "One of the questions the search committee asked me was about discipline in the classroom. I told them the story of the almost car jacking and they looked shocked." One of the members of the search committee said, "We were talking about how you handle issues like chewing gum in the classroom." George laughed, "I don't even think about issues like chewing gum in the classroom. I have bigger classroom management issues to deal with like almost car jackings."

George said he became a teacher because of the poor examples he saw in high school, specifically in his history class. Unlike Michelle or Shay, George does not believe disciplinary literacy practices should be taught in the classroom, however, he teaches them in his Advanced Placement United States History classroom specifically when he is instructing his students on how to write a Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay or how to read a primary source document. When asked how he viewed himself as a teacher of history and of historical literacy, George said he is a "somewhat dedicated" [teacher of historical literacy] and he "leans more towards non-discipline specific" practices.

He said he believed the purpose of a social studies teacher was to focus on "civic efficacy" because he "thinks it's so important to teach them [the students] to be good human beings and citizens." George believed students in his class needed to be "highly literate" and to be able to "understand the text they are reading because it contains no pictures, very few charts and maps, it is two columns with Times New Roman, 12 point

font, black and white text.” Therefore, his main literacy strategies are what Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) would classify as “intermediate” literacy strategies—those strategies that are transferable from one subject to another.

This case study details knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy and how that knowledge and beliefs influence class instruction. The findings of this study expand upon the ways in which we think about discipline-specific literacy pedagogy in the content-area classroom, particularly in a classroom where the majority of the students are struggling readers.

George’s within-case themes. In the following section, I present three themes that represent what George knows and believes about disciplinary literacy pedagogy and how his knowledge and beliefs influence his disciplinary literacy instruction in the classroom. I read the data multiple times and categorized the data into chunks based on my research questions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I then compared all the data and conflated the codes into categories to identify themes. I offer direct quotes from George to reveal his understanding of disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

Theme one: George implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his history classroom. In our first interview, George said:

[Teachers should not teach discipline specific literacy practices] especially at this level because as a school we work together as a team so what they learn in my class needs to be backed up and transferable to other classes as well.

It was mid-February when George made this statement. For George, the literacy tasks in his classroom involved teaching his students transferable literacy skills. He

noted, “I work closely with our Language Arts department and for our literacy techniques to be consistent that way it’s always reinforced across the curriculum.” When probed further about his beliefs about disciplinary literacy, George added:

I’m bias because I want to say of course it’s important because that’s the way I read and write but because I know that the odds of them growing up to be a historian is very low so I think it’s more important to have them reading and writing alone so I focus less on you know the actual writing like a historian and focus more on writing on level and I think that’s much more important.

Research shows content-area literacy courses at the university level focus on preparing students to incorporate general literacy strategies (e.g., reading comprehension and vocabulary strategies) into their classrooms as opposed to strategies that are specific to a particular content area such as math, business, science, etc. (Conley, 2008). As an undergraduate student in social science education, George took a content-area literacy course in social science education, specifically focused on teaching general literacy strategies in the classroom. Ness (2009) noted, “Evidence shows that reading instruction in specific domains such as science and social studies can improve student understanding and learning” (p. 145).

While George uses disciplinary literacy strategies himself as he conducts research, he does not believe they are the best strategies to use in his classroom for his struggling students. Instead, he turned to “intermediate literacy strategies”, generic reading comprehension strategies and writing strategies (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008) in his classroom instruction. George said:

I use a lot of the CRISS strategies and I use those just because they are simple enough for the students to pick up on. We are also using the Comprehension Instructional Sequence (CIS) lessons now and I like those because those are much more higher order than the CRISS strategies.

CRISS principles include: 1) teaching for understanding, 2) explanation and modeling, and 3) metacognition. Within metacognition, the teacher teaches students how to utilize background knowledge, establishing a purpose for reading, promotes active learning through discussion and writing, how to organize information they are reading, and to examine the author's craft (Santa, Havens, & Valdes, 2004, p. 4).

The Comprehension Instructional Sequence (CIS) is a comprehension model used in the county. It is a 13-step process:

- 1) Hook
- 2) Prediction question or what do you know question (Question #1)
- 3) Pass out passage/article
- 4) Number paragraphs/sections
- 5) Pre-teach vocabulary
- 6) Assign text marking (students will read independently, in groups of four, in groups of three, or in pairs; this is students' first exposure to the text)
- 7) Answer question #2 (Refer back to text)
- 8) Directed note-taking (Refer back to text)
- 9) Answer the last question (#3) independently and make an evaluation (Refer back to text)
- 10) Collaborate with group and present an argument to whole group

- 11) Re-vote (After hearing arguments, students are allowed to change their answer)
- 12) Question Generator
- 13) Write formal essay with thesis statement, supporting paragraphs, cited evidence, quotes from the author/text, correct punctuation, correct grammar, correct spelling, and conclusion. (J. Canady, personal communication, March 18, 2013)

According to a Reading Coach in the Identifying County, the CIS model:

The Comprehension Instructional Sequence (CIS) model of close reading has become part of social studies and science curriculum. Although teachers are still adapting to the model, CIS has proven to be an engaging way for all students to experience discipline-specific close reading, especially struggling readers. The repeated purposeful reading gives readers, who normally struggle, access to complex text in a way they have never experienced before and suddenly they are excited about reading in civics or science. (J. Canady, personal communication, March 18, 2013)

On his concept map, George identified multiple CRISS strategies that he has taught to his class, and emphasized when they are reading text: underlining, highlighting, determining author's voice, and identifying the audience. He explained:

One of the things I have them look for is voice. They have to identify the author's voice and their perspective so that's looking for time-period, gender, race, the whole gamut of things they have to look for. But I also use the textbooks in the same way. I have them analyze every document because every document is technically a primary source and each one has an author and voice and I have them do that for each one that way

they can pick out what's being said, how it's being said, and analyze it from that context um that way they can get a better understanding of how it was written.

After pointing out to them that every document has a voice then I give them that chance to have their own voice and I make sure their documents have a voice because otherwise you can't grade a document that is just repeating someone else so I make them you know synthesize what they read from primary sources into something new.

While he believed discipline-specific strategies are not the best strategies to use with his students, he did utilize discipline-specific practices in class, particularly when teaching students to read a primary source or write a Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay. On his concept map, he wrote his students engage in textual analysis and discussion about the material. He noted:

For those kinds of things [writing DBQs, analyzing primary sources] because we have multi levels of reading ability and as well as exceptionalities I assume that no one knows how to do this and I start from the very basics and those are looking at the documents, reading the documents, learning how to identify what's important through highlighting, underlining, starring, those basic CRISS strategies. From there, I teach them how to synthesize in groups organizing the documents in cohesive units and to analyze the documents.

George explained why he, for the most part, shied away from disciplinary literacy practices in his classroom:

One of the reasons I shy away from it [disciplinary literacy] is that challenge [teaching students discipline-specific literacy practices] because everybody has own way of writing, everyone has their own way of citing sources, everybody has their own format and it can be very confusing for students, especially those that are struggling, so that is probably the biggest challenge just trying to have the students to remember, “This class I write like this, this class I write like this, and this class like this.”

Faggella-Luby, Grander, Deshler, and Drew (2012) equated solely using discipline-specific strategies in the classroom with struggling readers is like “building a house on sand” (p. 81). Struggling students need to master the foundational learning provided by the intermediate literacy strategies before they can transition to discipline-specific practices. Lee and Spratley (2010) explained,

More and less competent adolescent readers will continue to struggle with both textbook as well as primary source documents until explicit attention to text features, prior knowledge, vocabulary, comprehension monitoring and processes become routine practices in classrooms where students are expected to read in order to learn. (p. 9)

The National Reading Panel (2000) noted the following reading comprehension strategies needed to be taught to students, especially struggling readers: comprehension monitoring, cooperative learning, graphic and semantic organizers, story structure, question answering, question generation, summarization, and multiple strategy instruction. These strategies “can effectively motivate and teach readers to learn and to use comprehension strategies that benefit [them]” (National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 4-6).

Heller (2010/2011) stated, “The more effort that goes into teaching middle and high school students to read, write, and think like specialists the less effort will go into teaching them to read, write, and think like broadly educated citizens” (p. 272). Instead of teaching discipline-specific practices, Heller (2010/2011) encouraged teachers to teach content-specific vocabulary, comprehension strategies to use when examining text, to view writing as an important tool for expressing what was learned, and to leave the discipline-specific practices to the undergraduate and graduate programs at colleges and universities.

George embodied this belief in the classroom. For the most part, he utilized intermediate reading and writing strategies with his students. He believed his students needed to be taught to read and write on level. He said on level meant:

For reading wise, reading on their grade level, which for AP is actually would be much higher than their grade level. They should be reading at a college level. So, I have to make sure they are able to do that.

He used intermediate reading strategies to help his students comprehend their APUSH text. For writing, George said he considers them “on level if they can hit the points, at least a 6/9 [on the APUSH Writing Rubric].” Specifically, from day one in class, he teaches them an “older system with the ‘rule of three’---three sentences per paragraph, three defined paragraphs, three-pronged thesis.” He noted this process produces “ugly writing” but it is also:

Formulaic and [my] lowest level writers, the ones with the high levels of anxiety can incorporate it, and they can internalize it, and they can kind of

regurgitate the facts they know into that formula and write a passable essay.

However, while George has his students frequently complete the ‘rule of three’ essays in class, sometimes he deviates and does not use the ‘rule of three’ format. Instead, he has the students write a longer, more analytical essay similar to a Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay.

While George employed many revered intermediate literacy strategies in class, he also frequently used a read aloud strategy, Round Robin Reading, that is not supported by the literacy community (see Ash, Kuhn, & Walpole, 2009; Cunningham & Allington, 1999; Ivey, 1999; Opitz & Rasiknski, 1998).

From my notes: Today the students worked on an essay in class comparing and contrasting their self-selected protest song to another protest song George selected called “I Ain’t Marchin’ Anymore” (Ochs, 1965). George told the class he collaborated with the Language Arts teacher on this assignment. He wanted the students to compare and contrast their song to the Och’s protest song about a soldier sick of fighting in war. Specifically, he said:

For this essay, I want a much more in-depth analysis than the bell work question. The essay will not follow the ‘rule of three’. It will be much longer than previous essays. I want you to follow the prescribed outline format. You are comparing and contrasting the two songs and writing an eight-paragraph essay. The first paragraph is your introductory paragraph, your second through fourth paragraphs are where you compare the two songs, your fifth through seventh paragraphs are where you contrast the two songs and your last paragraph is an

analysis, conclusion, and summary paragraph. You do not have to do a three-pronged thesis statement. I will be looking for a single statement at the end of the first paragraph telling me your argument. Some things to consider in your essay are the audience, type of song, topic, and message.

The class worked quietly for a good portion of the period. Many studied their lyrics and the lyrics George handed out contemplating their similarities and differences. While the class worked, George walked around the classroom, providing feedback on thesis statements. A few students struggled with the thesis statement. George told them to “start writing and it will start to flow.”

From my notes: After I walked into class today, George informed me that he is using one of the school-wide literacy strategies today in his classroom—having students read a text in class. He said the school wants the students to read something each day in class and today he is implementing this literacy strategy with his students. Prior to the students answering the textual analysis questions on a summary of McCarthyism, George had the students read aloud in class. He employed a type of Round Robin Reading where he asked for volunteers and assigned them each a paragraph to read, essentially utilizing a variation of round robin reading.

During the textual analysis on McCarthyism, the students answered three questions about the text and George’s directions were to “Answer questions one through three and do not cite the sources in your answer.” However, when the students completed the Recall and Reflect questions, George had the students cite the sources in their answers. George directed his students to “Cite the source, the page number, the paragraph number, and line number. If you summarize, just put page and paragraph

number.” This strategy seems to be a bit like Cornell Notes (Pauk, 1962). Perhaps another variation of an intermediate strategy that George learned in his content-area literacy course?

From my reflexive journal: According to the literature I’ve read, Round Robin Reading is frowned upon (to put it lightly) and is discouraged by literacy professionals. I think I sat in shock for a few seconds when he started calling on students to read aloud in class. I wanted to stand up and yell, “Don’t do it, George! Don’t use Round Robin Reading in your class!” however, I reigned myself in. I really had to keep my bias in check here because I wanted to jump in and take over as a literacy person. However, I knew it wasn’t my place. I was not here to take over George’s class rather, I was here to observe his literacy practices in the classroom. This is one of those practices. However, I plan to ask George more about Round Robin Reading and why he uses in the classroom as his reading method of choice in my second interview.

George also had his students research information in class and record it on t-charts, another graphic organizer used to organize information.

From my notes: Today’s class focused on the topic of Civil Rights. George divided the class into two groups and handed out laptop computers. He had them research either Martin Luther King, Junior or Malcolm X, specifically looking at their Civil Rights Plans. While the students worked on the computers, George circulated around the classroom and monitored their group work, reminding them they could not use Wikipedia as a source because anyone can create a Wikipedia page, thus it is not always an accurate source for information. He also met with individual students about

their end-of-the-nine weeks grade for class. He gave them about 30 minutes to find their 25 facts.

They did not have to record down the websites they used, but all the facts had to pertain to their Civil Rights Plans. Once they researched either MLK, Jr. or Malcolm X, he paired the students up and had them each create a t-chart on chart paper highlighting five key points from their Civil Rights Plans. They also had to answer the following question: Which method do you agree with most? Why? Once each group finished their t-chart and answered the question at the bottom of the t-chart, he had one group present their information before the afternoon announcements.

While George stated he did not think struggling readers should learn discipline-specific practices in the classroom, he employed many of them in his classroom in conjunction with his intermediate literacy strategies. For example, when the students created t-charts comparing MLK, Jr. and Malcolm X, George had his students examining primary source documents on the Internet. They could not use Wikipedia, since George believed it was not an authentic source since anyone can edit Wikipedia pages. In addition, each time they completed a close reading and text-dependent questions, they read a primary source document or secondary source document selection from the textbook.

Theme two: George acquired knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in graduate school. George's knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy instruction came from his experiences in graduate school, in particular the college of education. He noted in graduate school was really where he learned how to "dig deeper to locate and find those primary sources that were relevant" and when he started his Ph.D.

was when he really started to “find his voice” as a qualitative researcher. He said the acronyms he learned to analyze, interpret, and evaluate primary source documents were not useful when he was conducting his own research; therefore, for the most part he does not use them in the classroom.

George’s philosophy for evaluating sources is “Trust but verify” a quote from former President Ronald Reagan. He explained, “Always go back to the original source because even with statistical data, we are always taught, especially in history, to go back to the original sources not just trust the stats that were provided to us.” When asked about the types of sources he brings into the classroom, and the idea of having a wide variety of students in his class on different levels, he said:

I still tend to go to the primary sources and the level of difficulty is important to me because they [the students] have to be able to understand it. I do put some modern sources in there just so they can identify secondary and primary sources but also pictures, maps, things they have to analyze as documents and if it’s not an official DBQ, I’ll even intersperse film that way they can analyze that as well.

Theme three: George believed relevance of the content was crucial in meeting the needs of his students. George concentrated on making his content relevant to the students and that fact is one reason he believes he is successful. Relevance is of extreme importance in his class. He noted,

I think I have my own unique style and really I just try to cover the curriculum and I try to present it to them in a way that connects to their lives and the things they find interesting. I start with the foundations and

scaffold everything else off of that—their interests—and for me that touches on the projects we do. Just a little plug for my kids, we are going to the History Fair and I'm pretty sure I'm going to have some state winners and that's just because I connect those projects to their interests back to the curriculum if I hit those three points, I'm fairly confident they can be successful.

This was evident in an observation early on in his class.

From my notes: Throughout the discussion on the Cold War, George continually makes connections to the 'modern world.' He ties course content (e.g., the Russians in Afghanistan for example and the United States supporting the Afghan army with arms and training) to events that recently occurred (e.g., the U.S. fighting in Afghanistan).

When selecting Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essay topics, he tried to find topics that interest the students, as well as ones that are aligned to the curriculum. It is apparent the students enjoy this conversation. They have something to add; they were alive when we went to war in Afghanistan after September 11, 2001 and they can make connections to what they've read in their textbook to what they are seeing now in the news.

He also tried to incorporate “unofficial” versions of history into his classroom, making the content relevant for his students. He strived to connect his teaching to his students and their background knowledge. He did not believe there “was an official version of history.” Rather, he tried to incorporate multiple voices into his classroom. These voices included those of his students and their interpretations of historical events and those of the same culture or race of people. He said:

There is the curriculum with standards that we are supposed to teach and those standards do not necessarily dictate how or what is taught just basic strands, which gives me the ability to use those primary source documents and multiple voices to give not an official version of history but many versions, many stories of the same event.

In part, he did this through utilizing the textbook in class. He further explained:

The textbooks have been really good about including excerpts from different race, class, genders and I tend to focus on those more than the big passages because students read those on their own. We don't discuss that [the big passages] because that is the voice that is already heard. I'd much rather discuss the ones that aren't and compare them to what they've been taught continuously.

From my notes: Today as a review before the test, the students played an APUSH version of Hunger Games. George said he has used this review game in his class before, and it is something the students enjoy doing because they like the liked reading the book The Hunger Games (Collins, 2008) and the movie. The game is essentially a modified version of tic-tac-toe. George divided the class into two teams, one team was the "X" in tic-tac-toe, one team was "O". George explained:

If you make the shot (into the recycling bin), you get to answer a question. If you get the question right, you get to put an X/O in the tic-tac-toe grid. If you miss the shot, you get to do 20 pushups. If you cannot do the pushups someone else on your team can do them for you but they are doubled the number. Once you

complete your number of pushups, you then get to answer a question. If you get the question right, you can put an X/O in the tic-tac-toe grid on the board.

The students seem excited; they are talking amongst themselves and discussing strategy. George reminds them they cannot get too loud and disturb the classes around his room. The first game ends in a tie—no one wins the tic-tac-toe. George started a second hunger game, however review time ran out before a winner could be declared. He wanted to give them enough time to finish their unit test. This is a fun way to connect the content to their lives and make the review something they look forward to. It is clear the students enjoy the competitiveness of the Hunger Games review game.

From my notes: Today's bell work question was: Why was the Cuban Missile Crisis significant? George had the students take out the regular U.S. History textbooks and he talked about the map of Cuba that detailed the Cuban Missile Crisis. George said the AP textbook did not have a map that showed the missile sites in Cuba and the range of the missiles if they were launched at the United States. The discussion moved from the Cuban Missile Crisis and possible declaration of war, if the Soviets had crossed the blockade line to the Vietnam War, which fit nicely with the questions the students worked on earlier in the week and finished for homework.

One question in particular led to an animated debate. The text asked, "Why did the United States fail in Vietnam?" George argued the United States did not fail in Vietnam and he provided evidence of why he believed the United State did not. He argued that we contained communism while we had troops fighting in Vietnam, the purpose of us being there, and therefore we completed our mission. Other students in the class did not

agree and argued their points, supporting their statements with evidence from the chapter.

Once George finished going over the questions, the topic of conversation turned back to the Cuban Missile Crisis and the threat of nuclear war. This led to a lively discussion about the current North Korea missile threat. George made parallels from the Cuban Missile Crisis to the current situation in North Korea and asked the students the questions, “Why does North Korea hate us? Why are there two Koreas?” Essentially, George wanted the students to think about what they had learned about past conflicts such as Vietnam and the Cuban Missile Crisis and how that knowledge helped them understand why we have tension with North Korea today.

From my reflexive journal: Once again, George made connections in class between a recent event—very recent in fact—North Korea and the threat of missile attack, and a historical event—the Cuban Missile Crisis. This is so timely because when I walked into the office to sign out, I saw CNN’s catchphrase for this tension with North Korea—they are dubbing it the “North Korean Missile Crisis.”

George noted when he constructs lessons for his students, he is “really looking for the larger connections [...] to modern politics, modern foreign policy, and then how what they are reading has an impact on that time to today and how it impacts stuff.” One way he achieves this goal is by focusing on cause and consequence in his teaching. For example, in class he made connections between the current war in Afghanistan against the Taliban and the war against the Taliban in the 1970s where the United States supplied weapons to the Taliban. This is one example of how he made the content relevant to his students.

Thornton (2005) posited, “Wise educators have long recognized that interest and effort in education are intertwined” (p. 24). George recognized the importance of student interest in his classroom and making his class relevant to his students. He was aware that if he wanted to reach his students, he must make the content accessible to his students. Barton (2009) noted although there is great promise as evidenced by research from the United States, Canada, and Great Britain on the implementation of a discipline-specific focus in the history classroom in teaching students to think like historians, there can also be potential dangers as well. Specifically, Barton highlighted the loss of student perspective in the classroom.

He stated, “We may render history meaningless if we adhere so closely to the academic discipline that we neglect to help students understand the myriad ways in which the past is used in contemporary society” (p. 266). George strove to incorporate topics in his class that his students find relevant and can thus identify such as Battleship and *The Hunger Games* (Collins, 2008). He made a conscious effort to make connections to current events in the classroom. For example, when his class studied the Cold War, particularly the Cuban Missile Crisis, George made relevant connections to the North Korean missile threat because it was a current nuclear threat the students heard about on the news. During the Cold War Unit, George also made many ties to the Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) program at East High School and how that program developed in part because of the Cold War and race for technological advances. He centered his instruction away from the “simple, monolithic, and exclusive identities found in national narratives” to those identities that are “complex, diverse, and inclusive” (Barton, 2009, p. 275).

Cross-Case Analysis

After I analyzed the Advanced Placement United States History teachers as individual cases, I employed cross-case analysis to gain deeper understandings of relevancy to other cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Khan and VanWynserghe (2008) stated in cross-case analysis, the researcher can make comparisons and highlight differences in the units of analysis. Miles and Huberman (1994) noted there are two reasons to use cross-case analysis “to enhance generalizability [...] and to deepen understanding and explanation” (p. 173). Using pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009), seven interconnections occurred with the three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers and two differences among the teachers occurred. All three teachers 1) believed in student-centered classrooms as the best pedagogical choice; 2) utilized document analysis in the history classroom; 3) established communities of learning in the classroom; 4) believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies learning; 5) utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom; 6) apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre; and 7) varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students. Two differences emerged, which adds to the production of new knowledge involving the study participants. Specifically, highlighting similarities and differences reveals new dimensions of the individual cases. All three teachers 1) exhibited varying levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy, which influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom and 2) demonstrated varying understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy. I provide an example of my pattern coding in the table below.

Table 9

Pattern Coding Example

<p>SHAY: To me it is research you know the whole document analysis. And the whole research is what I tackle after the AP exam. You know going through you know 10 documents of those 10 which of these four or five best help you answer this question. Which one has the best information you can use (1). Students need to be able to analyze primary sources, and using this analysis with their outside information to support a thesis (2). So for me it's the subject, occasion, and the purpose and so that's for when students are reading they can see what is the subject of this, what is author trying to achieve, or what promoted the author to write this piece and that way kind of gives them understanding of what's going on (3).</p>	<p>(1) DOCUMENT ANALYSIS (2) ANALYZE PRIMARY SOURCES (3) SOPS</p>
<p>MICHELLE: My job entails teaching historical analysis (4). They can read a primary source document and figure out what time-period it is from. Or at least they can look at this point of view, this perspective, this is what this person is saying and then begin to evaluate it. Is it true? Is it not true? Do I believe it? Or apply it as a social document, political document, economic (5).</p>	<p>(4) ANALYSIS (5) EVALUATION</p>
<p>GEORGE: My job entails teaching textual analysis (6). For those kinds of things because we have multilevels of reading ability as well as exceptionalities, I assume that no one knows how to do this and I start from the very basics and those are looking at the documents, reading the documents, learning how to identify what's important through highlighting, underlining, starring, those basic CRISS strategies (7). From there, I teach them how to synthesize in groups (8), organizing the documents in cohesive units and to analyze the documents (9).</p>	<p>(6) TEXTUAL ANALYSIS (7) SCAFFOLDING PROCESS (8) SYNTHESIS (9) ANALYSIS</p>

Table 9 Continued

Pattern Coding Analysis

Document Analysis
Analyze primary sources
SOPS
Analysis
Evaluation
Textual Analysis
Scaffolding process
Synthesis
Analysis

Pattern code generated after researcher reflection: UTILIZED DOCUMENT ANALYSIS IN HISTORY CLASSROOMS

Commonalities in the cross-case analysis. I uncovered seven commonalities among the teachers.

Theme one: All three teachers believed student-centered classrooms were the best pedagogical choice for classroom instruction. Each of the teachers had a student-centered classroom. Jones (2007) defined a student-centered classroom as one where the teacher is the facilitator of instruction, the students play an active role in the learning process, and the teacher takes the needs of his or her students into consideration. They designed their instruction around the needs of their students. While all three teachers had a different style of teaching in their student-centered classroom, they each took on more of a facilitator role as opposed to “telling” the students information through a lecture format. For example, Shay had his students work in groups in class. He believed the students learned more discussing the information together as opposed to him lecturing in front of the class on a daily basis.

He said:

There is so much information in the chapters that I can't sit up here and lecture and just lecture them the information they need to know. There is

too much. I would spend four days out of five lecturing and that's not good for them. That would get very boring for them.

Michelle's teaching style was discussion and questioning techniques. Her class periods were dialogues between her and her students and her students discussing and questioning each other. Michelle explained she taught in this manner because she learned "all of that in her methods class. Like how to teach. This is how you deliver information." George centered his instruction on meeting the needs of his kids. George viewed himself as a facilitator. He believed his class was a team, where he acted as the facilitator of the content and "they [the students] drive it based on their needs and interests."

He described to me a Hunger Games style activity he had introduced to the class to get them talking about World War One. He explained he used *The Hunger Games* (Collins, 2008) competition format to entice his students to want to participate; his students read *The Hunger Games* (Collins, 2008) and therefore, he strove to use his students' interest as a means to introduce and teach content. Before a test, George's students participated in a Hunger Games style review game. The students were excited about reviewing content and were actively engaged during the game.

One day in class, George utilized the game Battleship as a way to review vocabulary. The students formed small groups (three to four students per group), created a grid, and each group plotted where their two ships were on the grid. George asked a group to define a vocabulary term and if the group got the correct answer, they could launch an attack on another group and try to sink one of their battleships. George told me the students loved the game because it was something they could relate to; they enjoyed the action, the strategy, and learned vocabulary at the same time.

Theme two: All three teachers utilized document analysis in the history classroom. One of the goals for all the teachers was to teach document or textual analysis. While each teacher taught document analysis using their own particular methods, they had their students analyzing documents to prepare for the AP Exam. For example, Shay used the Subject, Occasion, Purpose/Point of View (SOP) test. He noted,

So for me it's the subject, occasion, and the purpose and so that's for when students are reading they can see what is the subject of this, what is author trying to achieve, or what promoted the author to write this piece and that way kind of gives them understanding of what's going on.

He further explained he spent a good portion of the year working with his students so they can "take the information from the text [document] and be able to write that down into their own words."

Both Michelle and George noted on their concept map that one of the activities they do with their students is textual or document analysis. Michelle's students broke apart the First and Second New Deals and analyzed the programs in each New Deal as reform, recovery, or relief. The students worked in groups and created a graphic organizer on chart paper classifying each program as relief, recovery, or reform.

George's students studied documents from the Cold War and completed a textual analysis with questions in class. After they finished the questions, George went over the questions with the class and had the students discuss the answers, as well as argue their opinion, backed with evidence from the text, for the last question.

Theme three: All three teachers established communities of learning in the classroom. All three of the teachers are what Shulman and Shulman (2004) would define

as an accomplished teacher—“a member of a professional community who is ready, willing, and able to teach and to learn from his or her teaching experiences” (p. 259). Each was reflective in their practice as evidenced in their concept map and interviews. For example, Shay noticed his students responded well to the organizational concept maps he utilized during the Age of the City. He said, “ With the last quiz they took, with the organizational map, the scores went up and it didn’t involve much effort from me so [it was a strategy that] helped make the information stick.” Shay said he continually tried to improve himself as an educator and spent his summer preparing for the next year, researching new ways to improve his classroom instruction. He noted, “In the summers, I take my books home. I take my guides home. I’m working, trying to figure out what sources I can use to make this better.”

Michelle asked her students for feedback on her test formats and recorded that information down in a binder. She continually modified her assessments in class to meet the needs of her students. George strove to meet the needs of his students and reflected on his instructional delivery, making adjustments as the need arose. He also participated in a Professional Learning Community (PLC) with other teachers at his high school and collaborated with the Language Arts Department on incorporating literacy strategies in his classroom instruction.

Their classrooms were those of “communities of learning” (Shulman & Shulman, 2004, p. 259) where students and teacher learned together. For example, one day in Michelle’s class, they reviewed possible multiple-choice questions on the AP Exam and came across a term in which she was not familiar. She asked a student in class to look the term up and they learned the definition together. Further, each day during

class, Michelle encouraged her students to express their opinion and she did not get upset if her students expressed very different opinions than her own in class. In fact, she was ecstatic if her students respectfully debated each other, and her, in class.

George also encouraged his students to express their own opinion in class. While his classes were not filled with questioning like Michelle's, when the opportunity presented itself, students felt comfortable expressing their opinions and debating each other in class. For example, after spending a class period discussing Martin Luther King, Junior and Malcolm X's Civil Rights Plans, George started the next class with the following question: "Who would white supremacists support, Malcolm X or MLK, Jr.? Why?" George encouraged his students to share their answer and talk about the question in class. These communities of learning, also called communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) were made up of supportive environments where students felt comfortable expressing their own thoughts and interpretations of history.

Theme four: All three teachers believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies instruction. All three APUSH teachers said the main responsibility of social studies teachers was that of civic efficacy. They each believed students needed to be historically literate in order to participate in a democratic society.

George said:

I know for me one of the key things I focus on is civic efficacy because I think its so important to teach them to be good human beings and citizens.

If they learn nothing else, if they learn that, I will be happy.

Michelle echoed his beliefs. She noted:

I think that the main goal is to give them appreciation of US history so that they become dedicated US citizens, one that votes based on “I did some research as opposed to well this just guy looks good.” I think that’s the number one thing –give them appreciation for the past, where we’ve been, what it means, and then help them look forward.

Shay also stressed this idea of civic efficacy. He said:

I talk about republican motherhood and the women’s responsibility back in the 1700s after the Revolutionary War was to teach their children republican virtues and I think even more that’s what we should be doing still. Teach them republican virtues, teach them how to be American citizens, teaching them where we came from so they can see where we are headed. In government class we teach them about government and I think in US History we teach them what events have led us to where we are today and I think that’s kind of the role of social studies teachers are today is teaching students how to become better citizens, making them better citizens I think.

I think to become a better citizen, to become an informed voter, you do have to look at what’s happened in the past, you do have to weigh what’s happened in the past and be able to defend what you are saying. You can’t just sit there and choose a side without being able to defend your side.

Civic efficacy, or learning to be a good citizen, is essential to a powerful social studies curriculum (NCSS, 2008). However, according to the National Council for the Social

Studies (2008), civic efficacy has taken a backseat to college and career readiness in schools across the United States. Barton and Levstik (2009) believe one role of social studies teachers is to teach students the function of government but also to help students “grow into citizens who have the skills necessary to reach intelligent decisions on matters of public policy and know how to carry out those decisions” (p. 30).

Theme five: All three teachers utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom. The Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) emphasize the use of close, analytical reading in both informational and literary texts. Specifically, the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC, 2011) noted:

Close, analytical reading stresses engaging with a text of sufficient complexity directly and examining its meaning thoroughly and methodically, encouraging students to read and reread deliberately... [It] entails the careful gathering of observations about a text and careful consideration about what those observations taken together add up to. (p. 6)

According to Fisher and Frey (2012b) close reading is an “an instructional routine in which students critically examine a text, especially through repeated readings” (p. 179). A key aspect of the close reading process is answering text-dependent questions, which essentially forces the students to read the text closely to find the answer to the question being asked. Adler and Van Doren (1972) define close reading as “x-ray[ing] a book...[for] the skeleton hidden between the covers” (p. 75). The International Reading Association Common Core State Standards Committee’s (2012) white paper recommends teachers engage students in reading text closely and critically in the classroom.

While close reading has seen a surge of popularity since the publication of the Common Core State Standards, close reading is not a new instructional routine in literacy education. As noted by Hinchman and Moore (2013), “Close reading gained prominence in the scholarly literature in the 1930s through the 1960s” (p. 443). Hinchman and Moore (2013) in a commentary entitled “Close Reading: A Cautionary Interpretation”, highlight the history of close reading and the various literary theorists who have written about this instructional routine in the past decade.

Two theories, pertinent to close reading, which are related to my work are Reader Response Theory (Rosenblatt, 1978) and response according to the set norms of a particular community of practice (see Fish, 1982). According to Reader Response Theory, readers can take either an aesthetic or efferent stance (Rosenblatt, 1978). An aesthetic stance is reading for appreciation of the text. An efferent stance is used when a student is close reading a text. An efferent stance is information driven, and occurs during the reading of the text. The reader is not engaged with personal or qualitative responses rather, the person is focused on information gathering. The focus of the reading is on public aspects of meaning. Fish’s (1982) theory focuses on the interpretive community within one is working. For example, students in a history class would examine the text using historian’s methods, specifically looking at the source of the text, put the text in the proper context, and look across various texts to construct an interpretation of a historical event.

All three teachers implemented text-dependent questions in their classrooms. Shay’s students completed a close reading over each chapter and answered text-dependent questions in their reading guides. Likewise, Michelle’s students completed

close readings of their assigned texts, and answered text-dependent questions for each chapter. George had his students complete close readings of textbook selections and answered text-dependent questions in the text on a daily basis. In addition, George had his students close read when he used Comprehension Instruction Sequence (CSI) model lessons in class.

Theme six: All three teachers apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre. The purpose for writing in a discipline (e.g., history, biology, physics, rhetoric) is not what Broadhead (1999) described as “*writing to learn*—i.e., writing as a means of acquiring information, understanding concepts, and appreciating significance in any discipline... [but rather] *learning to write*—i.e., acquiring the socially-mediated communication skills and genre knowledge appropriate to a specific discipline” (p. 19). When students learn to compose a specific genre (e.g., argumentative) writing is seen “as a social act that encourages socialization in a discipline” (Carter, Ferzil, & Wiebe, 2007, p. 279). This notion of the genre school (see Bazerman, 2004; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Honig, 2010; Kamberelis, 1999) engages students in the role of apprentice and the teacher serves as an expert in a community of practice. Carter et al. (2007) found their undergraduate students who had written biology lab reports in their biology classes “point to an understanding of how writing may encourage learning in a discipline” (p. 294).

Michelle, George, and Shay apprenticed their students in the writing process, particularly when constructing a Document-Based Question (DBQ) and Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essay. According to Sherwood (2002), each teacher emulated the facilitative apprenticeship model of writing. In this model, the “the teacher engages the

learner actively, prompting, guiding, and sometimes redirecting” (Freedman, 1995, p. 128).

During our first interview, Shay explained, “They [the students] approach how they write everything the same way. [...] So my entire year is me breaking the habits of writing (another AP style essay).” It was mid-January when Shay made this statement. For Shay, the literacy tasks in his classroom partly involved changing the habits drilled into his students in previous Advanced Placement classes such as Advanced Placement Language and Advanced Placement World History. When I probed further and asked specifically if he taught students that history texts have a different language and format compared to science, language, or mathematics texts, Shay honestly asked, “Don’t they already know that?” After reflecting on his previous question, Shay acknowledged his students do not approach texts differently when they write essays in his class. He noted:

You’ll see some essays where you’ll get a paragraph where it almost reads like a checklist—covered that, covered that, covered that. But they’re not making it flow; they are not telling me a story so they probably are reading the book taking the same approach. I don’t know that [but] I can just tell how they write that for the most part they are taking the same approach. One essay is this way so they’re all this way. One book is this way so they’re all this way.

Because his students approached their writing the same way for each class, he modeled and apprenticed them through the writing process in class.

George noted starting in the fall semester, he has his students practice writing thesis statements and continues to “build and continue to build until they’re writing

essays on their own.” Michelle also provided one-on-one support for her students, providing feedback and guiding her students through the thesis writing process. Hillocks (2006) observed one vein of effective teaching of writing is responding to student work. Applebee (1981) proclaimed teacher response to student writing is “the major vehicle for writing instruction, in all subject matter areas” (p. 90; cf. Anson, 1989).

All three teachers believed writing should be used as a mediating strategy to translate text into one’s own dialogue, specifically when composing an essay. When the teachers taught their students to write a DBQ, they encouraged their students to use outside information, from their head, as well as information from the documents to answer the question. Essentially, they taught their students to craft their own interpretation of the historical event using their background knowledge and specific evidence from the various texts. Crafting an interpretation of a historical event or person is a discipline-specific writing task.

Theme seven: All three teachers varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students. All three Advanced Placement United States History teachers truly knew their students. They forged relationships with their students. In his first interview, Shay noted the reason he is successful as a teacher is due to West High School’s clientele. He said:

It’s because of the West High School clientele. I’m just doing what College Board expects me to do and I get a great bunch of students and who knows if I was to go to a different school and use the same style, I’d be a nobody. I honestly think the students get all the credit.

Shay’s pedagogical style worked for him because of the individual needs of his

students. He recognized his students learned best if he acted as a facilitator and the students worked in small groups, interpreting history on their own. He noted there is so much information in the chapters that if he “sat up here and lectured [...] I would spend four days out of five lecturing and that’s not good for them. That would get very boring for them.” Because many of his students were involved in various out of school activities, Shay was consciously aware of time and time constraints. Except for his reading guides and reading the textbook, all other work was done in class. Since the majority of his students were college-bound and involved in numerous activities after school, Shay designed his student assignments to be completed in class, rather than completing them at home. As a result, the students worked the entire class period and were focused on getting the task at hand completed.

Michelle also designed her instruction to meet the needs of her students. At the beginning of the school year, she printed out a roster and puts her students statewide reading assessment scores next to their name to see who is a Level 1, Level 2, Level 3, Level 4, or Level 5 reader, according to the statewide reading assessment. These rosters are kept in her record book—they are not shown to the students. Once she had an overall snapshot of her students, she then figured out how she is going to facilitate content throughout the school year, and what teaching strategies and instructional strategies she will implement in class. She noted:

A teaching strategy is the way a teacher facilitates a student to learn content or how to read or write. I use a graphic organizer especially with my low level classes. They read information and then organize it in different ways. I also use these with my APUSH kids. We use graphic

organizers to manipulate evidence. An instructional strategy is more me doing work and trying to pull information out of students. I would use questioning for this.

Michelle planned her amount of scaffolding around her students needs in class. For example, for those students who continued to struggle with writing a thesis statement, Michelle provided continued one-on-one support to them in class. While the students who excelled in writing a thesis statement knew they could come to her for feedback, she did not provide as much one-on-one support when they crafted a thesis in class. She let them “just write” because they were “far beyond” needing her to scaffold writing a thesis statement.

George stated his classes have “multilevels of reading ability and exceptionalities.” Therefore, when he taught certain parts of the curriculum such as Document-Based Question Essays, he “starts from the very basics.” He said he “knows his students, [he] knows what interests them, and [he] looks for topics that are interesting to them that are also aligned to whatever it is we are studying at the time.” George’s strategy usage in class was a testament to his awareness of his students needs. Because many of his students were struggling readers, he utilized reading and writing strategies in class to help them become on grade level. He also tried to connect all class projects and activities such as Battleship and *The Hunger Games* (Collins, 2008) review game to their interests. Thus, each of the teachers in my inquiry considered and designed their curriculum around what Joseph Schwab (1983) deemed the commonplaces of teaching—the “teacher, student, what is taught, and milieu of teaching-learning (e.g., the context)” (p. 241).

Dissimilarities in the cross-case analysis. There were two differences among the teachers.

Theme one: All three teachers exhibited varied levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy that influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom. As reported in teacher interviews and observed through classroom observations, each teacher had their own understanding about text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy instruction in the classroom. When asked to define text, Shay provided a very antiquated, literal definition of the term—simply put, “text is the textbook used in class. To me, it is revisionist history that only lays a basic foundation of our past.” Students in his class read the textbook primarily to gain a foundational understanding of the content. He further explained:

Reading the text is acquiring content knowledge and then if you have the content knowledge whatever question we throw at you—whatever question I throw at you or whatever question College Board throws at you, and they are going to throw you five [essay] questions of their choice, whatever question students have on the AP Exam or in this class they will feel comfortable answering it.

The view of equating a text with a textbook is common. Social Studies Education and History Education researchers have noted how the social studies or history textbook is used frequently in the social studies class (see Cuban, 1991; Lee & Weiss, 2007; Ravitch & Finn, 1987; VanSledright, 2002a). Lee and Weiss (2007) found, in the 2006 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), almost 80% of all eighth graders and a 76% of all 12th graders read from their text on a daily basis or once to twice a week.

Only 18% of both eighth and 12th graders reported using primary sources in their history classes on a weekly basis. Therefore, many social studies teachers turn to the established text in the classroom—the history textbook on a regular basis.

Although Shay defined text as “the textbook,” he also incorporated, on a regular basis, primary source documents into his class instruction. Content knowledge was expanded upon in class through the incorporation of primary sources, which Shay defined as “speeches or first-hand accounts of events, or so forth.” Typically, in class, Shay has his students read text-based primary and secondary sources. He said he did not utilize political cartoons in his classroom until the study the Spanish American War. Primary sources served as enrichment in class. He explained:

Ch. 20 [in the textbook] talks about how Ida Tarbell took on Standard Oil and that's really it. They don't give an excerpt of what she wrote. So, my students know okay Ida Tarbell took on Standard Oil and I can enrich that. Okay here is her history of the Standard Oil Company. Um you know I can explain to them her father was driven out of business by Rockefeller; he too, was a small oilman, driven out of business. Let's see what she has to say about Rockefeller. So to me the text lays a foundation of just basic knowledge and the primary sources help enrich that knowledge.

However, he did not equate the textbook and primary sources as text. Rather, they were two separate entities.

Like Shay, George provided a more antiquated definition of text. He defined text as “the written word” and a primary source as “a document written by someone.” Whereas Shay equated text and primary sources as two different units, George's

definition of text and primary source both incorporated the ‘written word’. Therefore, a text could be a primary source, as it is the written word written by somebody. Michelle had a much more developed understanding of text and primary source. She defined text as, “anything related to the subject. I think it’s shortsighted to say it’s just the textbook. But it’s any primary sources, it’s the books, they have different perspectives, it’s journal articles, anything that is talking about the content” whereas a primary source is something “specifically written at a time and could include visuals, political cartoons, and text.” Her view of text was one that was much more aligned with current definitions of text in the literature.

Traditionally, text was viewed as written or typed words, sentences, paragraphs, and pages (Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, & Siebert, 2010). Therefore, examples of a text used in school would include texts such as written notes and textbooks. However, the definition of a “text” has drastically expanded. According to different researchers’ text can include various objects, both written and visual. Two accepted definitions, in which I identify, are from Cope and Kalantzis (2000) and Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, and Siebert (2010). Cope and Kalantzis (2000) defined text as any physical representational resource. Draper et al. (2010) defined text as “any representational resource (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) or object that people intentionally imbue with meaning, in the way they either create or attend to the object, to achieve a particular purpose” (p. 28). In regards to text in history instruction, Bain (2012) noted, “Historians and history teachers have long recognized that studying the past is impossible without the use of text, broadly conceived” (p. 517). To paraphrase English philosopher and historian R.G. Collingwood (1946), the historian views everything in the entire world as a possible

text (p. 247).

There were also varying levels of understanding pertaining to the definition of literacy among the teachers. Shay defined literacy as:

A combination of analytical reading and writing. Does the student understand the source they have read and can they relate it to another source? Can the student explain their analysis both verbally and in writing? This is what I try to focus on with our DBQ preps and essays.

His definition of literacy was much more discipline-specific than the other two teachers. Ultimately, Shay strived to incorporate literacy instruction in the classroom. He constantly tried to improve his instruction in the classroom, specifically his literacy instruction as he claimed he “was still improving as a teacher of literacy.”

Michelle said, “Literacy is being able to read and write on an functional level. Being able to read the newspaper, instruction, and even fun type things.” George provided a simple definition of literacy. He noted, “Literacy is the ability to read.” While his definition aligned with a more traditional view of literacy where students are able to read written texts, he did not include writing as part of his definition of literacy.

Traditionally literacy was defined in the literature as “fluency in reading and writing printed texts” or “the ability to read and write”(Draper, et al., 2010, p. 23 & 29). However, much like the definition of text, the definition of literacy has also changed over time. The National Council of Teachers of English (2008) adopted a twenty-first century definition of literacy that read:

Literacy has always been a collection of cultural and communicative practices shared among members of a particular group. As society and technology change,

so does literacy. Because technology has increased in the intensity and complexity of literate environments, the twenty-first century demands that a literate person possess a wide range of abilities and competencies, many literacies. These literacies [...] are multiple, dynamic, and malleable. [...]

Twenty-first century readers and writers need to develop proficiency with the tools of technology, build relationships with others to pose and solve problems collaboratively and cross-culturally, design and share information for global communities to meet a variety of purposes, manage, analyze, and synthesize multiple streams of simultaneous information, create, critique, analyze, and evaluate multi-media texts, and attend to the ethical responsibilities required by these complex environments. (n.p.)

George had his students work with computers for one class period for research purposes; Shay and Michelle did not have their students use technology in the classroom. Likewise, the texts the students evaluated in class were traditional documents—selections from the textbook or primary sources. Even when George had his students conduct research on the Internet, he did not have them critique, analyze, or evaluate the texts they were using; they simply were using the texts for information gathering purposes.

The National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers (2010a) also defined what it means to be literate in the twenty-first century. Specifically:

Students who meet the Standards readily undertake the close, attentive reading that is at the heart of understanding and enjoying complex works of literature. They habitually perform the critical reading necessary to pick

carefully through the staggering amount of information available today in print and digitally. They actively seek the wide, deep, and thoughtful engagement with high-quality literary and informational texts that builds knowledge, enlarges experience, and broadens worldviews....In short, students who meet the Standards develop the skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening that are the foundation for any creative and purposeful expression in language. (p. 3)

All three APUSH teachers in my study had their students participate in many of the tasks the authors of the Common Core States Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) claim students must successfully engage in to be considered literate in society. In class, the students participated in close reading and when composing a DBQ Essay, they had to sort through a variety of information sources to select those sources that would provide evidence for their thesis and eliminate those that would not support their argument.

In addition to the varying understandings of text and literacy, one of the teachers presented a different conception of intermediate literacy strategies compared to the other two teachers. Shay defined a reading strategy as the “document analysis stuff” and a writing strategy in his class is teaching them the “note-taking process” and using “gallery walks” focused on the reading material. When students complete a gallery walk, they utilize one comprehension strategy—summarizing. Summarizing was one of the only intermediate literacy strategies I saw the students in Shay’s class use frequently in class.

The other two teachers (Michelle and George) had a more in-depth understanding of intermediate literacy strategies (as classified as such by Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008), citing such strategies as What Do You Know-What Do You Want to Know-What Have

You Learned strategy ([KWL], Ogle, 1986), descriptive bubbles, and graphic organizers. George also utilized a version of the Comprehension Instructional Sequence (CIS) model in his classroom. He tried to incorporate the school-wide literacy strategies into his classroom on a regular basis. For example, he said one school-wide literacy strategy was “thinking more critically and developing arguments that are more fact-based and not opinion-based”; this was a strategy he frequently emphasized in his class. In their 2004 report entitled “Reading Next: A Vision for Action and Research in Middle and High School Literacy” Biancarosa and Snow advocate “direct, explicit comprehension instruction” (p. 12) where students are taught specific comprehension strategies and comprehension monitoring strategies such as questioning and summarizing.

While George had a more developed understanding of intermediate literacy skills and practices, he utilized certain strategies that are not endorsed by the literacy community such as Round Robin Reading. He said he had his students read aloud during class in a Round Robin format:

For a couple of reasons. One I know they are reading when they are reading it aloud. It is also increasing their fluency, their speed in reading as well as when they say a word, if you're reading it to yourself they can skip over words they don't know and that leaves gaps in their reading but when they say it out loud, they could look at a word, it could be a Russian name and they can't say it but when they try to say it out loud they're like “Oh, that's...” and then they know what word it is and it makes sense. So for me it really helps them do that but also it helps the lower level readers be able to keep pace sometimes by following along with a higher level

reader and it helps both that confidence level throughout the class when they are working together like that.

As noted by Harris and Hodges (1995) Round Robin Reading is “the outmoded practice of calling on students to read orally one after another” (p. 88). Researchers have found this practice is used in not only the elementary classroom but the secondary classroom as well (see Cunningham & Allington, 1999; Ivey, 1999; Opitz & Rasinski, 1998). However, Round Robin Reading, or variations of it, is not supported by the literature as an effective reading practice. Cunningham and Allington (1999) found even the savviest teacher who “knows and uses ‘best practice’ teaching strategies...resorts to Round Robin Reading [...] during social studies” (p. 74). In a 2009 study, Ash, Kuhn, and Walpole (2009) reiterate Cunningham and Allington’s (1999) claim—Round Robin Reading, even though it is a practice that no literacy professional will endorse, continues to be used in classrooms across the country.

Shay said he was unfamiliar with the term ‘disciplinary literacy,’ however he was able to provide me a definition of disciplinary literacy in his first interview. While Michelle had a solid foundation in her understanding of literacy and intermediate literacy, she also was unfamiliar with disciplinary literacy. George heard the term in the college of education hallways, however, that was the extent of his familiarity. He defined disciplinary literacy as “those techniques and strategies specific to the reading of the social studies text.”

In the second interview, when I asked the teachers to provide me a definition of a specific type of disciplinary literacy—historical literacy, two of the teachers could provide me with a definition. Shay noted his answer would “go back to the disciplinary

literacy answer” he provided in the first interview where he defined disciplinary literacy as “teaching the students how to better read a history book or better read a math book or English book.”

Initially, George did not provide a definition of historical literacy. He could not think of one and asked to “pass” and move onto the next question. However, once I read him a definition of historical literacy (Nokes, 2013) and asked him his opinion on it he said historical literacy “is the foundation of being an informed participant.” He concluded it is not necessary to be historically literate because a participant can participate in a democratic society “without any knowledge of what was going on and we see it happen on a daily basis however to be a productive society, I think it is necessary because otherwise we’ve seen how things go.”

Michelle also provided a definition of historical literacy. She defined it as “being able to read about a time-period and being able to read primary source documents within the context of that time-period and applying it.” She further explained:

They’re [students] literate in historical terms. They can read a history book. It’s okay to be able to read a math book, but they can read a history book and do something with it even if it’s not there—if they’re more math and science orientated they can still read that textbook and have an intellectual conversation at whatever level they are at and be able to do something with the information.

Michelle had the most developed definition of historical literacy of the three teachers and it was the most aligned to current definitions of historical literacy found in the literature. Nokes (2013) defined historical literacy as:

The ability to appropriately negotiate and create the texts and resources that are valued within the discipline of history using methods approved by the community of historians. (p. 13).

According to Nokes (2013), being historically literate includes the ability to negotiate and create multiple texts including audio/video, print, and visual. Thus, texts include not only primary sources but secondary, tertiary, and public histories (Nokes, 2013). Historical literacy is an integral part of the history curriculum (Nokes, 2013; Monte-Sano, 2011).

Theme two: All three teachers demonstrated varied understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy. While they encouraged their students to use background knowledge when composing DBQs, they each had different views of what constitutes a writing strategy in the history classroom. Shay viewed writing strategies as text study mediation and translation (e.g, the note taking process). His students composed Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essays frequently in class, combining outside information and support from the texts in essay format. However, when asked to provide an example of a writing strategy he used in class, he said “the note taking process.” Shay’s understanding of writing in the history classroom was one of putting pen to paper and that was writing. In his view of a writing strategy, students are simply copying the text word-for-word as opposed to a meaning making process.

Michelle’s definition of a writing strategy was to teach her students to formulate a thesis statement. Thus, she saw writing as composition of a new text. Within this process, the student crafted a new piece of text instead of copying information from one text onto a piece of paper.

George noted a writing strategy used in class is free writing. He said:

Another strategy I like to use is the free write where you write for the entire time whatever is flowing through your head, you just get it down on paper for that amount of time. We used a lot of those first semester to get them used to writing it down and to not be afraid to put words on paper.

Like Michelle, George viewed writing strategies as those used to compose in the classroom. Flower and Hayes (1981) noted, “Writers and teachers of writing have long argued that one learns through the act of writing itself” (p. 386). Essentially George and Michelle “acknowledge and respect each student writer’s sense of self” (Sherwood, 2002, p. 3). Further, Michelle and George also viewed sourcing as something from the head—where one writes down information translated into his or her own language as opposed to Shay’s understanding of sourcing--copying the text word-for-word.

Summary

Each of the teachers had strong beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the classroom. However, only two teachers believed disciplinary literacy should be taught in the classroom. George, while he implemented disciplinary literacy in his own historical investigations and research practices, thought the literacy practices used in the classroom should be universal across the school. Regardless of this belief, he still implemented disciplinary literacy practices in his classroom, such as textual analysis and when he had his students compose Document-Based Question (DBQ) Essays or Free-Response Question (FRQ) Essays.

Shay implemented historical thinking skills and strategies specifically, he identified the importance of historical people, places, and events, encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence, and contextualized historical documents in class instruction;

he acquired disciplinary literacy beliefs and knowledge during his college preparation; and he utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction. Michelle acquired disciplinary literacy knowledge and beliefs in graduate school; developed disciplinary knowledge as an Advance Placement grader; prioritized questioning and manipulation of evidence in classroom instruction; and varied instruction in her class according to the levels of her students. George implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his classroom instruction; acquired knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in graduate school; and believed relevance of the content was crucial in meeting the needs of his students.

Through cross-case analysis, I discovered seven similarities and two differences. All three teachers 1) believed in student-centered classrooms as the best pedagogical choice; 2) utilized document analysis in the history classroom; 3) established communities of learning in the classroom; 4) believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies learning; 5) utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom; 6) apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre; 7) varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students; 8) exhibited varied levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy that influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom; and 9) demonstrated varied understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy.

Using Nokes (2011) synthesis of recent research in history education and literacy education, I present a table of accepted characteristics of historical literacy. Within this table, I summarize the elements of what it means to be “historically literate” and specify

if my participants incorporated these elements into their teaching practice and how they did so.

Table 10

The ways in which their instruction fit in the accepted characteristics of historical literacy (Nokes, 2011)

Element	Shay	Michelle	George
1. Ability to negotiate and create the types of texts that historians use and produce.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.
2. Ability to Work effectively with historical texts.	Utilized primary sources in class.	Utilized primary sources in class.	Utilized primary sources in class.
3. Implies the possession of the skill set necessary to read, reason, write, and learn with historical evidence.	Taught students to contextualize, to write using historical evidence.	Taught students to write using historical evidence.	Taught students to write using historical evidence.
4. Move from an objective stance—history is the “past” with a single narrative to a criterialist stance—using tools of history students can develop an interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.
5. Requires the use of historian’s heuristics when working with historical evidence.	Focused on contextualizing sources in class.		
6. Requires second-order concepts—ways of thinking such as change, time, cause, effect, evidence, and account.	Focused on using primary sources as evidence in essay writing. Focused on historical significance in class.	Focused on using primary sources as evidences in essay writing and discussion in class.	Focused on using primary sources as evidence in essay writing. Focused on cause and consequence in class.
7. Values historical empathy.			
8. Avoiding reductionist thinking.			Targeted instruction to include various races and cultures.

Table 10 Continued

<p>9. Allows students to independently construct interpretations of the past based on historical evidence. Teachers facilitate historical literacy by designing activities and assessments that allow students to construct their own interpretations rather than simply requiring students to memorize fact. Requires the students to use evidence in their writing or speech.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>
<p>10. Not necessarily to produce mini-historians, but young people and adults who are able to negotiate and create the complex texts of the Informational Age.</p>			<p>Students created multimedia projects for National History Day competition on their choice of historical topic. He used one of the projects in class when they discussed the Cold War and protest songs.</p>
<p>Number of Historical Literacy Characteristics Implemented</p>	<p>7</p>	<p>6</p>	<p>8</p>

In the table below, I provide a summary of my study participants, their beliefs and knowledge of disciplinary literacy and whether it should be implemented in the classroom. I also include the specific disciplinary literacy pedagogy implemented in class and the particular focus of the teacher in his or her instruction.

Table 11

Summary of Participants and DL beliefs, knowledge, and implementation

Participant	Familiarity with disciplinary literacy	DL pedagogy should be implemented in the classroom	DL pedagogy implemented in classroom instruction regardless of belief	Specific DL pedagogy implemented
Shay	No	Yes	Yes	Document analysis and DBQs with a focus on identifying importance, primary sources as evidence, contextualization
Michelle	No	Yes	Yes	FRQS and document analysis with a focus on questioning and manipulation of evidence.
George	Somewhat	No	Yes	Document analysis with a particular focus on analyze cause and consequence

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions

I'm still improving as a teacher of literacy. Over the summer, I will devise higher order thinking questions to accompany primary sources. As of now, I'm pretty basic, I use S.O.A.P.S. –Shay

In the previous chapter, I presented discoveries gleaned from my inquiry. I also introduced and supplied detailed examples of within-case and cross-case themes. In this chapter, I explain the purpose of my study, review my methodology, and offer a summary of my findings. I also provide my interpretations of the data. I comment on significant revelations that suggest implications and practical applications for inservice and preservice teacher education as they pertain to disciplinary literacy pedagogy. I conclude the discussion by giving my reflections as a literacy teacher educator and researcher, by offering implications for inservice and preservice teacher education, and recommending future inquiry initiatives.

Purpose of the Inquiry

As a literacy teacher educator and researcher I wanted to explore what three Advanced Placement United States History teachers knew and believed about disciplinary literacy pedagogy. I desired to enhance my own understanding of disciplinary literacy and the relationship between practice and beliefs. I also wanted to enrich my teaching practices in the classroom because I will instruct inservice and preservice teachers in content-area literacy and disciplinary literacy courses as a teacher educator in the future. Furthermore, I sought to add to the limited body of knowledge,

particularly empirical studies (Fang & Coatoam, 2013) on disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Few evidence-based studies on disciplinary literacy pedagogy exist because the majority of the research on disciplinary literacy has been conceptual in nature (Fang & Coatoam, 2013). Moreover, I wanted to ascertain how teachers' beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy influenced their enactment of discipline-specific pedagogy in the history classroom. I am interested in examining how professional competence (teacher knowledge and beliefs) and teacher professional activities (i.e., conferences and state and district trainings) impact teacher classroom practice (see Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2009). In sum, I wanted to inform my instruction of inservice and preservice teachers and contribute to the improvement of teacher education. Thus, the purpose of my inquiry was to look at three high school Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers' knowledge and beliefs about the literate practices of the discipline (e.g., historical literacy) and to learn in what ways their knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their praxis in the APUSH classroom.

Research Questions

The following questions guided my inquiry:

1. What do three Advanced Placement United States History teachers know and believe about teaching disciplinary literacy in the history classroom?
2. In what ways did the teachers acquire knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in history classrooms?
3. In what ways do the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy influence their instruction?

Summary of My Methodology

I examined three Advanced Placement United States History teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the APUSH classroom during the spring semester, 2013. In order to answer my research questions and gain awareness into the APUSH teachers' understandings, I utilized a qualitative design, specifically a descriptive case study (Stake, 2005, 2000, 1995; Yin, 2012, 2009, 2003). I conducted two interviews with each of my participants. I also took classroom observation notes, analyzed classroom artifacts/documents, asked each participant to complete a conceptual map of a historical literacy teacher, and maintained a reflexive journal. I kept the journal during the inquiry to explore deeper interpretations of my observations in each APUSH classroom. The journal served as a mechanism where I could delineate my biases and further ponder my classroom observations. I conducted a separate within-case analysis of each teacher using descriptive coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009). I then employed pattern coding in my cross-case analysis of the three study participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009).

Summary of My Research

I investigated three Advanced Placement United States History (APUSH) teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the Advanced Placement United States History classroom. After multiple readings and careful analysis of the data, I discovered that each of the three study participants had different notions about discipline-specific literacy. These different dimensions reflected the study participants' theoretical orientations to teaching disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the APUSH classroom.

For example, Shay implemented historical thinking skills and strategies. In particular, he identified the importance of historical people, places, and events, encouraged the use of primary sources as evidence, and contextualized historical documents in class instruction. He acquired disciplinary literacy beliefs and knowledge during his college preparation and utilized collaborative groups in his classroom instruction.

Michelle acquired disciplinary literacy knowledge and beliefs in graduate school. She developed disciplinary knowledge as an Advanced Placement grader. She prioritized questioning and manipulation of evidence in classroom instruction and varied instruction in her class according to the levels of her students. George implemented intermediate literacy strategies in his classroom instruction. He acquired knowledge and beliefs about disciplinary literacy in graduate school and believed relevance of the content was crucial in meeting the needs of his students.

Through cross-case analysis, I discovered seven common themes that applied to all three teachers. I also found two differences across the study participants. All three teachers believed student-centered instruction was the best pedagogical choice for student learning. They utilized document analysis in the history classroom. They established communities of learning in the classroom. All three teachers believed civic efficacy was the purpose of social studies learning and they utilized close reading and text-dependent questions in the classroom. All three teachers apprenticed their students in the argumentative genre and they varied their instruction to meet the needs of their students.

Two differences emerged regarding their understanding of literacy instruction, which also adds to the production of new knowledge about the study participants. All

three teachers exhibited varied levels of understanding of text, literacy, intermediate literacy, and disciplinary literacy that influenced their pedagogical choices in the classroom. They demonstrated varied understandings of what constitutes a writing strategy in classroom instruction. Specially, highlighting similarities and differences among cases reveals new understanding of the individual cases (Khan & VanWynserghe, 2008).

Once I analyzed the data, I reflected on each of the three participants in the study regarding their interview transcripts and observation notes. I reread each within-in case narrative. Then, I contemplated the cross-case themes I identified in the study and revisited the cross-case accounts. Finally, I arrived at four conclusions that represent a contribution to the research base on disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

Discoveries

Four major discoveries emerged from the inquiry.

1. The three teachers' beliefs about secondary disciplinary literacy instruction did not directly impact their disciplinary literacy implementation in the classroom.
2. Regardless of orientation towards disciplinary literacy, each teacher taught the investigation model of history (i.e., students examined primary and secondary sources and composed their own interpretation of a historical event using the evidence provided to them).
3. Each teacher was unaware of the term "disciplinary literacy," however, when asked to expound on the phrase, could describe disciplinary literacy pedagogical practices.

4. The three teachers in this study employed literate practices that are closely aligned to the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a).

In the following section, I assess the meanings of these discoveries by evaluating and interpreting the findings. I provide an examination for each of the four discoveries.

Within the discussion, I cite several studies from my review of the literature and other pertinent literature that either support or refute my conclusions.

Discussion

My first discovery was that the three teachers' beliefs did not directly impact their practice. Analysis of the three Advanced Placement United States History teachers indicates they each implemented some, but not all, of the characteristics of historical literacy identified by Nokes (2011). This list of established components of historical literacy is a synthesis of historical literacy literature from scholars in the field (see Lee, 2007, 2005, 2004a, 2004b, 1998; Nokes, 2010a, 2010b; Seixas, 2007, 2006a, 2006b, 2000, 1998, 1997, 1996; Seixas & Peck, 2004; VanSledright, 2009, 2004, 2002a, 200b, 2001, 1997/1998; Wineburg, 2001, 1998, 1994, 1991a, 1991b). Nokes (2011) analyzed the pertinent literature and discovered 10 characteristics prevalent across historical literacy literature. This list details the pedagogical practices in which teachers of historical literacy engage when instructing students in their classes. What is important to note is that all three teachers, regardless of their beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy, incorporated many of these accepted characteristics into their practice. Michelle and Shay had deep beliefs regarding discipline-specific literacy instruction, and as a result, they utilized disciplinary practices in the classroom on a regular basis. They embodied many of Nokes' (2011) accepted characteristics of a history literacy teacher in

their daily tutelage.

George enacted disciplinary literacy beliefs in his own investigations as an educational researcher and claimed he believed that they should not be taught in the classroom. Hence, one would assume that George would not exemplify such practices in the classroom because he believed universal literacy strategies were more beneficial for his struggling students. However, this was not the case. George materialized the largest number of Nokes' (2011) accepted characteristics of historical literacy in his classroom instruction. George incorporated eight of the 10 identified components whereas Shay utilized seven principles and Michelle included six in her instruction. In the table below, I describe the ways in which the three APUSH teachers engaged in historical literacy.

Table 12

Nokes' (2011) Accepted Characteristics of Historical Literacy

Element	Shay	Michelle	George
1. Ability to negotiate and create the types of texts that historians use and produce.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.	Required students to examine various texts and create their own interpretations of history.
2. Ability to Work effectively with historical texts.	Utilized primary sources in class.	Utilized primary sources in class.	Utilized primary sources in class.
3. Implies the possession of the skill set necessary to read, reason, write, and learn with historical evidence.	Taught students to contextualize, to write using historical evidence.	Taught students to contextualize, to write using historical evidence.	Taught students to contextualize, to write using historical evidence.
4. Move from an objective stance: history is the "past" with a single narrative to a criterialist stance: using tools of history students can develop an interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.	Encouraged students to create their own interpretation of the past.

Table 12 Continued

<p>5. Requires the use of historian’s heuristics when working with historical evidence including sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization.</p>	<p>Focused on contextualizing sources in class.</p>		
<p>6. Requires second-order concepts—ways of thinking such as change, time, cause, effect, evidence, and account.</p>	<p>Focused on using primary sources as evidence in essay writing. Focused on historical significance in class.</p>	<p>Focused on using primary sources as evidences in essay writing and discussion in class.</p>	<p>Focused on using primary sources as evidence in essay writing. Focused on cause and consequence in class.</p>
<p>7. Values historical empathy.</p>			
<p>8. Avoiding reductionist thinking.</p>			<p>Targeted instruction to include various races and cultures.</p>
<p>9. Allows students to independently construct interpretations of the past based on historical evidence. Teachers facilitate historical literacy by designing activities and assessments that allow students to construct their own interpretations rather than simply requiring students to memorize fact. Requires the students to use evidence in their writing or speech.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>	<p>Encouraged students to create their own interpretations and had to use evidence (from documents and outside information) in their writing to support their argument.</p>
<p>10. Not necessarily to produce mini-historians, but young people and adults who are able to negotiate and create the complex texts of the Informational Age.</p>			<p>Students created multimedia projects for National History Day competition on their choice of historical topic. He used one of the projects in class when they discussed the Cold War and protest songs.</p>
<p>Characteristics of HL</p>	<p>7</p>	<p>6</p>	<p>8</p>

It is interesting to note that none of the teachers focused on the idea of historical empathy in their instruction. Seixas and Peck (2004) concluded historical empathy is the most difficult historical thinking concept (or historical literacy) to master. Specifically, historical empathy is “the ability to see and understand the world from a perspective not our own. [...] It requires ‘imagining’ ourselves into the position of another [...] based on historical evidence if it is to have any meaning” (p. 113). This literacy is difficult for individuals to enact because it requires them to abandon “presentism” thinking (Wineburg, 2001) and instead have an understanding of the life and times of the people during the precise time period.

In particular, each teacher focused on document analysis and essays resulting from Document-Based Questions (DBQs) or Free-Response Questions (FRQs) in their classroom. Although George did not believe struggling readers should learn discipline-specific literacy practices his beliefs did not prevent him from teaching his students how to analyze documents and write a Document-Based Question. Ultimately, even though his beliefs did not align with the Advanced Placement United States History curriculum, his students had to take an Advanced Placement (AP) exam at the end of the spring semester where they would be required to evaluate primary and secondary sources and respond to a DBQ. As a result, George taught his students the strategies and skills needed to help them on the AP exam even though he did not think he should be doing so. Thus, I would describe George as a reluctant teacher of historical literacy, whereas Michelle and Shay were eager teachers of historical literacy.

A significant amount of research has shown that beliefs influence teaching

practice in the classroom (see Chin & Barber, 2010; Chiodo & Brown, 2007; Clark, 1988; Elbaz, 1981; Richards, 1985; Richards, Gipe, & Thompson, 1987). Other researchers have found that beliefs and practice are not always self-consistent (refer to Phipps & Borg, 2009; Raymond, 1997; Trigwell & Prosser, 1996). Various components may account for this lack of alignment between practice and beliefs including school board directives, lack of professional development and administrative support, and a mandated curriculum (Khader, 2012). In addition, Hostetler (2012) found various intercede factors mediated the belief-practice dialectic. Above all, he determined “structural and institutional pressures, image and identity, and knowing students” play a role in teacher curricular decision-making (p. 178). This discovery supports these researchers claim that practice is not always congruous with personal beliefs.

George engaged in discipline-specific methodology in his own research. However, when working with struggling readers, he thought his role was to help them achieve grade level proficiency in reading and writing, instead of teaching them discipline-specific literacy practices. Nevertheless, when his pedagogy was compared to Nokes’ (2011) accepted characteristics of history literacy, it was apparent that he, out of the three participants, exhibited more of the features of a teacher of historical literacy than Shay or Michelle. In the case of George, evidently, one can have strong convictions about a particular idea (e.g., not teaching disciplinary literacy in the classroom) but that principle does not translate to classroom instruction (see Fang, 1996; Galton & Simon, 1980; Melketo, 2012; Powers, Zippay, & Bulter, 2006). Therefore, in this instance, belief and execution of instruction may contradict each another. Nevertheless, it is important to note that teachers continue to evolve in their own teaching practice over time. Studies

demonstrate teachers' are on a continuum of professional learning (Feinman-Nemser, 2001). Beliefs are not stagnant—they develop over time as individuals continue to teach and reflect on their teaching (Buelh & Fives, 2009; Olafson & Schraw, 2006; Olson & Singer, 1994; White, 2000). A teacher does not simply master the art of teaching in an undergraduate university classroom. Expertise develops over time (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Thus, it is important to remember when examining beliefs and practice to consider each teacher individually with respect to their personal continuum of professional learning (Feinman-Nemser, 2001).

My second discovery was that regardless of each teacher's beliefs about disciplinary literacy pedagogy, they each taught the investigation model of history in which teachers encourage their students to “do history” in the classroom (see Bain, 2000; Barton & Levstik, 2009; Levstik & Barton, 2005; VanSledright, 2011, 2002a, 2002b; Wineburg, 2001). “Doing history” is a pedagogical model where students conduct investigations about the past by examining primary and secondary sources, put those sources in the proper context, and “directly enter a contested discourse in which they produce their own judgments and argue for them on the basis of historical evidence” (Sipress & Voelker, 2009, p. 26)

Furthermore, each teacher utilized a discipline-specific approach in classroom instruction (Seixas, 2000). This finding does not reaffirm VanSledright's (2002a) or Nokes' (2010b) claim of a teacher-centered pedagogy as the prevailing instructional method in the history classroom. Instead, it supports the notion of the student-centered classroom as the best pedagogical model to teach inquiry or investigation in the classroom (see Bain, 2005; Barton & Levstik, 2009, 2003; Donovan & Bransford, 2005;

Lee, 2005; Levstik & Barton, 2005; VanSledright, 2011, 2002a, 2002b). The three Advanced Placement United States History teachers encouraged the students to create their own historical interpretations using the evidence that was provided for them in the form of primary and secondary sources. These understandings were either spoken aloud in class discussions and debates, or described in written essay format. As designated by Nokes (2011), historical investigation is a key component of historical literacy, a subcategory of disciplinary literacy.

My third discovery was that the teachers acknowledged they were not familiar with the term “disciplinary literacy.” While all three teachers had strong beliefs and knowledge about teaching discipline-specific practices in the classroom, they lacked an awareness of the phrase “disciplinary literacy” and had not heard this terminology in their college classes. However, when prompted to provide a definition of the term, they were able to do so. Likewise, they could identify discipline-specific literacy practices (e.g., argumentative writing, document analysis, corroboration, using primary sources as evidence, etc.). Their conceptual maps of a historical literacy teacher revealed they learned about the disciplinary approach to teaching history in their undergraduate and graduate history and education classes at the university. Thus, while they were not familiar with the term “disciplinary literacy,” because it was not used in their history education or social studies education discourse, the teachers were able to discern some of the literate practices and processes in history. They also employed disciplinary literacy pedagogy in their classroom instruction.

Perhaps this is the case because disciplinary literacy is a relatively new construct in educational research emerging in the field in the early twenty-first century (Fang &

Coatoam, 2013). While some teacher education programs have redesigned their content-area reading courses to focus on a more discipline-specific model (see Bain, 2012; Conley, 2012; Draper, 2008; Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, Siebert, 2010; Hart & Bennett, 2012), the majority of the content-area literacy courses in colleges of education across the country are still “organized according to literacy-related topics, such as vocabulary, prior knowledge and motivation, comprehension, reasoning, and writing” (Conley, 2012, p. 142). Until all colleges of education offer a course in subject-matter literacy or they address disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the content-area literacy class, there is a risk that preservice secondary teachers will be unfamiliar with this branch of adolescent literacy.

Finally, with reference to my fourth discovery, while many teachers, administrators, and district-level supervisors in education are concerned about the implementation of the Common Core State Standards ([CCSS], NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) in the secondary schools (J. Canady, personal communication, March 18, 2013), these three APUSH teachers are not anxious about enacting the CCSS in their classrooms. In fact, the study participants already execute many of the recommended pedagogical practices found in the CCSS. As Michelle explained, “ I don’t think Common Core is all that impactful in an AP classroom. Good teaching is good teaching. I think you’re probably already hitting it.”

In particular, the teachers encouraged close reading of text and incorporated text-dependent questions into their classroom curriculum, both of which are tenants of the Anchor Standards in Reading (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). The teachers also expected their students to “read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to

make logical inferences from it” and to “cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text” (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 60), a component of the Reading Standards for Literacy in History/Social Studies 6-12. Furthermore, their emphasis on providing support to back an opinion stated in class aligns with one of the Anchor Standards for Speaking and Listening: “Present information, findings, and supporting evidence such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning and the organization, development, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience” (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a, p. 48).

My Reflection as a Teacher Educator

As a teacher educator, it is important I remember to connect theory to practice. As I reflected on my own teaching in the secondary classroom, I recognized I incorporated both discipline-specific practices and generic intermediate literacy strategies into my classroom instruction. However, with the implementation of Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) in K-12 schools across the United States in 2014-2015, I realize can do more to help prepare preservice teachers for the literacy requirements of the Common Core. Although I integrated content-area expository texts and the subject-matter literacy approach into my own teaching in the children’s literature course for preservice elementary education majors at my university, I acknowledge I am capable of further addressing disciplinary literacy pedagogy in my own teaching. For example, I might include disciplinary literacy as a seminar topic with my elementary education interns in my field supervision class. Another possibility is that I will invite content-specific educators to my literacy methods class to present to my preservice teachers how they negotiate the literate practices and processes in their particular

discipline. Moreover, I may design my disciplinary literacy course as inquiry-based where I encourage my students to pose their own wonderings about discipline-specific practices and processes and support them as they investigate their questions about disciplinary literacy throughout the semester.

My Reflection as a Researcher

My researcher reflexive journal and my conversations with my peer debriefer, a reading coach colleague, and other doctoral students in the department afforded me the opportunity to enhance my understanding of the role of the researcher and to keep my own personal bias in check. These conversations helped me isolate my personal prejudice towards historical literacy instruction in the history classroom. I also developed greater insight into the beliefs and knowledge of the three Advanced Placement United States History teacher participants. The journal allowed me to reflect about what I was seeing in the classroom, record my upmost thoughts and feelings about instructional practice and beliefs, and gain insight about my classroom observations.

In my reflexive journal, I captured my own feelings about the dissertation process. At times, I expressed my surprise and dismay about statements my participants made and about pedagogical choices I saw enacted in the classroom. I used the journal to write questions I had about classroom instruction. When I wrote in my journal, I caught myself multiple times recording my bias about best practices in literacy and historical literacy pedagogy. Ortlipp (2008) observed, “Keeping self-reflective journals is a strategy that can facilitate reflexivity, whereby researchers use their journal to examine personal assumptions and goals and clarify individual belief systems and subjectivities” (p. 695). Thus, the journal allowed me to bracket my bias and provided transparency in the

research process (Ortlipp, 2008).

Prior to crafting my implications and recommendations, I reread my reflexive journal. I predominately focused on the questions I had about the instructional practices I saw in my classroom observations and my summary statements about each participant interview. I reviewed my descriptive and pattern codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009) and mulled over my observation notes and interview transcripts. I replayed the audio recordings from both interviews with my study participants. From there, I contemplated my discoveries. My reflection provided insight into topics I wanted to address in my insinuations and directions for future research.

Implications and Recommendations

In the consequent section, I detail implications for preservice and inservice teacher education and recommendations for future research on disciplinary literacy in K-12 classrooms. In my implications for preservice and inservice teacher education, I address disciplinary literacy pedagogy for both preservice teachers and inservice teachers. I also include a section focused on content-area literacy courses. One of the participants did not study content-area literacy in any of the courses during his undergraduate teacher preparation program. While Shay enacted discipline-specific literacy practices in the classroom, he viewed reading and writing strategies as instructional practices or organizational tools as opposed to plans to get something accomplished. Thus, Shay was unacquainted with content-area literacy strategies that might help his students comprehend their text and assist in their argumentative writing. It is my belief that literacy instruction is not solely the job of the reading or English/Language Arts teacher. All teachers need to have an understanding of content-

area literacy instruction. In my recommendations for future research, I advocate for research on comprehensive literacy and disciplinary literacy with a particular focus on struggling readers, urban youth, and rural K-12 students.

Implications for preservice teacher education. Within my implications for preservice teacher education, I address implementing disciplinary literacy pedagogy into a variety of contexts.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the content-area methods class. Secondary preservice teachers need to be exposed to discipline-specific literacy practices and research methodology during their preservice teacher education program. The American Historical Association (AHA), Organization of American Historians (OAH), National Council for History Education (NCHE), and the Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History (2006) issued a challenge entitled “The Next Generation of History Teachers” to departments of history at American colleges and universities. Within this challenge, the organizations addressed history teacher preparation. The organizations proposed three basic curricular principles:

1. History teachers-in-training need to be exposed to differing interpretations and research methods early and in a sustained way.
2. History teachers-in-training need to discuss the thinking behind the work they are doing, the purposes and strategies that animate good history teaching.
3. History teachers-in-training would benefit from an integrated departmental curriculum that introduces them to a broad range of history. (American Historical Association, Organization of American Historians, National Council for History Education, & Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History, 2006, n.p.)

Perhaps, as a way to meet the three basic curricular principles posed by the AHA, OAH, NCHE, and the Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History (2006), disciplinary literacy might be incorporated into the social studies/history methods course, thus bridging collaboration among social studies educators, history educators, and literacy educators (Colwell, 2012). As I discovered in the inquiry, the study participants were not aware of the term “disciplinary literacy.” Because of this, disciplinary literacy pedagogy might be included in the methods course. The content of the course might be two-fold: 1) an introduction to history teaching pedagogy and 2) an exploration of the literate habits of the discipline. Thus, the preservice teachers would be exposed to the best practices in teaching history in the secondary classroom, essentially meeting the challenge issued by the leading history organizations to American colleges and universities.

While the above curricular principles focus solely on social studies/history courses, these beliefs resonate with every content-area taught in secondary school. All preservice content-area teachers need to be introduced to the research methods of their discipline early on in their teacher preparation program once they have been accepted into the college of education. They also need to have conversations with teacher educators and discipline-specific professors such as mathematicians, chemists, rhetoricians, and historians about the best practices in their specific area of study. Furthermore, preservice teachers ought to be exposed to a wide range of content in their particular field of study. These basic curricular goals can best be met if they are adopted into the methods course for each individual discipline or content-area.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the subject-matter literacy course. Another means of incorporating disciplinary literacy into social studies/history courses is through

the creation of subject-specific reading and writing courses for each content-area taught by both a literacy teacher educator and a content-area educator (Bain, 2012). Fang and Coatoam (2013) acknowledged that literacy teacher educators are not discipline-specialists. Specifically, they lack a deep understanding of the particular content germane to a subject. Therefore, in line with previous research (Conley, 2012; Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, & Nokes, 2012), disciplinary literacy courses ought to be a two-way effort between teacher educators. Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, and Nokes (2012) explained:

The dearth of theories and instructional practices describing and supporting specific disciplinary literacies do not make it possible for either content-area or literacy teacher educators to provide proper support for preservice secondary teachers... [C]ollaboration is not simply useful, it is essential. (p. 392)

These partnerships are also necessary to develop coherent teacher education programs (Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, & Nokes, 2012). As Draper so aptly put it, “I wonder what we [literacy teacher educators] know about the disciplines that make us think we are in a position to suggest pedagogical aims or methods for meeting those aims for the content-area classroom” (R.J. Draper, personal communication, March 27, 2013). If literacy teacher educators do not work together with other teacher educators, they run the risk of creating animosity between literacy professors and the content-area instructor, as many did with the notion of “all teachers are teachers of reading” (see Come Romine, McKenna, & Robinson, 1996; Jacobs, 2002; Mallette, Henk, Waggoner, & DeLaney, 2005; McKenna & Robinson, 2006; Moje, 2008a; Nourie & Lenski, 1998; O’Brien & Stewart, 1990; Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Disher, 1985; Ulusoy & Dedeoglu,

2011). Mark Conley explained, “It is time to move away from the missionary zeal with the disciplines” and instead pursue productive alliances with members of the disciplines (M. Conley, personal communication, March 27, 2013).

These courses should aim to deepen preservice teachers’ understanding of the discipline-specific language and discourses used to construct and communicate knowledge, and provide models of pedagogical application of these practices in the secondary classroom. The preservice teachers should explore the multi-faceted definitions of text and literacy and what these distinctively look like in the various subjects. Such a program exists at the University of Michigan for secondary education preservice teachers. Bain (2012) described:

Central to this effort [the secondary education program] has been our use of disciplinary literacy to build connections and enhance prospective teachers’ capacity to use reading and writing to teach history to a range of learners across a range of contexts. (p. 515)

While developing an entire program focused on disciplinary literacy in the various subjects takes years of planning and refining, the University of Michigan program may serve as a model for other teacher preparation programs. Thus, the first step for these programs might be the creation of a disciplinary literacy course for each of their secondary education content-areas.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the traditional content-area literacy course.

While this idea of creating separate disciplinary literacy courses for each field might not be feasible for all teacher preparation programs, another possible option is to infuse disciplinary literacy pedagogy into the traditional content-area literacy course. Teachers

must be aware of both generic reading and writing strategies and discipline-specific methods in order to meet the needs of their students. Michelle and George took a course in content-area reading at their undergraduate institution. They had a solid understanding of both discipline-specific practices and content-area approaches and used them frequently with their students.

Shay, on the other hand, had an understanding of disciplinary pedagogy, but lacked awareness of content-area reading and writing across the curriculum instruction. The reading strategies he said he used in the classroom were not reading strategies (i.e., plans to accomplish a reading task). Rather, they were instructional practices used to help facilitate knowledge comprehension. For example, Shay said a general reading method he used with his students was the Subject, Occasion, Purpose/Point of View (SOP) technique for the analysis of primary sources. This approach requires students to identify the topic of the text, why it was written, and the intent for writing the document or authorship of the document. A writing plan to Shay was the note taking process and learning how to follow an outline.

All preservice teachers need to be exposed to intermediate literacy strategies (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Faggella-Luby, Graner, Deshler, and Drew (2012) recognized a practical suggestion in regards to the discipline-specific approach and generic reading and writing strategies is to “consider how both types of strategy instruction are necessary, rather than placing them in competition with each other or advocating for one to replace the other” (p. 79) especially when working with diverse learners.

Within the content-area literacy course, the preservice teachers might investigate the literate practices specific to different subject areas (see Conley, 2012; Hart & Bennett, 2012). Multiple iterations of the course could continue to refine the content and expand on collaboration efforts among literacy and content-area educators. The preservice teachers might liaise with subject-specific and content-area educators to create lesson plans designed to teach students how to navigate the literacy tasks of a given discipline (Conley, 2012).

Team-teaching within the content-area literacy course. In addition, the course repetitions might also include the introduction of discipline-specific instructors. For example, discipline-specific professors such as historians, physicists, and biologists and teacher educators might team-teach (see Bleiler, 2012; Chang & Lee, 2010; Gaytan, 2010). Team-teaching would allow the teacher educators and the discipline-specific professors to work together on course design and disciplinary readings, both on pedagogy and content. Therefore, in a content-area literacy course, the preservice teachers might explore how they can utilize both disciplinary literacy pedagogy and content-area reading and writing across the curriculum approaches in their own classroom field experiences.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in out-of-school contexts. Preservice teachers might also benefit from a workshop on disciplinary literacy pedagogy and museum outreach (Chin, 2004; Melber, 2003). For example, a collaboration between university faculty and museum curators might lead to the creation of a workshop where preservice teachers learn about the discipline-specific texts found at a museum (e.g., primary sources, visuals, museum introductory labels, section labels, and object labels) and how they can incorporate artifacts found in a museum into their lesson planning.

It is clear there might be multiple ways to infuse disciplinary literacy pedagogy into preservice teacher education programs. Suggestions include the incorporation of disciplinary literacy into discipline-specific methods coursework, the creation of individual literacy courses for each subject, utilization of a team-teaching approach where teacher educators and discipline-specific professors collaborate on course design and content, and an opportunity to attend a workshop on museum-based education focused on disciplinary texts found in out-of-school contexts. While many of these ideas can stand alone, they may also be combined to create a teacher education program where students are exposed to disciplinary literacy in multiple courses and environments.

Implications for inservice teacher education. Within my implications for inservice teacher education, I address studying disciplinary literacy pedagogy in a variety of contexts.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy professional development training. District level reading supervisors, school-wide reading coaches, and district level content-area supervisors should facilitate a hands-on professional development (PD) training for inservice content-area teachers focused on disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Perhaps such an exercise could be accomplished in conjunction with university faculty in order to provide additional support and resources for the inservice teachers. As evidenced by this study, secondary social studies education teachers are unfamiliar with the term disciplinary literacy. While the study participants could provide an adequate definition of disciplinary literacy, they were not familiar with this subcategory of adolescent literacy. During this disciplinary literacy PD, organizers might have the teachers explore their own practices and then guide them to link their own practices to disciplinary literacy

pedagogy. The National Research Council (2012) posited, “Deeper learning [or] the process through which a person becomes capable of taking what was learned and one situation and applying it to new situations” (p. 1) is a way in which teachers might continue to develop disciplinary expertise. Through making connections between disciplinary methodology and literacy practices, the teachers will engage in deeper learning about their particular content-area.

As declared by Johnson, Watson, Delahunty, McSiwgggen, and Smith (2011), we need to “connect with more disciplinary experts across other fields to understand and implement with [in]service teachers the strategies suggested for becoming literate” (p.109). Inservice teachers should also be given an opportunity to practice these processes and practices in small groups during the training. In addition, including a speech language pathologist (SLP) in the discussions could prove fruitful, particularly when working with inservice teachers, struggling readers, and complex, discipline-specific discourse (Ehren, Murza, & Malani, 2012). The speech language pathologist might support teachers who have students in their classes who struggle comprehending, or using language (Ehren, Murza, & Malani, 2012). The SLP might lead a workshop on working with students with language disorders in the content-area classroom.

Also, it might be worthwhile to involve the mathematics coach and science coach in the professional development training. According to Sailors and Shanklin (2010), “Recent research provides a small, but promising, body of evidence that coaching has a positive impact on teacher instruction in terms of craft knowledge, domain knowledge of teachers, [...] writing instruction, and mathematics education” (p. 2). The mathematics and science coaches can facilitate conversations about the literate practices of their

disciplines, extending the teachers deeper learning about the literate processes and practices of the STEM disciplines (National Research Council, 2012).

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy in out-of-school contexts. Such collaboration with disciplinary experts might also include teachers and museum curators. Similar to the preservice teachers, inservice teachers might benefit from an outreach program featuring various local history and science museums (Chin, 2004; Melber, 2003). The teachers might attend a workshop at a local museum where staff assists teachers in designing discipline-specific lessons they can implement in the classroom. The plans might also involve a field trip, virtual or otherwise, for the students. Marcus, Levine, and Grenier (2012) found secondary social studies education teachers value museums as a means to teach historical understanding to students.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy professional learning communities. It is problematic is that literacy teacher educators are not equipped to teach disciplinary literacy on their own (Fang & Coatoam, 2013), and literacy coaches are not prepared to implement discipline-specific lessons without the support of content-specific colleagues. Consequently, a well-established partnership is crucial among literacy coaches and content-area teachers in the classroom. In order to avoid the marginalization of the literacy coach, simply viewed as a “helper to subject-area teachers” (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 629), the literacy coach and content-area teacher must come to a mutual agreement on the goals of the collaborative effort (Fang & Coatoam, 2013). Therefore, I also believe a book study/lesson study on a disciplinary literacy text would be beneficial for K-12 educators. Elementary, middle, and high school teachers might meet in professional learning communities ([PLC], DuFour 2004) designated for each content-

area (e.g., social studies, mathematics, science, vocational technology, English/Language Arts, visual arts, music, physical education). An educational professional learning community consists of a group of people who collaborate to improve learning for all in the school (DuFour, 2004). Members might spend time reading, discussing, and exploring a discipline-specific text. The school-based literacy coach could facilitate each PLC meeting and help lead the discussion.

Within this PLC book club, the teachers and literacy coach might also unpack the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) for the specific content-area or examine the Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language standards that are applicable to a particular content-area that does not have specific Common Core State Standards (e.g., visual arts, music, and physical education) (see NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). This process allows the teachers to look at each strand and discuss the major themes found in each set of standards (e.g., Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening, and Language). The structure of the PLC book club also contextualizes the professional development with all the participants as learners rather than one where the literacy coach is the instructor and the teachers are the participants.

During this time, the members might also plan lessons that utilize the new pedagogical content they learned in the book study/lesson study, which might be implemented in future social studies class sessions and later analyzed and reflected upon by the literacy coach and social studies teacher. With the assistance of the literacy coach, content-area teachers might evaluate student work samples and the creation of a bank of student exemplars to be used for comparison in later PLCs. Using the student written

work as data for the PLC might create future lessons informed by the noted strengths and weaknesses.

It is evident there are several approaches to enhance inservice teachers' understandings about disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the secondary classroom. These suggestions encourage collaboration among faculty and staff in school districts and at individual schools. The proposals are flexible in nature, in order to meet the individual needs of school and district administrators.

Recommendations for future research. My recommendations for future research address conducting research on comprehensive literacy and disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Comprehensive literacy is an all-inclusive literacy program, one where intermediate literacy and disciplinary literacy pedagogy is implemented in the classroom (NCATE, 2013). Disciplinary literacy, instruction specific to a discipline, is a component of comprehensive literacy. However, before we can conceptualize how all teachers can teach in a comprehensive literacy program, we need further research on the current perspectives of content-area teachers on content-area and disciplinary literacy and learning (Brozo, Moorman, Meyer, & Stewart, 2013). Individuals must consider where they stand in regards to their own belief system on literacy instruction in the content-area classrooms before there can be an open, productive dialogue about comprehensive literacy instruction among content specialists and literacy educators (Brozo, Moorman, Meyer, & Stewart, 2013).

Comprehensive literacy. The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2013) released a policy research brief on comprehensive literacy, which they defined as “the language used to learn and produce knowledge in specific disciplines” and

“extending curriculum-wide literacy practices across the developmental spectrum” (p. 15). With this new policy brief in mind, I suggest further research that focuses on comprehensive literacy—this combination of disciplinary literacy and transferrable literacy skills across contexts including content-areas, courses, grades, audiences, and purposes (NCTE, 2013). The Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) require students to be able to convey knowledge across subjects and they entail “teachers to become aware of how literacy expectations build on previous learning and set the stage for future learning” (NCTE, 2013, p. 15). Thus, qualitative research is needed to conceptualize how teachers can instruct in a comprehensive literacy program.

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Continued research about disciplinary literacy pedagogy is necessary in order to gain insight and understandings on how to better prepare inservice and preservice teachers to educate students how to use discipline-specific practices in the content-areas, especially in the light of the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a). I investigated three Advanced Placement United States History teachers for two units of study. Although each of my participants taught at schools of differing context, including cultural, linguistic, racially, and socioeconomic status, they all taught in the same district. My study was limited with this small number of participants, content-area, grade level, and time. Consequently, my discoveries cannot be generalized to a larger population. Therefore, I recommend continued research on disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the various subject areas in elementary and secondary school.

Research on the Common Core State Standards. This continued research on disciplinary literacy pedagogy in the content-areas might be accomplished through a

vertical collaboration across grade K-12 faculty. Clearly the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) for English/Language Arts in K-12 and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects is a perpendicular articulation of desired outcomes, but the how needs to be investigated further. We need to examine how we are to progress through the standards starting in kindergarten and ending in twelfth grade. My study participants already employed many of the practices found in the Common Core State Standards including close reading and text-dependent questions. However, there is a continued need for research on what instructional practices and texts might we use to reach those preferred products of college and career readiness?

Within this vein of research on the CCSS, I propose research to explore subject-matter teachers' conceptions about teaching students to read to apply knowledge rather than reading to learn information or learning to read. Park, van der Mandele, and Welch (2010) noted this idea of reading to apply, which they define as "extend[ing] reading to the creation of new knowledge on the part of the reader" (p. 109) where students "apply their learning to solve problems, create new products, or some other meaningful way" (p. 109) is something that teachers in career and technical education (CTE) (e.g., agricultural science education) frequently put into practice. However, it is not a concept readily found in the literacy literature. Still, reading to apply can easily be expanded from the CTE disciplines to other subjects in the secondary schools.

With the implementation of the Common Core State Standards (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010a) and the emphasis on college and career readiness, it is imperative that researchers investigate how students apply the knowledge they have learned in a text to answer a question pertaining to their studies or their work. The three APUSH teachers in

my study required their students to take the information they read in their primary and secondary sources and use it to support their argument. As Michelle stated, “They have to do something with the information they learned.”

When students read to apply, they are no longer simply absorbing facts, instead they are using their text to answer a question, support a claim, or refute a claim. Conley (2008) posited, additional research in this area can help “clarify how cognitive strategies operate in content-area classrooms to prepare adolescents for their future” (p. 85). This research could also shed light on how “young people [...] access, interpret, challenge, and reconstruct the texts of the disciplines” (Moje, 2008a, p. 100).

Disciplinary literacy pedagogy and teacher beliefs. I believe investigations into other *subjects* such as political science, geography, mathematics, biology, chemistry, and physics can lend to greater insights into the understandings of teacher knowledge and beliefs regarding disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Perhaps a survey of preservice teachers upon entering the secondary or elementary program to gauge what the potential teacher candidates know about subject-matter literacy would be beneficial. This tool would give insight into preservice teacher prior knowledge about discipline-specific practice. The instrument might be re-administered at the end of the teacher education program to ascertain how beliefs and knowledge has changed over time.

Although I conducted a comprehensive study, I believe there is more to learn from my three study participants. While I was able to come to some solid conclusions about their beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy and how their understandings of discipline-specific pedagogy impacted their classroom instruction, I would like to dig deeper into their practices. One of my lingering questions is: How do

the three Advanced Placement United States History teachers initially model the literate processes and practices of the history discipline? My study offers a slice of who these individuals are, however it does not provide a complete picture of their discipline-specific literacy practices.

Struggling readers and disciplinary literacy pedagogy. I also endorse research that examines struggling readers use of discipline-specific practices. Shanahan and Shanahan (2012) suggest struggling readers, if engaged in subject-matter text, can be successful in the classroom using disciplinary literacy methods. However, they noted, “It is impossible to answer such questions without empirical study” (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, p. 16). George and Michelle both taught struggling readers in their classes. Most of George’s students struggled with grade level, and above grade level texts. Many of Michelle’s students had difficulty reading the textbook. While Michelle differentiated her instruction according to the level of her students, George claimed to focus more heavily on intermediate literacy practices rather than discipline-specific pedagogy in the classroom. However, as evident in the discoveries, George, in fact, utilized more discipline-specific literacies in his classroom than Shay or Michelle. Thus, he crafted a unique blend of intermediate literacy strategies and disciplinary literacy pedagogy in his classroom instruction. This discovery refutes Faggella-Luby, Graner, Deshler, and Drew (2012) claim that disciplinary literacy pedagogy is not appropriate for struggling readers. Because of this, I suggest additional research in this area, specifically focusing on the incorporation of both disciplinary literacy practices and intermediate reading and writing strategies in classrooms predominately composed of struggling readers.

Urban youth and cultural modeling. I advocate for research in the area of urban youth, who are classified as struggling readers. I also suggest cultural modeling research (Lee, 2004, 2001). Cultural modeling is a “framework [that] provides a structure for conceptualizing connections between cultural funds of knowledge and disciplinary literacy” (Lee, 2004, p. 18). In this approach, there are two sources of information: disciplinary content (e.g., history, chemistry, literature, rhetoric, etc) including the habits of the mind for the specific discipline, and cultural funds of knowledge, which Lee (2004) confirmed are “acquired by students through participation in routine cultural practices” (p. 19). These cultural funds of knowledge are essentially the students’ literate practices outside of the school setting. The goal is to see the similarities in the issues and problems embarked upon and the habit of the mind used in the disciplines and in out-of-school contexts (Lee, 2004).

These two types of knowledge merge, through the act of investigating a problem or issue to create “cultural data sets which pose problems of interpretation to the student that are analogous to a target problem in an academic discipline” (Lee, 2004, p. 19). As Lee (2004) observed, cultural modeling provides an opportunity for teachers to initially reach struggling readers, particularly urban youth, with a text applicable to their background and a disciplinary text. This incorporation of a cultural text and a content-area text engages the students in an investigation pertaining to a discipline.

Rural education and disciplinary literacy pedagogy. Furthermore, I suggest research on rural elementary, middle, and high school students and discipline-specific instruction, particularly examining the Common Core State Standards and their implementation in the rural areas of the United States. I believe we need to explore the

ways to engage students from rural areas and backgrounds in disciplinary literacy pedagogy. More often than not, educational mandates and pedagogical research focus on urban and suburban schools (Hull, 2003). However, rural schools typically have fewer specialists (e.g. literacy coaches, school psychologists) on staff, compared to suburban and urban schools (Hull, 2003). Thus, I believe literacy and content-area teacher educators need to work together with rural school districts to provide additional support to teachers as the Common Core State Standards are enacted across the rural areas across the United States and teachers are expected to infuse disciplinary literacy pedagogy into their elementary and secondary classrooms. As Fang and Coatoam (2013) explained, “Findings from this work can then be used to revise and refine existing and emerging models of disciplinary literacy instruction [...] allowing them to more effectively attain the goals of disciplinary literacy instruction” (p. 631).

Summary of Study

In this descriptive case study, I investigated the knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy in three Advanced Placement United States History teachers’ classrooms. The participants worked in a large, diverse school district in a sizeable city in a state in the southeastern United States. Through descriptive coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009), I revealed within-case features for each of my participants. Using pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldaña, 2009), I uncovered seven connected cross-case analysis themes and two dissimilar facets about my participants’ knowledge, beliefs, and implementation of disciplinary literacy. I found four salient key discoveries. In the implications section of the study, I outlined specific

suggestions for colleges of education and school districts. In my recommendations, I detailed specific particulars for future studies.

A Note of Appreciation to My Study Participants

I want to thank the three teachers who made this research possible. Shay, Michelle, and George are exemplary teachers, who are passionate about teaching and care deeply for their students. In turn, their students and school administrators hold them in high regard. Shay, Michelle, and George offered pedagogy that differed considerably from the kind of classroom instruction I received in many of my high school history classes. Instead of lecture, in these three classrooms, there was authentic conversation. In all three classrooms, students felt comfortable expressing their own opinions. They sometimes even respectfully disagreed with their teacher. The teachers encouraged these types of student debates and urged students to come to their own conclusions about historical events. They also each went to great strides to meet the individual needs of specific students. To Shay, Michelle, and George, I offer my heartfelt appreciation for inviting me to their classrooms and allowing me to come to know their teaching lives.

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Appendix A

IRB Approval Letter



UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTH FLORIDA

December 18, 2012

Stephanie Bennett

Childhood Education and Literacy Studies
7505 Palmera Pointe Cir
Unit 201
Tampa, FL 33615

DIVISION OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE

Institutional Review Boards, FWA No. 00001669
12901 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MDC035 • Tampa, FL 33612-4799
(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-5618

RE:**Approved**

Amendment Request

IRB#: MS2_Pro00010353

Title: pilot: Observations of
Teacher Literacy Practices;

Interview pilot: Practice

Interview of SSE Majors;

the dissertation study is

Teachers' Beliefs,

Knowledge, and

Implementation of

Disciplinary Literacy

Pedagogy in Three

Advanced Placement

United States History

Classrooms.

Dear Ms. Bennett:

On 12/17/2012 the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and approved your Amendment by expedited review procedures.

The submitted request has been approved **from date:** 12/17/2012 **to date:** 10/26/2013 for the following:

-Hillsborough County School District extended approval of the study until 4/30/13.
Approval letter provided.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,
John Schinka, PhD,
Chairperson
USF Institutional
Review Board

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "John A. Schinka, Ph.D.".

Appendix B

IRB Pilot Observation/Dissertation Approved Consent Form

Informed Consent to Participate in Research Information to Consider Before Taking Part in this Research Study

IRB Study # _____ Pro 00010353 _____

You are being asked to take part in a research study. Research studies include only people who choose to take part. This document is called an informed consent form. Please read this information carefully and take your time making your decision. Ask the researcher or study staff to discuss this consent form with you, please ask him/her to explain any words or information you do not clearly understand. We encourage you to talk with your family and friends before you decide to take part in this research study. The nature of the study, risks, inconveniences, discomforts, and other important information about the study are listed below.

We are asking you to take part in a research study called:

Teachers' Beliefs, Knowledge, and Implementation of Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy in Three Advanced Placement United States History Classrooms

The person who is in charge of this research study is Stephanie Bennett. This person is called the Principal Investigator. However, other research staff may be involved and can act on behalf of the person in charge. She is being guided in this research by Dr. Janet Richards.

The research will be conducted at Robinson High School, Middleton High School, and Plant High School.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to:

- Understand your beliefs and knowledge about disciplinary literacy pedagogy in an APUSH classroom and how your beliefs and knowledge influence your implementation of disciplinary literacy pedagogy.

Study Procedures

If you take part in this study, you will be asked to:

- Let me observe one Advanced Placement United States History class during the fall semester. I will be looking for your literacy implementation in the classroom. This observation should last no more than an hour and a half.

- For the dissertation, I will be observing you for once class period a day, four days a week, for one month (two units of instruction) during Spring 2013. These observations will last no longer than an hour and a half each day, four days a week. I will also ask that you provide me a copy of your lesson plans and you allow me to conduct two interviews. The two interviews will be no longer than an hour and a half each and will occur in the spring semester 2013.
- I will be looking at your disciplinary literacy implementation in the classroom (for example, are you having students read and evaluate primary sources, and secondary sources; are you having students write argumentative essays).

Total Number of Participants

About 3 individuals will take part in this study at USF.

Alternatives

You do not have to participate in this research study.

Benefits

There are no known direct benefits for participating in this research.

Risks or Discomfort

This research is considered to be minimal risk. That means that the risks associated with this study are the same as what you face every day. There are no known additional risks to those who take part in this study.

Compensation

You will receive no payment or other compensation for taking part in this study.

Privacy and Confidentiality

We will keep your study records private and confidential. Certain people may need to see your study records. By law, anyone who looks at your records must keep them completely confidential. The only people who will be allowed to see these records are:

- The research team, including the Principal Investigator, study coordinator, research nurses, and all other research staff
- Certain government and university people who need to know more about the study. For example, individuals who provide oversight on this study may need to look at your records. This is done to make sure that we are doing the study in the right way. They also need to make sure that we are protecting your rights and your safety.
- Any agency of the federal, state, or local government that regulates this research. This includes the Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) and the Office for Human Research Protection (OHRP).
- The USF Institutional Review Board (IRB) and its related staff who have oversight responsibilities for this study, staff in the USF Office of Research and Innovation, USF Division of Research Integrity and Compliance, and other USF offices who oversee this research.

We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, we will not include your name. We will not publish anything that would let people know who you are.

Voluntary Participation / Withdrawal

You should only take part in this study if you want to volunteer. You should not feel that there is any pressure to take part in the study. You are free to participate in this research or withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive if you stop taking part in this study.

You can get the answers to your questions, concerns, or complaints

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, general questions, or have complaints, concerns or issues you want to discuss with someone outside the research, call the USF IRB at (813) 974-5638.

Consent to Take Part in this Research Study

It is up to you to decide whether you want to take part in this study. If you want to take part, please sign the form, if the following statements are true.

I understand that by signing this form I am agreeing to take part in research. I have received a copy of this form to take with me.

Signature of Person Taking Part in Study

Date

Printed Name of Person Taking Part in Study

Statement of Person Obtaining Informed Consent

I have carefully explained to the person taking part in the study what he or she can expect from their participation. I hereby certify that when this person signs this form, to the best of my knowledge, he/ she understands:

- What the study is about;
- What procedures will be used;
- What the potential benefits might be; and
- What the known risks might be.

I can confirm that this research subject speaks the language that was used to explain this research and is receiving an informed consent form in the appropriate language. Additionally, this subject reads well enough to understand this document or, if not, this person is able to hear and understand when the form is read to him or her. This subject does not have a medical/psychological problem that would compromise comprehension and therefore makes it hard to understand what is being explained and can, therefore, give legally effective informed consent. This subject is not under any type of anesthesia or analgesic that may cloud their judgment or make it hard to understand what is being

explained and, therefore, can be considered competent to give informed consent.

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent / Research Authorization

Date

Printed Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent / Research Authorization

Appendix C

Pilot Interview Consent Form

Informed Consent to Participate in Research Information to Consider Before Taking Part in this Research Study

IRB Study # _____ Pro 00010353 _____

You are being asked to take part in a research study. Research studies include only people who choose to take part. This document is called an informed consent form. Please read this information carefully and take your time making your decision. Ask the researcher or study staff to discuss this consent form with you, please ask him/her to explain any words or information you do not clearly understand. We encourage you to talk with your family and friends before you decide to take part in this research study. The nature of the study, risks, inconveniences, discomforts, and other important information about the study are listed below.

We are asking you to take part in a research study called:

Teachers' Beliefs, Knowledge, and Implementation of Disciplinary Literacy Pedagogy in Three Advanced Placement United States History Classrooms

The person who is in charge of this research study is Stephanie Bennett. This person is called the Principal Investigator. However, other research staff may be involved and can act on behalf of the person in charge. She is being guided in this research by Dr. Janet Richards.

The research will be conducted at USF.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to:

- Pilot the interview questions used in my dissertation to ensure clarity.

Study Procedures

If you take part in this study, you will be asked to:

- Let me pilot 32 questions that I plan to use in my first interview for my dissertation study with you to ensure clarity of the questions.

Total Number of Participants

About 3-5 individuals will take part in this study at USF.

Alternatives

You do not have to participate in this research study.

Benefits

There are no known direct benefits for participating in this research.

Risks or Discomfort

This research is considered to be minimal risk. That means that the risks associated with this study are the same as what you face every day. There are no known additional risks to those who take part in this study.

Compensation

You will receive no payment or other compensation for taking part in this study.

Privacy and Confidentiality

We will keep your study records private and confidential. Certain people may need to see your study records. By law, anyone who looks at your records must keep them completely confidential. The only people who will be allowed to see these records are:

- The research team, including the Principal Investigator, study coordinator, and all other research staff
- Certain government and university people who need to know more about the study. For example, individuals who provide oversight on this study may need to look at your records. This is done to make sure that we are doing the study in the right way. They also need to make sure that we are protecting your rights and your safety.
- Any agency of the federal, state, or local government that regulates this research. This includes the Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) and the Office for Human Research Protection (OHRP).
- The USF Institutional Review Board (IRB) and its related staff who have oversight responsibilities for this study, staff in the USF Office of Research and Innovation, USF Division of Research Integrity and Compliance, and other USF offices who oversee this research.

We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, we will not include your name. We will not publish anything that would let people know who you are.

Voluntary Participation / Withdrawal

You should only take part in this study if you want to volunteer. You should not feel that there is any pressure to take part in the study. You are free to participate in this research or withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive if you stop taking part in this study.

You can get the answers to your questions, concerns, or complaints

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, general questions, or have complaints, concerns or issues you want to discuss with someone outside the

research, call the USF IRB at (813) 974-5638.

Consent to Take Part in this Research Study

It is up to you to decide whether you want to take part in this study. If you want to take part, please sign the form, if the following statements are true.

I understand that by signing this form I am agreeing to take part in research. I have received a copy of this form to take with me.

Signature of Person Taking Part in Study

Date

Printed Name of Person Taking Part in Study

Statement of Person Obtaining Informed Consent

I have carefully explained to the person taking part in the study what he or she can expect from their participation. I hereby certify that when this person signs this form, to the best of my knowledge, he/ she understands:

- What the study is about;
- What procedures will be used;
- What the potential benefits might be; and
- What the known risks might be.

I can confirm that this research subject speaks the language that was used to explain this research and is receiving an informed consent form in the appropriate language. Additionally, this subject reads well enough to understand this document or, if not, this person is able to hear and understand when the form is read to him or her. This subject does not have a medical/psychological problem that would compromise comprehension and therefore makes it hard to understand what is being explained and can, therefore, give legally effective informed consent. This subject is not under any type of anesthesia or analgesic that may cloud their judgment or make it hard to understand what is being explained and, therefore, can be considered competent to give informed consent.

Signature of Person Obtaining Informed Consent / Research Authorization

Date

Printed Name of Person Obtaining Informed Consent / Research Authorization

Appendix D

Structured Interview

General Information

1. Name
2. Gender
3. How long have you been at your current school?
4. How long have you been a teacher?
5. How long have you taught Advanced Placement United States History?
6. Did you take AP US History as a student? If so, how do you think your experience in the class helped shape your teaching of AP US History?
7. Describe your experience at the AP US History summer institute. How many institutes have you attended?

General Educational Experiences as a Student of History:

1. Describe your formal education within the discipline of history.
2. What kinds of texts or other materials did you frequently have to use when you were in high school? In college?
3. What were the typical assignments you had to complete when you were in high school? In college?
4. How do you think your experience in high school history influenced your teaching of American History?

Experiences in Historiography

1. What methods did you learn in school regarding the interpretation of primary sources?
2. What methods did you learn in school regarding the analysis of primary sources?
3. What methods did you learn in school regarding the evaluation of primary sources?
4. What were your experiences with synthesizing information gleaned from multiple sources toward constructing an assertion?
5. What were your experiences with synthesizing knowledge gleaned from primary and secondary sources?
6. What experiences helped your theoretical and pedagogical understanding and development of “historical literacy”? Where?

General Disciplinary Literacy

1. What are the most common reading and writing strategies you use in your classroom? Why do you use them? What are their objectives?
2. Are you familiar with the literacy movement called disciplinary literacy (known also as historical literacy)? What do you know about it?
3. What literacy skills do students need in your Advanced Placement United States History class?
4. How do you describe the essential characteristics of an ideal history curriculum?
5. What kinds of teacher actions or classroom activities do you think must be implemented in history courses to maintain the disciplinary integrity of history education?

6. Do you think history teachers should teach discipline specific literacy practices in the classroom? Why or why not?
7. What do you think is the main responsibility of Social Studies teachers?
8. What do you believe disciplinary literacy to be?
9. What are your objectives with disciplinary literacy in the units being observed?

Developing Students' Literate Skills in a Discipline

1. What do you think about teaching students to read and write like members of a discipline?
2. What strategies do you use to teach students how to read and write like a member of a discipline?
3. How do you go about choosing and using appropriate texts for your students? Describe your text selections.
4. What do you believe are appropriate texts for your students?
5. What are some challenges you face in as you support students' learning about disciplinary literacy and in developing students' literacy skills in a discipline?
6. Describe your pedagogical style regarding teaching the Advanced Placement United States History class. In what ways does your pedagogical philosophy connect to your teaching style, including student assignments?
7. You have been identified as an exemplary teacher of AP US History. Why do you think you have been identified?

Appendix E

Semi-Structured Interview: Shay

1. Thinking about the lessons you just taught, what discipline specific strategies did you use for reading? For writing?
2. What were the discipline specific learning goals in the past group of lessons?
3. When you construct lessons for students, what disciplinary and topic knowledge do you think are important?
4. Define and provide an example of teaching/instructional strategy. Define and provide an example of a general reading strategy. Define and provide an example of a writing strategy.
5. Do you believe the purpose of reading in this class is to reading as pre-writing?
6. What secondary sources do you use in the classroom (or do you use all primary sources)? Why do you use those sources? Typically, what primary sources do you use? Mainly texts (written) or do you use visuals (e.g., political cartoons, maps, etc) frequently in the classroom?
7. Define what you think historical literacy means?
8. Going back to the idea of identifying importance and doing that as a reading strategy through the guided readings, how do you think this strategy makes students aware of historical significance?
9. Are you aware of any historical thinking concepts (e.g., establish historical significance, use primary source evidence, identify continuity and change, analyze

- cause and consequence, take historical perspectives, understand ethical dimensions of history)? Which do you think you teach in your class? Which do you think would be the most difficult for students to master? Which do you think the students need on the AP exam, both the MC and the essay portions? Why?
10. How do you think your knowledge and beliefs about literacy instruction, particularly discipline specific practices, influence your own instruction in the classroom?
 11. Describe the strategies you use in the fall semester to teach students how to read a historical text and start writing a historical essay? What additional strategies do you use other than the ones previously mentioned? Do you use a handout for reading strategies similar to the DBQ one you gave me?
 12. In what ways do you model the literate practices in the discipline for the students?
 13. Describe how and why you chose to become an educator.
 14. Describe and explain what you think your strengths are as an educator.
 15. Do you agree or disagree with this statement: Historical literacy—students ability to gather and weigh evidence from multiple sources, solve problems using multiple accounts, and persuasively defend their interpretation of the past is crucial for participation in a democratic and increasingly globally linked world. Why do you agree or disagree?
 16. How do you promote the official version of history in your classroom?
 17. What sources do you use to highlight the different perspectives of history including gender, race, culture?
 18. Define text and primary source.

19. How do you view the textbook? How do you view primary and secondary sources?

20. What do you know about the Common Core State Standards in Literacy for Social Studies/History, Science, and Technical Subjects?

Appendix F

Semi-Structured: Michelle

1. Thinking about the lessons you just taught, what discipline specific strategies did you use for reading? For writing?
2. What were the discipline specific learning goals in the past group of lessons?
3. When you construct lessons for students, what disciplinary and topic knowledge do you think are important?
4. Define literacy.
5. Define and provide an example of teaching/instructional strategy. Define and provide an example of a general reading strategy. Define and provide an example of a writing strategy.
6. What does it mean to write on level? How do you teach them to write on level?
7. Define what you think historical literacy means?
8. Are you aware of any historical thinking concepts (e.g., establish historical significance, use primary source evidence, identify continuity and change, analyze cause and consequence, take historical perspectives, understand ethical dimensions of history)? Which do you think you teach in your class? Which do you think would be the most difficult for students to master? Which do you think the students need on the AP exam, both the MC and the essay portions? Why?

9. How do you think your knowledge and beliefs about literacy instruction, particularly discipline specific practices, influence your own instruction in the classroom?
10. Describe the strategies you use in the fall semester to teach students how to read a historical text and start writing a historical essay? What additional strategies do you use other than the ones previously mentioned? Do you use a handout for reading strategies similar to the DBQ one you gave me?
11. In what ways do you model the literate practices in the discipline for the students?
12. Describe how and why you chose to become an educator.
13. Describe and explain what you think your strengths are as an educator.
14. Do you agree or disagree with this statement: Historical literacy—students ability to gather and weigh evidence from multiple sources, solve problems using multiple accounts, and persuasively defend their interpretation of the past is crucial for participation in a democratic and increasingly globally linked world. Why do you agree or disagree?
15. How do you promote the official version of history in your classroom?
16. What sources do you use to highlight the different perspectives of history including gender, race, culture?
17. Define text and primary source.
18. How do you view the textbook? How do you view primary and secondary sources?
19. What do you know about the Common Core State Standards in Literacy for Social Studies/History, Science, and Technical Subjects?

20. It seems like two skills you stressed were manipulating evidence and questioning. Why are these skills important?

Appendix G

Semi-Structured: George

1. Thinking about the lessons you just taught, what intermediate literacy and discipline specific strategies did you use?
2. What were the discipline specific learning goals in the past group of lessons?
3. When you construct lessons for students, what disciplinary and topic knowledge do you think is important?
4. Define and provide an example of teaching strategy.
5. Define and provide an example of an instructional strategy.
6. Define and provide an example of a general reading strategy.
7. Define and provide an example of a writing strategy.
8. What does it mean to write on level? How do you teach your students to write on level?
9. Define what you think historical literacy means?
10. Are you aware of any historical thinking concepts (e.g., establish historical significance, use primary source evidence, identify continuity and change, analyze cause and consequence, take historical perspectives, understand ethical dimensions of history)? Which do you think you teach in your class? Which do you think would be the most difficult for students to master? Which do you think the students need on the AP exam, both the MC and the essay portions? Why?

11. How do you think your knowledge and beliefs about literacy instruction, particularly discipline specific practices, influence your own instruction in the classroom?
12. Describe the strategies you use in the fall semester to teach students how to read a historical text and start writing a historical essay?
13. In what ways do you model the literate practices in the discipline for the students?
14. Describe why you chose to become an educator.
15. Describe and explain what you think your strengths are as an educator.
16. Do you agree or disagree with this statement: Historical literacy—students ability to gather and weigh evidence from multiple sources, solve problems using multiple accounts, and persuasively defend their interpretation of the past is crucial for participation in a democratic and increasingly globally linked world. Why do you agree or disagree?
17. How do you promote the official version of history in your classroom?
18. What sources do you use to highlight the different perspectives of history including gender, race, culture e.g., the unofficial version of history?
19. Define literacy.
20. Define text.
21. Define primary source.
22. What do you know about the Common Core State Standards in Literacy for Social Studies/History, Science, and Technical Subjects?
23. Why do you have your students read paragraphs aloud in the text during some of your textual analysis assignments?

About the Author

Stephanie Maria Bennett earned her Bachelor's Degree in Political Science and Secondary Education from Middle Tennessee State University in 2006, and a Master's Degree in Reading Education from the University of South Florida in 2009. Prior to entering the Ph.D. program, Stephanie taught high school social studies for three years and middle school intensive reading for one year.

As a Graduate Assistant in the Childhood Education and Literacy Studies Department, Stephanie taught undergraduate courses in literacy and supervised Level I, Level II, and Level III interns in elementary education. Stephanie has published articles in literacy, multicultural education, and social studies journals and presented at local, state, national, and international education conferences. She is an assistant professor in literacy education at Mississippi State University.