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The Experiences of Secondary Social Studies Teachers With Historical Thinking Skills

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**THE EXPERIENCES OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS WITH
HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS**

by

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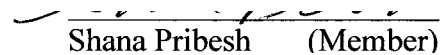
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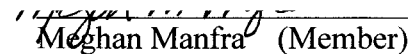
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ABSTRACT

THE EXPERIENCES OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS WITH HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS

Denise Lorraine Trombino
Old Dominion University, 2010
Director: Dr. Linda Bol

In this descriptive, mixed methods study, the researcher investigated secondary social studies teachers' college course experiences with and classroom use of historical thinking skills (HTS). Questionnaires were distributed to 160 teachers in a large public school system in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Forty percent of the questionnaires were returned. From the 40%, a purposeful sample was created. Observations, interviews, and analysis of instructional documents were used to gather data from the purposeful sample. The results showed that high school social studies teachers reported a range of experiences with and use of HTS. Teachers reported more exposure to HTS in content courses than in methods courses. Teachers reported differences in experiences based on years of teaching experience and degree. The majority of teachers reported limited exposure to and use of explicit instruction. They reported using a variety of sources in their classrooms. Overall, the responses to the open-ended items suggested that teachers used HTS in college courses to varying degrees, they included sources in their lessons, and they desired specific training related to HTS and their teaching assignments. Both the interviews and observations produced evidence of HTS. During the interviews teachers reported more exposure to HTS in content courses as opposed to methods courses. They also described different activities that they include in their lessons that address HTS. The classroom observations indicated

that teachers incorporated diverse sources into their lessons. Teachers used questioning techniques to involve students with critical analysis of source material. Overall, teachers experienced and used corroboration and contextualization more so than sourcing or explicit instruction.

Director of Advisory Committee: Dr. Linda Bol

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends who urged me to pursue this academic journey. My first step on this academic path began long ago as an idea that my father nurtured. My dad, Trigger Gaschler, always believed in my abilities, even in the face of seemingly insurmountable obstacles. My fond memories of my father propelled me forward during moments of despair. In addition, I owe much of my success to Grace Clark, my partner. With her constant support, sacrifices, and encouragement I found the strength to pursue a dream; I could not have completed this journey without her support. My dearest friends, Penny and BD Laderberg, created regular outlets to rescue me from my frustrations, and they provided opportunities for me to rediscover my inner child. I am indebted to Penny and BD for their playful support. I also derived strength from the Yoga Ladies along with my Starbucks friends who sent positive thoughts in my direction. At the university, I developed friendships with two individuals who traveled with me on this journey, Camilla Walck and Patti Horne. As research colleagues we formed a valuable support network. Camy and Patti grounded me when I doubted my ability to continue. Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my high school students. Their faces and hopes for a future compel me to serve as an agent of change.

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THE EXPERIENCES OF SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS WITH HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The ability to interpret material from the past is a vital skill in the social studies classroom. According to Barton and Levstik (2004), analysis of historical events creates a foundation that allows citizens to function in a democratic society. Critical thinking improves analysis of materials and events as students learn to construct meaning; guided practice with critical analysis provides a way for students to develop skills that transfer to situations in society. The analytical skills associated with the 21st century revolve around critical reasoning (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). For this reason, it is important for students to explore a variety of materials as they learn to construct meaning of historical events. The social studies classroom provides a rich environment for developing critical thinking skills, especially when teachers incorporate historical thinking in their lessons.

Social studies teachers have a unique opportunity to create dynamic lessons that bring historical events to life for their students. To do this, teachers need to include structured strategies for analysis and use a variety of sources that reach beyond the textbook. If teachers intend for students to employ critical thinking in the history classroom, then it seems logical to conclude that teachers would need to demonstrate these skills and allow time for practice (Reisman & Wineburg, 2008). According to Martin and Wineburg (2008), teachers must develop strategies that make thinking about

sources and the varied meanings visible to their students. However, some studies indicated that too often social studies teachers rely on textbooks as an authentic source without questioning other interpretations of the past (Gillaspie & Davis, 1997; Van Hover & Yeager, 2004; Wineburg, 1991b).

With appropriate training, teachers could bring the complexities of historical thinking to their students. By exploring the interpretative nature of history in a classroom that supports critical analysis of different perspectives, teachers can provide students with avenues that enrich their understanding of the intricate fabric of the past. It is essential that teachers first understand and appreciate the process of analyzing the past. After teachers grasp how to engage in the analytical processes associated with doing history, then they can demonstrate these skills to their students. However, Yilmaz (2008) concluded that teachers frequently failed to address the interpretive aspect of history; while Van Hover and Yeager (2004) noticed that historical thinking skills did not always transfer from preservice experiences to first year teaching. By describing and studying the experiences of secondary social studies teachers with source analysis, it may be possible to identify strategies that would help to focus teachers' attention on HTS. The results could be used to design training that could enhance teachers' skills and build their confidence with creating and presenting lessons that actively engage the learners as interpreters of the past.

When teachers structure their lessons around different sources and move beyond lectures and textbooks, a rich tapestry of the past unfolds as students learn to process historical material in the same fashion as historians. Historical thinking involves the use of critical thinking skills while interpreting materials from the past (Wineburg, 2001).

However, an over reliance on lectures and textbooks may create an obstacle to HTS, since it limits exposure to the diverse voices of the past (Wineburg, 1991b). Earlier qualitative studies addressed the different processing skills used by students, preservice teachers, inservice teachers, and historians (Bohan & Davis, 1998; Booth, 1983; Wiersma, 2008; Wineburg 1991a, 1991b). Also, in a study of preservice social studies teachers, Monte-Sano and Cochran (2009) identified a need to examine how preservice teachers learn to teach HTS. Beyond preservice teachers, Russell III (2008) found that classroom teachers rarely used evidentiary analysis in the history classroom. Other studies addressed HTS and the processes used to understand material (Nokes, Dole, & Hacker, 2007; Wiersma, 2008; Wineburg, 1991a). These earlier studies highlight the difficulties associated with doing history.

Theoretical Framework

Sourcing, Corroboration, and Contextualization

Historical thinking skills include the heuristics of sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization. The foundation of HTS begins with source analysis. The process of identifying authorship, bias, and relationships fits into the domain of sourcing. Sourcing involves identifying the type of source, establishing authorship, bias, and relationships. Wineburg (1991a, 1991b) observed that historians practiced sourcing before reading texts and documents, allowing the reader to use a critical eye to construct meaning. However, students rarely practiced sourcing, and Wineburg (1991a) stressed that sourcing is an essential first step in critical analysis. Teachers play a crucial role in demonstrating how to analyze sources, and one should not assume that social studies teachers possess an innate ability to convey HTS to their students.

Another essential component of HTS is corroboration, the process of comparing and contrasting a variety of sources that surround an event. Wineburg (1991a) studied historians and high school students as they analyzed sources, and he observed that historians completed several reviews of the materials before arriving at a conclusion. However, students did not engage in the same degree of review, and they arrived at faulty conclusions. Wineburg (1991b) noted that history's narrative nature and teachers' attachment to the textbook impede critical analysis.

As learners process varied voices from the past, they engage in the third HTS heuristic, contextualization. Contextualization involves placing the material in time and space to draw conclusions and construct meaning. Historians learn how to discern the relevance and accuracy of sources when constructing meaning, but students struggle with the process. By verbalizing thoughts during a thinking aloud process, learners begin to practice HTS as they analyze different materials; thinking aloud enhances critical analysis (Stahl, Hynd, Britton, McNish, & Bosquet, 1996; Wineburg, 1991a, 1991b). With practice and experience designing lessons that support HTS, teachers could create a learning environment that supports critical analysis.

To move toward critical analysis, students would benefit from explicit instruction that includes modeling HTS, guided practice, and feedback (Wineburg, 2001). The use of HTS increases critical interpretation as students move away from factual recall and approach the active process of constructing meaning. With guidance from skillful teachers, students can broaden their understanding as they develop interpretation skills and search for causal relationships to gain a deeper meaning of historical events. If

students are expected to develop critical thinking skills in the history classroom, then teachers must develop strategies to teach critical thinking and HTS.

Many studies addressed the importance of teaching the process of interpreting multiple sources to move learners from novice to expert. The exploration of different perspectives from a variety of sources improves one's interpretative abilities (Booth, 1983; Bohan & Davis, 1998; Nokes et al., 2007; Stahl et al., 1996; VanSledright & Kelly, 1998; Wineburg, 1991a). In a study of college students and their reasoning skills, Rouet, Britt, Mason, & Perfetti (1996) concluded that exposure to a variety of sources modified how students processed material. Instruction and practice allowed students to construct knowledge, improve confidence, and create processing networks (Stahl et al., 1996; Wineburg, 1991b, 1998). Critical analysis deepens as students gain experience with source analysis. Therefore, it is crucial to determine how well teachers understand and utilize HTS in their classrooms. If teachers possess confidence with incorporating HTS in their lessons, then they can demonstrate how to unlock the vibrant stories of the past.

Explicit Instruction

One useful strategy that helps students interpret the different voices of the past is explicit instruction. Explicit instruction involves modeling, guided practice, and feedback. One should not assume that social studies teachers understand the importance of explicit instruction. A few studies explored the role of developing organizational structures and accessing prior knowledge associated with HTS, but a gap exists in the research. VanSledright and Brophy (1992) determined that HTS could be taught and used to provide a structure for learning for elementary students. At the college level, Crain-Thoreson, Lippman, and McClendon-Magnuson et al. (1997) studied preservice

social studies teachers and their use of prior knowledge and metacognitive strategies.

This area of research would benefit from studies that describe the experiences of social studies teachers at the secondary level, because the studies would address an area that has received insufficient attention. VanSledright (2004) stressed that, “The academic development between novices and experts is a gap that history teachers...can strive to close.” (p. 230).

The studies highlight the need to identify what engaging teachers do in their classrooms that supports historical thinking skills. As teachers attempt to build lessons around historical thinking skills, they face many dilemmas in the era of high-stakes testing (VanSledright, 2002). It is important for teachers to comprehend how to engage students in the process of doing history. As noted by Martin and Wineburg (2008), it is critical for teachers to understand the process and assist students in identifying faulty thinking. These studies suggest that social studies teachers and their students would benefit from guided practice with historical thinking. This is vital for teacher preparation programs. If one expects HTS to be used in the classrooms, teacher preparation programs may have to be modified.

Research Questions

This study focused on HTS and the preparation and experiences of social studies teachers in a large public urban school system. Participants included secondary teachers assigned to teach social studies classes at the high school level. This study addressed three main questions:

1. What type of preparation and experiences did secondary social studies teachers have with source analysis and historical thinking skills in college content courses,

- methodology courses, and professional development activities?
2. Do the experiences differ based on years of experience and type of degree?
 3. How do secondary social studies teachers use HTS (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) in their lessons?

Design and Methods

This descriptive study utilized a mixed methods approach and relied on questionnaires, observations, interviews, and document analysis. This study employed the historical thinking skills questionnaire (HTSQ) to explore the preparation and experiences of secondary social studies teachers with HTS in their content courses, methodology courses, and professional development activities. Also, the HTSQ addressed teachers' use of HTS in their classrooms. In addition to Likert scale items, the HTSQ used open-ended items to explore teachers' experiences and professional development activities associated with HTS. To provide more in-depth, detailed information, observations, interviews, and document analysis were used to assess the degree to which a selected smaller group of participants actually employed HTS (Patton, 2002, p. 235). For the smaller group, teachers were observed and interviewed, and they provided instructional documents.

The HTSQ was administered to high school social studies teachers under contract to teach social studies in grades 9 through 12 in a large, urban public school system in the Mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The sample size was 160 teachers. Teaching assignments included any of the social studies subjects, and years of teaching experience varied. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality was protected. The smaller sample for observations and interviews was purposefully selected.

In the second phase of the study, observations and interviews were used. The results for items that addressed classroom use of HTS were used to identify teachers for the typical case, purposeful sample. Teachers were selected for the purposeful sample if they earned scores close to the mean for the 15 Likert scale items that asked about classroom use of HTS. In addition, demographic information was used to identify teachers within the purposeful sample who were assigned to teach World History or United States History. The majority of freshmen and sophomores enroll in World History, while United States History is the required course for all juniors in the school system used for this study.

The observations and interviews were scheduled based on a mutually agreed upon time. The classroom observations were scheduled with the selected teachers by asking them to select times when they planned to use HTS in lessons. After the observations, times were established with each teacher to conduct an interview. The interviews occurred in each teacher's classroom after school hours. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and interviewees were provided with copies of the transcripts to allow them to check for accuracy. A consent form was obtained for observations and interviews.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. As a convenience sample it has limited external validity. The results have limited generalizability to secondary social studies teachers from one urban public school system in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. However, the school system was representative of typical urban environments with diverse populations. Although some scales on the questionnaire were supported by

evidence for their reliability and validity based on a pilot study (Trombino, Bol, Manfra, & Pribesh, 2009), new scales assessing classroom use of HTS were developed for the purpose of the present study. Reliability of the new scales was estimated using Cronbach's alpha. As is the case with all survey research, this study relied mostly on teachers' self-reports of their experiences with minimal direct evidence that they possess the knowledge and skills. However, the more in-depth part of the study included observations, interviews, and analysis of instructional documents of a small sample and provided verification and triangulation of results to improve internal validity.

Overview of Chapters

This chapter has introduced the reader to the concepts and issues associated with HTS in the secondary social studies classroom. It addressed the importance of interpretation and critical thinking as a 21st century skill. In addition, Chapter I defined the historical thinking skills of sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction in light of prior studies. In Chapter II, the literature review for HTS highlights earlier studies and the difficulties associated with using critical analysis in the secondary social studies classroom. Chapter III includes a detailed description of the HTS study, as well as the rationale for and methodology used in this study. Chapter IV presents the findings of this study, whereas Chapter V discusses the results in light of the literature, describes limitations, directions for future research, and practical implications for the findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter will present findings from previous studies that addressed historical thinking skills. It will begin with early studies that identified a need to explore how to teach history. The foundational studies will be followed by a discussion of studies that focused on elementary and secondary history students and their use of historical thinking skills, and the impact of cultural perspectives. Chapter II will then describe studies conducted at the college level with preservice social studies teachers. Next, this chapter will present studies associated with inservice social studies teachers, followed by emerging patterns and implications.

Historical Thinking

Conscientious educators seek ways to improve instruction for students. Previous research attention has focused on reading skills and competencies in math and science. Until recently, there was little focus on historical thinking skills. Historical thinking skills include strategies used to understand and interpret various sources of information to process historical material (Wineburg, 2001). Typically, history instruction includes presentations of information in narrative form. However, recent historical thinking studies draw attention to the significance of active learning, processing, and constructing understanding. The results of many studies call attention to factors that influence a student's ability to successfully develop HTS, such as culture and family background, prior knowledge, instruction, curriculum frameworks, and high-stakes testing (Barton and

Levstik, 2004). In addition, teacher training arises as an issue because many teachers enter the classroom with little or no experience using HTS (Thornton, 2005). Although historical thinking incorporates metacognitive skills and reading skills, the complex interpretative nature of history complicates the learning process. Studies from 1983 to the present establish research foundations that identify major issues and address important implications for teacher training and classroom instruction.

Foundational Studies

A foundational study from 1917 identified a need for research in history education. Bell (1917) studied history ability in 1500 elementary and secondary students. Bell focused on the acquisition of factual information and how it correlated with gender and school setting, as students responded to sets of questions that required written responses about specified dates, people, events, terms, concepts, and maps. Bell noted the role of socio-economic status (SES) as he compared performance levels across different schools. Bell also found that the omission of early history instruction did not significantly influence performance at the high school level, which caused him to question whether elementary history instruction was a “waste of time” (p. 268). Bell’s early study of factual knowledge provides a place to begin the exploration of historical thinking skills. His 1917 findings indicate that students struggled with mastery of information, earned a wide range of scores, favored biographical material, and males outperformed females. Some of the same concerns echo through today’s classrooms. After nearly 100 years, historical thinking remains elusive to many educators and students. The problems revolve around the skills needed to understand and interpret the diverse threads from the past to construct meaning.

More contemporary foundational HTS studies addressed several aspects associated with skill development as it relates to learning history. Foundations for historical thinking research include the work of Booth (1983) and Wineburg (1991a). Booth identified distinct features of historical thinking that involved sorting evidence, creating accurate accounts, and analyzing students' thought processes. Booth studied secondary level World History students ages 11 to 16 in England over 17 months. Booth found that historical thinking and content knowledge have specific features that relate to interpretation of evidence. In Booth's study, multiple sources were embedded into instruction. Formal assessments were administered to the participants. Booth concluded that teaching methodology, use of multiple documents, and course content favorably influenced historical understanding. According to Booth, instruction that utilized multiple sources, focused on active learning, and relied on discussion enhanced thinking skills, which increased depth of understanding.

Building on Booth's findings, Wineburg (1991a) argued for the need to include domain specific studies for historical understanding because of the interpretative nature of history. Wineburg identified a need to study what historians do when they process historical material. In his study, Wineburg included eight historians and eight high school students who planned to attend college. His study focused on written and pictorial sources associated with the Battle of Lexington. Using qualitative data analysis, Wineburg identified three heuristics that allowed participants to actively engage with sources. The heuristics included sourcing (identifying author, date, title, type of source), corroboration (comparing documents), and contextualization (making meaning). Wineburg used the think aloud (verbalizing thoughts about the material) procedure in his

qualitative study of historians and college-bound high school students. He concluded that historians constructed schema and created an elaborate processing network, but students did not. Wineburg's findings are important because they draw attention to the need to provide structure for teaching historical thinking skills to improve interpretation and analysis of various types of sources.

Historical Thinking Skills at the Elementary and Secondary Levels

The Process of HTS

Many studies identified the importance of teaching the process of interpreting multiple sources to improve learners' ability to construct meaning (Rouet et al., 1996; Stahl et al., 1996; VanSledright & Kelly, 1998). In an exploratory study of fifth grade students, VanSledright and Kelly (1998) identified factors that influenced critical reading and understanding of historical records. They concluded that understanding improved when students received training in how to think aloud and work with multiple sources. With reference to sources, Wineburg (1991a) discovered that high school students chose the text as the most reliable source, whereas historians did not. According to Wineburg (1991b), a key aspect associated with learning history involves knowing what type of questions to pose when analyzing material. With attention to questioning, group discussion, and historical inquiry, Okolo, Ferretti, and MacArthur (2007) studied a sixth grade inclusion history class. They concluded that sixth grade inclusion students improved their historical thinking skills with structured guidance as they interpreted different sources. Nokes et al. (2007) also addressed historical thinking heuristics in a study of 246 eleventh grade U.S. History students assigned to two teachers. They used a pretest-posttest design that included four types of instruction. Nokes et al. concluded that

the use of diverse material resulted in improved learning of historical content for high school history students. By teaching heuristics and providing opportunities to explore different perspectives and varied sources, students' interpretative abilities can improve.

The process of interpretation caused problems for many students when they lacked experience with source analysis that contained conflicting materials (Stahl et al., 1996). Without guided practice comparing and contrasting contradictory materials, students struggled with corroboration as they reviewed sources that represented various views of an event. This is supported by Stahl et al. who found that advanced high school students needed assistance with sifting through sources. However, as students increased their depth of understanding, they developed interpretation skills and searched for causal relationships. With instruction that incorporated thinking aloud, modeling, and guided practice, students engaged in group analysis of documents and they used sourcing, corroboration, and contextualization to interpret documents. Instruction and practice allowed students to construct knowledge, improve self-efficacy, and build processing networks as they moved from novice to expert (Stahl et al. 1996; Wineburg 1991b, 1998). Taken as a whole, these studies indicate that instruction and learning benefit from the structured inclusion of HTS.

Interpretation of Sources

Trustworthiness of sources arose as another interpretation issue. Wineburg (1991b) explored how historians and high school students read historical texts. Historians (experts) ranked the text as least trustworthy, whereas students (novices) ranked the text as most trustworthy. Experts constructed fluid and elaborate subtexts automatically as they actively engaged with the written material, but students rarely

demonstrated this skill. Wineburg (1991b) described this as a social exchange not learned by students because they see history as static. Wineburg (1991b) speculated that the narrative nature of history instruction and the reliance on the textbook as the sole source of accurate information reinforces students' naïve beliefs about history.

Lack of organizing frameworks and critical reading posed problems for many students. In a study of elementary students, VanSledright and Brophy (1992) used interviews and concluded that students lacked organizing structures and frameworks for processing history, but they could learn the strategies. Specifically, the 10 students in this study lacked an understanding of the interpretive nature of history. However, VanSledright and Brophy determined that historical thinking skills could be taught and used to provide a structure for learning. With reference to critical reading as it relates to historical thinking and novices, Martin and Wineburg (2008) found that high school students enhanced their historical thinking skills after receiving instruction with critical reading that included modeling thinking aloud and guided practice. According to Martin and Wineburg, novices need explicit instruction and practice in using the background information and what is missing from a source to gain a comprehensive understanding.

In a study of high school students, Reisman and Wineburg (2008) stressed the importance of adding life to history by including context, debate, and questioning. This process can facilitate long lasting social studies understanding. When students gain experience with critical analysis of sources under the guidance of a skilled teacher, they improve their ability to move toward a rich understanding of past events.

Themes for Incorporating HTS

Studies that explored the elementary and secondary history classrooms produced themes for incorporating historical thinking skills. The grade levels ranged from 4th through 11th, and included advanced classes as well as inclusion classes that blended special education students and regular education students. These studies suggest that multiple source analysis creates a foundation for historical thinking. Many students viewed the textbook as the most reliable source. However, when exposed to different views and given appropriate guidance, students improved their ability to interpret items from the past. In addition, with reference to multiple sources, students in these studies demonstrated a need for explicit instruction that guides them through the processes of sourcing, thinking aloud, corroborating, and constructing meaning. These studies call attention to the importance of presenting multiple perspectives and structured analysis strategies as teachers guide students through questioning and group discussion to construct meaning from historical material.

The diverse cultural backgrounds of students influence how they learn. Several studies have explored the role of culture and personal perspective on historical thinking and understanding (Barton, 2001; Fournier & Wineburg, 1997; Goldberg, Schwarz, & Porat, 2008; Hartmann & Hasselhorn, 2008; Wineburg, Mosborg, Porat, & Duncan, 2007). For instance, Barton (2001) compared perspectives of children in Northern Ireland and the United States to investigate the cultural tools that mold historical thought. Barton noted that children in Northern Ireland possessed a depth of understanding of selected portions of history, but U.S. children emphasized individual achievements over time. In addition, gender differences and a male-dominated culture shaped students'

ideas about the past. In a picture analysis study of fifth and eighth grade students, Fournier and Wineburg (1997) explored how students projected themselves into historical roles. Their findings demonstrated the need to present multi-dimensional aspects of historical events. A related photo-analysis study of the Vietnam War addressed the influence of family on historical knowledge and personal perspectives as students formed collective memories (Wineburg et al. 2007). Beyond a lived experience, changes occur with collective memories of pivotal events from one generation to another, due to personal experience and the influence of cultural diffusion that occurs from exposure to movies and digital material (Goldberg et al. 2008). The results of these studies contain implications for meaningful classroom instruction; one's cultural experiences influence perception. Perception influences how one learns and instruction in the history classroom would benefit from attention to multi-cultural awareness.

Historical Thinking Skills at the College Level

Skill Development

In order to appreciate what occurs in the elementary and secondary history classrooms, one must explore the college experiences of prospective teachers. In a study of college students, Rouet et al. (1996) analyzed reasoning skills as students processed historical documents. The college students rated documents for usefulness and trustworthiness, before composing a short essay. Rouet et al. used the written work to investigate whether different types of documents influenced students' reasoning. Similar to the findings from studies of elementary and secondary students, Rouet et al. concluded that exposure to a variety of sources modified how students processed material. In another study of college history students, Russell III (2008) relied on observations of the

instructor, interviews of the instructor and students, and artifact analysis. He concluded that the instructor relied on lecture, as opposed to critical analysis of sources, and failed to capture the interest of the students. As a result, students struggled to independently construct meaning. These studies highlight the importance of providing structured practice with a variety of sources to improve students' ability to analyze historical material.

Structure and Strategies

Structure for HTS was also addressed in a study of preservice teachers. Crain-Thoreson et al. (1997) analyzed the use of prior knowledge and metacognitive strategies used by 24 preservice teachers enrolled in an educational psychology course.

Participants received training in the use of thinking aloud to analyze segments of documents. Crain-Thoreson et al. speculated that elaboration of prior knowledge may facilitate comprehension, but could also cause interference. However, they concluded that in this study thinking aloud did not correlate with increased comprehension, and noted the need for additional studies.

Some prospective teachers experienced challenges as they explored historical thinking. According to Gillaspie and Davis (1997), a lack of exposure to HTS was evident in the three elementary student teachers in their study. Gillaspie and Davis analyzed thinking aloud responses and written responses from the teachers as they processed different sources about the bombing of Hiroshima. Gillaspie and Davis concluded that the three teachers lacked sufficient knowledge of the event, and they failed to question the authenticity of the material. In a study of student teachers, Bohan and Davis (1998) discovered that inexperience with historical thinking created difficulties

for student teachers. Bohan and Davis used 16 sources, thinking aloud, and writing to determine how student teachers processed sources. They found that student teachers frequently failed to consider context when evaluating sources.

In a descriptive pilot study of 91 preservice social studies teachers and their experiences with historical thinking skills, Trombino et al. (2009) used a questionnaire to rate experiences in content and methodology courses. The results indicated that the majority of preservice teachers experienced some exposure to historical thinking skills. However, the preservice teachers reported more exposure to historical thinking skills in methods courses as opposed to content courses. In addition, the majority of preservice teachers reported a general lack of training in historical thinking skills in their college courses. In another study of preservice teachers, Fallace (2007) concluded that mere exposure to sources was insufficient for training preservice teachers to incorporate historical thinking skills. Fallace called attention to the need to conduct additional research of preservice teachers. Many factors influence one's ability to make sense of the past.

The potential to improve history instruction and learning resides in applying these research findings to teacher training. An exploratory study conducted by Seixas (1998) focused on 37 student teachers and their social studies methods class. Seixas explored their historical thinking skills, and identified implications for instruction. Seixas concluded that the student teachers in his study received negligible methodological training, and this complicated their efforts to provide meaningful instruction during student teaching. Seixas analyzed how the student teachers and their limited experiences

and errors were associated with presentism as they struggled to design appropriate lessons.

In a study of preservice teachers, Monte-Sano and Cochran (2009) sought to determine how teacher candidates learned to teach history. They conducted an in-depth analysis of two candidates over the course of their teacher training, and concluded that each candidate exited the program with different strengths and weaknesses associated with historical thinking skills. Monte-Sano and Cochran concluded that individuals develop history teaching skills along a continuum. In a related study, Mayer (2006) studied one student teacher as she integrated historical thinking skills into her lessons. From his analysis, he found that the process of incorporating historical thinking skills required time for reflection and a supportive environment. He concluded that a need exists to conduct additional case studies. If teacher education programs intend to prepare history teachers for the classroom, then it appears that the programs should devote attention to the challenges associated with mastering historical thinking skills.

The preservice teachers in these studies mirrored the struggles displayed by elementary and secondary students. Just as students wrestled with making sense of multiple sources to construct meaning, so did preservice teachers. Interpretation presented challenges for students as well as preservice teachers. Students and preservice teachers derived benefits from instruction that included modeling and guided practice with historical thinking skills.

Historical Thinking Skills and Inservice Teachers

In the era of high-stakes testing, many dilemmas arise for the history teacher. Teachers battle with curriculum frameworks and swift pacing guides, as they attempt to

juggle critical thinking instruction and content knowledge. In a four month researcher-practitioner study, VanSledright (2002) used his classroom to engage his students in historical thinking. His students functioned as interpreters of the past, and VanSledright hoped that they would improve their understanding of the past. VanSledright wrote about his experiences in a way that permits the reader to visualize what transpired in the group debates. His students reviewed numerous documents that represented different perspectives. The fact that the majority of his students refused to abandon undocumented explanations of the Starving Time in Jamestown astonished VanSledright and left many unanswered questions. In addition, VanSledright expressed concern that the rich process of in-depth historical analysis, although beneficial for critical thinking development, caused him and his students to fall behind the pacing of the curriculum framework. However, VanSledright stated that in order to educate students as democratic citizens, one must incorporate historical thinking skills to improve the chances of creating responsible, active citizens. To rationalize his choice, VanSledright states "...what it offered was far more valuable than content coverage." (p. 1108). Every thoughtful history teacher faces this dilemma. Wineburg, Reisman, and Fogo (2007) expressed concern that high-stakes accountability associated with end-of-course tests impedes using historical thinking.

The beginning teacher must find a balance between high-stakes accountability and rich instruction that allows students to interpret the past. Previous studies have investigated issues related to finding a balance between accountability and critical analysis. In a study of three beginning history teachers, Van Hover and Yeager (2004) examined the issues they faced at the start of their teaching careers. They used interviews

and observations of the teachers during their second year of teaching history. Two teachers taught American history at the high school level, and one taught world cultures at the middle school level. Part of this study sought to determine the teachers' use and understanding of historical thinking skills. Van Hover and Yeager found that all three teachers used lecture predominantly, and they relied on the textbook as the main source of information. In addition, the teachers emphasized factual recall as an important part of instruction, and they expressed doubt that their students could engage in historical inquiry. Van Hover and Yeager (2004) concluded that the three teachers received little support for exploring historical thinking in their classrooms. They also identified a disconnect from preservice training to inservice teaching in an environment influenced by high-stakes testing; they suggested that outreach programs may enhance the transition.

Some studies attempted to capture a representation of typical history instruction and the choices made by inservice teachers. Yilmaz (2008) sought to understand how teachers conceptualize history. The participants in Yilmaz's study included 12 social studies teachers with an average of 16 years experience and advanced degrees. Yilmaz found that the majority of participants did not possess a deep understanding of history concepts, and they neglected to address the interpretative nature of history. Yilmaz stressed the importance of the history teacher in bringing students to a high level of historical literacy that prepares them to function as independent thinkers in a complex political setting.

It is important to understand how teachers facilitate learning in their classrooms. In a study designed to address pedagogy and content knowledge, Ragland (2007) identified factors that influenced history teachers' willingness to adopt strategies

presented during professional development sessions. Although Ragland's study strays from historical thinking skills, it does create a useful view of inservice history teachers and their practices. Ragland concluded that inservice history teachers adopt and maintain strategies that trainers emphasized and modeled. In addition, Ragland found that teachers implemented strategies that caused the least discomfort and were easy to maintain.

Emerging Patterns and Implications

Overall, the previous research supports the need to improve history instruction at all levels. From Bell's 1917 study to the present, researchers have expressed concern that students fail to understand and retain historical material. The more recent studies point to problems associated with processing historical information. Other factors that interfere with learning and applying historical thinking skills include cultural background, types of instruction, and an attachment to textbooks. Too often students and teachers select the textbook as the most reliable source while ignoring primary materials. Several of the studies conclude that changes in teacher training and classroom instruction would improve students' understanding of the importance of incorporating historical material into the learning experience.

Challenges

The painstaking process of balancing HTS with content pacing poses many challenges for educators. The contributions of this research will offer important insight into HTS for the college, secondary, and elementary educators. At the college level history professors function as experts when they engage in historical thinking. However, rarely do these professors teach HTS to their students (Wineburg 2001). Although the

professors and their students possess content knowledge, content knowledge does not automatically evolve into meaningful instructional practice (Wineburg, 1991a).

Preservice teachers need many opportunities to practice HTS before they design their own lessons (Bohan & Davis, 1998). As VanSledright (2002) discovered, paradoxes and dilemmas challenge teachers who build lessons around historical thinking. Clearly, these studies indicate a disparity in performance between history professors, college students, and most history teachers. If colleges improve teacher training, teachers would then enter the classrooms ready to model sourcing, corroboration, contextualization, and thinking aloud. The introduction of HTS to students and the consistent inclusion of the skills each week, would afford students many opportunities to practice using the skills and move away from a basic recall of facts. To effect a positive change at the college, secondary, and elementary levels, history instruction must rely on engaging strategies.

Themes

Several themes emerged after reviewing the literature for HTS. One recurring theme included the reliance on the textbook and factual information with a diminished focus on the interpretative nature of history. Another theme pointed towards a need to include processing frameworks that aid critical analysis of historical material. In addition, an overwhelming lack of exposure to historical thinking skills pervades elementary, secondary, and college level experiences. Accountability issues and content pacing worries arose as concerns for inservice teachers. A breach exists in the transition of HTS from college course work to inservice work. Finally, a need exists to conduct additional studies of inservice teachers and their use of historical thinking to better

understand flaws in the transition from college course work to classroom instruction.

Previous studies have not identified the experiences of teachers that may have influenced their development and use of historical thinking. With increasing access to a plethora of electronic material in the 21st century, a pressing need exists to ensure that teachers and students possess the skills needed to engage in critical analysis of events and materials.

This study addressed a gap in research by describing the experiences of secondary social studies teachers with HTS. It serves as an initial step for future inquiry on the types and ways teachers currently incorporate HTS in their instruction, as well as how they might do so in the future. A democratic society hinges on the ability of its citizens to independently interpret multiple perspectives, construct meaning, and make informed decisions.

Summary

This chapter presented a review of studies that relate to historical thinking skills. The foundational studies illuminated the need to study the historian's craft and introduce it to history students. Other studies highlighted the experiences of elementary and secondary students as they attempted to make meaning from multiple sources. These studies concluded that students would benefit from explicit instruction in historical thinking skills. Specifically, these studies noted the benefits that were derived from training students to use the heuristics to process multiple sources. At the preservice and inservice levels, previous studies identified a similar need for explicit instruction that could provide teachers with a processing framework. By describing the experiences of inservice high school social studies teachers with HTS, this study provides valuable information that can be used to bridge the gap in research.

The present study built upon and extended the research conducted by Trombino et al. (2009). As stated earlier, Trombino and her colleagues used a questionnaire in a descriptive study of preservice social studies teachers. They found that preservice social studies teachers reported some exposure to historical thinking skills in content and methods courses, with more exposure in methods courses. The present descriptive study added to the earlier study by administering the questionnaire to inservice social studies teachers to determine the degree to which they were exposed to HTS in content and methods courses. One would expect that history courses would explore the tasks that historians use to construct meaning from sources. Also, one would expect a social studies methods course to prepare teachers to create lessons that include historical thinking skills. In addition, the questionnaire for this study included 15 Likert scale items that addressed classroom instruction and HTS. The additional 15 items provided a glimpse of HTS used in the classroom. The present study further extends this research by including interviews and observations of teachers in their own classrooms, allowing an in-depth look and a way to triangulate and verify self-reported data.

This study included three research questions. The first question addressed the type of preparation and experiences that secondary social studies teachers had with source analysis and HTS in college content courses, methodology courses, and professional development activities. The second question explored the differences based on years of experience and type of degree. A final question addressed how secondary social studies teachers use HTS in their lessons. This study added to the body of research on HTS and addressed a gap in research by describing the experiences of secondary social studies teachers from a large, urban school system.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used to analyze the experiences of inservice high school social studies teachers. The chapter begins with a review of the research questions, followed by a description of the design. After a description of the design, Chapter III includes a description of the participants, after which the measures and procedures are addressed.

Design

Research Questions

This study focused on three research questions associated with HTS and secondary social studies teachers:

1. What type of preparation and experiences did secondary social studies teachers have with source analysis and historical thinking skills in college content courses, methodology courses, and professional development activities?
2. Do the experiences differ based on years of experience and type of degree?
3. How do secondary social studies teachers use HTS (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) in their lessons?

Methodology

This descriptive comparative study utilized a mixed methods approach and relied on surveys, observations, interviews, and analysis of documents. The first phase of the study included a Likert-type scale questionnaire that explored the preparation and

experiences of secondary social studies teachers with HTS in college content courses, methods courses, as well as classroom use of HTS. Specifically, the questionnaire addressed how often and to what degree inservice high school teachers used HTS in their classrooms. In addition, the questionnaire included three open-ended items. The first open-ended item on the questionnaire asked participants to describe their experiences with HTS in college courses. The second open-ended item asked teachers to describe how they used HTS in their lessons. The final open-ended item asked participants to address professional development activities that related to HTS. During the second phase of the study, phenomenological analysis (Patton, 2002, p. 482) was used to gain an understanding of the experiences of a purposeful sample of social studies teacher. Qualitative findings related to the degree to which secondary social studies teachers employed HTS were based on an analysis of classroom observations, teacher interviews, and instructional documents.

Participants

The 64 participants in this study were drawn from a convenience sample of 160 secondary social studies teachers. Participation was voluntary. The participants were employed by a large, urban school system in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. The school system covered a large geographical region that contained 11 high schools. The 11 high schools served a diverse population that spanned the rural and urban sectors of the city, as well as its varied socio-economic levels. Each high school contained approximately 2,000 or more students. Several high schools housed specialized academies. In each high school, the social studies department included 15 to 20 teachers. The teachers were under contract to teach social studies in grades 9 through 12. Teaching

assignments included World History, World Geography, United States History, Government, Sociology, Psychology, AP European History, AP Human Geography, AP United States History, AP Government, and AP Psychology. The number of years of teaching experience varied from one year to over 20 years between the participants.

Purposeful sampling of typical cases for observations and interviews was utilized in the study. After questionnaires were completed, typical case sampling was included as a way to select a smaller sample that captured an average representation of broad themes and patterns (Patton, 2002, p. 236). The sample consisted of teachers who completed questionnaires and volunteered to participate in observations and interviews. In addition, the purposeful sample consisted of teachers who were assigned to teach World History or United States History, since this represented the majority of social studies students. Participants were selected from the group of 24 volunteers who scored near the average of the sample based on mean scores obtained from the section of the questionnaire that addressed classroom use of HTS. Thirteen teachers indicated an interest in scheduling observations, and seven teachers of the 13 were able to arrange observations. This purposeful sample of seven participants captured a snapshot of the teachers who included HTS in their lessons.

Measures

Historical Thinking Skills Questionnaire

This study utilized the historical thinking skills questionnaire (HTSQ). Table 1 contains the blueprint used to develop the HTSQ. The HTSQ extended the initial questionnaire that was used in a pilot study of preservice teachers (Trombino et al., 2009). The HTSQ contained 75 questions related to experiences with HTS. Of the 75

questions, 30 addressed experiences with HTS in college content courses, 30 covered experiences with HTS in college methods courses, and 15 addressed classroom use of HTS. The HTSQ included nine scales that addressed HTS. Historical thinking skills include sourcing (identifying authorship, bias, and relationships), corroboration and collaboration (comparing, contrasting, constructing meaning), and explicit instruction (modeling and guided practice). The nine scales included 1) sourcing in content courses; 2) sourcing in methodology courses; 3) sourcing use in the high school classroom; 4) corroboration and contextualization in content courses; 5) corroboration and contextualization in methodology courses; 6) corroboration and contextualization use in the high school classroom; 7) explicit instructional strategies in content courses; 8) explicit instructional strategies in methodology courses; 9) explicit instruction use in the high school classroom. Questions on the HTSQ used a Likert-response scale of 1-5, with 1 representing the least exposure to HTS and 5 representing the greatest exposure to HTS.

Table 1

Blueprint for Historical Thinking Skills Questionnaire

Historical Thinking Skills	College Courses		High School Level	Total
	Content	Methods	Classroom Use	
Sourcing (identifying authorship, bias, and relationships)	10 items	10 items	5 items	25 items
Corroboration and contextualization (comparing/contrasting various sources to construct meaning)	10 items	10 items	5 items	25 items
Explicit instructional strategies (demonstration, guided practice, and feedback)	10 items	10 items	5 items	25 items
Total	30 items	30 items	15 items	75 items

The HTSQ also contained three open-ended items. One question addressed experiences using sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction in content and methodology courses. A second question addressed the types of sources and historical thinking activities that teachers used in their classrooms. A third question addressed training and professional development experiences that related to historical thinking skills. Demographic information included type of degree, teacher certification, teaching assignment, and years of teaching experience. A copy of the questionnaire appears in Appendix A.

The blueprint in Table 1 was developed in order to enhance validity. The blueprint was based on theory found in the literature (Wineburg, 1991a, 1991b, 2001). To further enhance content validity, the HTSQ and blueprint were reviewed by three experts. The reviewers had expertise in history content or survey methodology. Furthermore, the HTSQ was pilot-tested with a sample of 91 preservice social studies teachers (Trombino et al., 2009). The pilot-test HTSQ contained the 60 items that explored experiences with HTS in content and methods courses only. The pilot study used Cronbach's alpha to estimate reliability coefficients for the six scales. Reliability coefficients ranged from .819 to .933 for the scales that addressed HTS in content and methods courses, indicating strong reliability (Trombino et al., 2009). Three scales were added for using HTS in the high school classroom. For the scales that addressed use of HTS in the high school classroom, the items were pilot-tested on a small group of volunteer inservice social studies teachers. In addition, for this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to estimate reliability. The HTSQ scales for the current study received reliability coefficients that ranged from .852 to .940. Table 2 contains the data for the

reliability coefficients. For the open-ended items, a coding scheme was utilized, and it adhered to the HTS heuristics and scales. Reliability in coding open-ended items was estimated by calculating the percentage of agreement between two independent raters. Two raters trained in qualitative methodology independently coded 40% of the data from the open-ended items, observation notes, interview transcripts, and instructional documents. The raters obtained an agreement rate of 96%.

Table 2

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for HTS Scales

Scales	N	Pilot Study		N	Current Study	
		Items	Coefficient		Items	Coefficient
Sourcing	87	20	.931	54	25	.940
Corroboration and Contextualization	86	20	.819	55	25	.852
Explicit Instruction	87	20	.933	56	25	.932

Observations, Interviews, and Documents

This study also included classroom observations of selected participants. The participants for the smaller sample were selected from those who volunteered and who earned scores within the average range on the HTSQ for the 15 items that related to

classroom use of HTS. In addition, participants were purposefully selected based on teaching assignments of World History and United States History. Table 3 contains the blueprint used to develop the observation guidelines. To address content validity, the blueprint and instrument were designed to mirror the HTS content areas. In addition, to further enhance content validity, three expert reviewers reviewed the observation guidelines. To minimize disturbance and reactivity, the school system only permitted the researcher to conduct the observations. Reliability was addressed by using two raters who employed the same coding scheme for observation narratives, interview transcripts, and instructional documents. The two raters independently coded 40% of the data and obtained a minimum agreement rate of 96%. Appendix B contains the classroom observation guidelines that the researcher utilized to record notes during classroom observations.

Table 3

Blueprint for Historical Thinking Skills Observation Guidelines

Historical Thinking Skills	Classroom Activities	Description
Sourcing	3	Identifying authorship, bias, and relationships
Corroboration and Contextualization	3	Comparing sources, contrasting sources, and constructing meaning
Explicit Instruction	3	Modeling HTS, guided practice with HTS, and thinking aloud

For each teacher who was observed, interviews were conducted. Table 4 contains the blueprint for the interview protocol. To address content validity, the blueprint mirrored the HTS content areas. Reliability in coding was addressed by using the same HTS coding scheme for observations and interviews. Appendix C contains the interview protocol. The interview protocol was reviewed by three expert reviewers. Beyond analysis of the responses on the HTSQ for each of the participants, data was triangulated by comparing the interview transcripts, observation notes, and instructional documents for each participant. In addition, each participant was asked to review transcripts of the interview to verify accuracy.

Table 4

Blueprint for Historical Thinking Skills Interview Protocol

Historical Thinking Skills	College Courses		High School Level
	Content	Methods	Classroom Use
Sourcing (identifying authorship, bias and relationships)	2	2	2
Corroboration and contextualization (comparing/contrasting various sources to construct meaning)	2	2	2
Explicit instructional strategies (demonstration, guided practice, and feedback)	2	2	2

Procedure

After gaining Human Subjects Review Committee approval from the university, the research proposal was submitted to the public school system for permission to conduct research. Once the school system approved the request, principals were introduced to the study via email. Principals were asked to allow access to the social studies teachers in their high schools for the purpose of soliciting volunteers for the study. After principals granted permission, social studies department chairs were contacted via email and phone to invite their departments to participate.

Printed copies of the HTSQ, consent forms, and return envelopes were hand-delivered to each high school social studies department chairperson after instructional hours. Each department chair received a written and electronic description of the study. A description of the study was also attached to each HTSQ. The voluntary nature of participation was stressed, along with how confidentiality would be protected. The department chairpersons delivered the questionnaires to teachers during a departmental meeting, and they encouraged teachers to complete the HTSQ. Teachers placed completed questionnaires in sealed envelopes. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. Teachers returned the completed questionnaires to a central location in the main office of their schools, and the researcher personally collected all questionnaires on prearranged dates. Confidentiality of the participants and their responses was protected. Completion of the questionnaire constituted willingness to participate. The HTSQ required approximately 30 minutes to complete. For the ten social studies departments

that volunteered to participate, the researcher offered resources and training for using HTS in the classroom.

Since the researcher has worked in the school system for 23 years, controls were developed to guard against potential bias. Over the 23 years, the researcher gained experience as a content team leader, mentor, trainer, and social studies department chair, as well as a high school social studies teacher. Prior to submitting a request to the school system to conduct research, the researcher resigned as social studies department chair, team leader, mentor, and trainer. In addition, participation was voluntary and teachers were not identified by name, except for those in the smaller sample. When selecting participants for the purposeful sample, teachers were selected based on their mean HTS scores, work locations, and teaching assignments in order to select a representative sample that reflected the average HTS scores and included teachers from several high schools.

After analyzing the results of the HTSQ, the researcher invited select participants to volunteer for observations and interviews. As noted earlier, typical case sampling was used to select teachers based on mean scores for HTSQ items related to classroom use of HTS. Participants who wished to be considered for observations and interviews provided their contact information on the HTSQ, and this served as consent to participate. The contact information was held in confidence and will not be published. Contact information was used for the sole purpose of arranging observations and interviews. After the selections were made, electronic mail or phone calls were used to notify participants of their status (selected or not selected). For those selected to participate, mutually agreed upon times were arranged for observations and interviews.

When conducting observations and interviews, school board policy was followed for visiting schools and classrooms. Classroom observations were scheduled and signed consent forms were obtained from the participants. The participants identified a time when they planned to use historical thinking skills in a lesson. Each class was structured around a 95 minute block schedule, and the class met on alternating days. Classroom observations lasted a minimum of 45 minutes and a maximum of 95 minutes. During the observations, notes were recorded using the observation guidelines (Appendix B). In addition, instructional documents such as lesson plans and other teaching materials used in the lesson were collected. After the observations, interview times were arranged with each participant. The interviews occurred after contractual hours. In addition, the purpose of the interview was explained and signed consent forms were obtained. Appendix C contains the interview consent form and protocol. After the interviews were recorded and transcribed, interviewees reviewed the transcripts for accuracy. In addition, interviewees provided copies of instructional documents that exemplified HTS (lesson plans, assignments, handouts). For reciprocity, the researcher offered to design and present training sessions for schools and teachers who volunteered to complete the HTSQ. For those teachers who participated in the observations and interviews, they received nominal gift certificates to local vendors (Barnes and Nobles, TAPS, Office Max, Office Depot). Summary results of the study will be provided to the school system and the participants.

Data Analysis

The analytic approach relied on descriptive and inferential testing for the quantitative data and content analysis for the qualitative data. This study relied on

descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, and scale) to analyze responses for questions that addressed experiences with HTS in content and methodology courses, as well as classroom use of HTS. A MANOVA was conducted in order to identify possible relationships among demographic items such as type of degree, years of experience, and scale scores on the HTSQ as depicted on the blueprint in Table 1. The MANOVA was the appropriate statistical analysis because the dependent variables were significantly correlated. When the omnibus MANOVA identified a significant difference for any of the independent variables or their interactions, follow up ANOVA's were conducted to identify which dependent variables were significantly impacted by independent variables or the interactions. Any significant differences were illuminated by presentation of the descriptive statistics for main effects and interactions. To determine whether the teachers' preparation and experience with HTS differed in content versus methods courses, matched-pair or dependent t-tests were employed. This analytic approach was appropriate because the researcher had scale scores (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) for each of the teachers. The teachers responded to items about their preparation and experiences in content and methods courses. As noted, content analysis was used for the open-ended items on the HTSQ, observations, interviews, and documents. The qualitative data was initially coded based on HTS heuristics and emergent themes. The material was next organized based on themes and patterns that appeared (Patton, 2002, p. 463). A constant comparative method was employed in an iterative process.

Chapter III presented the methodology used for this study of HTS. It began with a description of the design and research questions. Chapter III continued with a description of the participants, measures, and procedures used in this study. Chapter IV will present the results of the study.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter will describe the processes used to analyze data and the findings which are aligned with the research questions. The chapter will include a description of demographic characteristics, followed by results from the responses on the historical thinking skills questionnaire. This chapter will then address quantitative results from the HTSQ, followed by findings from the qualitative responses to the open-ended items. Chapter IV will conclude with the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the purposeful sample of teachers who participated in the observations and interviews.

Research Questions

This study centered around three research questions related to secondary social studies teachers and HTS:

1. What type of preparation and experiences did secondary social studies teachers have with source analysis and historical thinking skills in college content courses, methodology courses, and professional development activities?
2. Do the experiences differ based on years of experience and type of degree?
3. How do secondary social studies teachers use HTS (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) in their lessons?

Participants

The sample contained secondary social studies teachers employed by a large, urban public school system in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Participation in the study was voluntary, and confidentiality was guaranteed. A total of 160 high school social studies teachers were invited to complete the HTSQ. Of the 160, 64 (40%) completed the HTSQ. In addition, from the sample of 64, a purposeful sample was selected. Of the 64 teachers in the larger sample, 24 (38%) volunteered to be considered for observations and interviews as part of the purposeful sample. Of the 24 volunteers, 13 (54%) met the criteria for the purposeful sample. After receiving invitations to schedule observations and interviews, seven (54%) teachers responded favorably. The purposeful sample contained these seven teachers who were from four of the 11 high schools in the school system.

Table 5 presents the demographic information of the purposeful sample. Teaching assignments included World History I and II, as well as Virginia and United States History. In addition, two teachers taught World History I with a special education inclusion teacher. Two other teachers taught specialized academy classes; one taught World History I and one taught Virginia and United States History. Years of experience ranged from one year to over 15 years. Five teachers held graduate degrees in education, and one held a graduate degree in content. One teacher did not hold a graduate degree. The gender included three males and four females. Six held social studies certification, and one held certification in history. Pseudonyms were used to protect the confidentiality and personalize the narrative.

Table 5

Demographic Information for the Purposeful Sample

Teacher	Subject	Years of Experience	Undergraduate Degree	Graduate Degree
Sally	WH I inclusion	6-10	education	education
Jane	VA/USH academy	0-5	education	education
Judy	WH II	0-5	history	none
Linda	WH I academy	6-10	history	education
Tim	VA/USH	15-20	political science	education
Ron	VA/USH	6-10	history	education
Bob	WH I inclusion	11-15	history	history

F = female, M = male

Type of Degree

The sample of 64 included teachers with undergraduate and graduate degrees. Table 6 contains data on the educational background of the participants. The majority of participants (53 or 83%) held undergraduate degrees in one of the social studies subjects such as history or political science. The purposeful sample of seven mirrored the larger sample. The majority of participants (5 or 71%) in the purposeful sample held undergraduate degrees in social studies content. For graduate level degrees, in the larger

sample, 33 (52%) participants held graduate degrees in education, and six (9%) held graduate degrees in social studies subject areas, while 25 (39%) did not hold a graduate degree. The purposeful sample included five (71%) participants with a graduate degree in education. In addition, the purposeful sample included one teacher with a graduate degree in history and one teacher who did not hold a graduate degree.

Table 6

Educational Background of Participants

	Entire Sample		Purposeful Sample	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Undergraduate Degree				
Education	11	17	2	29
Content	53	83	5	71
Total	64		7	
Graduate Degree				
Education	33	52	5	71
Content	6	9	1	14
None	25	39	1	14
Total	64		7	

Percentages are rounded

Experience and Subjects Taught

The years of experience varied for the participants in both samples. The range of years varied from one year of teaching to over 30 years. Thirty-four (53%) teachers reported 1 to 15 years of experience, while 30 (47%) reported 16 or more years of experience. The majority of teachers (36 or 56%) listed teaching experience that ranged from 6 to 20 years. In the purposeful sample of seven, the range of experience varied from 1 to 20 years. Five of the seven (71%) reported teaching experience from 1 to 10 years, while one reported 11 to 15 years, and one reported 16 to 20 years of experience.

The subjects taught varied for both the larger sample and the purposeful sample. Of the 64 teachers, 28 reported a teaching assignment of one subject, while 26 reported teaching two subjects, and 10 did not list a teaching assignment. The majority of assignments in the larger sample included World History I and II, World Geography, Virginia and United States History, and Virginia and United States Government. Other teaching assignments listed included advanced placement social studies courses and electives such as psychology and sociology. In the purposeful sample, the majority of teaching assignments also included World History and Virginia and United States History. Three (43%) of the seven teachers were assigned to teach World History I, and one was assigned to teach World History II. The remaining three (43%) teachers were assigned to teach Virginia and United States History.

Preparation and Experiences with HTS

Descriptive Findings

With reference to HTS, high school social studies teachers reported a range of experiences in college level content and methods courses. Quantitative items on the questionnaire had a Likert-type rating scale of one to five on the HTSQ (1 never, 2 seldom, 3 sometimes, 4 often, 5 regularly) for experiences with HTS. Overall the mean scores ranged from 1.93 to 4.20.

As described in the previous chapter, HTS scale scores for sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction were created. Table 7 contains the scale scores for HTS experiences in content and methods courses. The lowest mean scale score was found for explicit instruction in content and methods courses ($M = 2.92$). On the average, teachers reported that they seldom to sometimes experienced explicit instruction in content and methods courses. The highest mean scale score was observed for corroboration and contextualization ($M = 3.28$) in content and methods courses, while the mean scale score for sourcing was 3.09. Teachers reported that they sometimes experienced corroboration and contextualization in college courses, followed by sourcing.

Table 7

Comparison of Scale Scores for HTS in Content and Methods Courses

Scale	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Sourcing	54	3.09	.855
Corroboration & Contextualization	55	3.28	.568
Explicit Instruction	57	2.92	.777

In an open-ended item, participants were also asked to describe their professional development and training activities that related to HTS. The majority of teachers listed professional development program (PDP) courses sponsored by the school system as the predominant form of training. Teachers listed several topics that were explored as part of the professional development program. Mia noted, “Almost all PDP classes ... have had some type of source analysis and historical thinking skills.” The topics described by the teachers included visual literacy, reading in content areas, critical thinking, understanding by design, 21st century skills, and HTS mini sessions.

Common themes emerged in the open-ended responses for HTS training experiences. With reference to training, Jerry listed, “PDP class using different sources to stimulate learning.” Bonnie discussed PDP training that “focused on using primary resources to encourage critical thinking.” Participants also described summer institutes for advanced placement (AP) courses, museum programs, and college courses. With

reference to document based questions (DBQ), Victor wrote, “I attended a school system sponsored workshop called the DBQ project.” Three teachers listed the Teaching American History grant program. For example, Tammy wrote, “I’ve taken classes and had training on visual literacy, plus a lot of the grants and professional development activities I’ve participated in have emphasized these skills.” However, 14 (22%) teachers reported receiving little or no training with HTS.

For the open-ended item that addressed HTS training, teachers reported a variety of training activities. Table 8 reflects the types of training reported on the HTSQ open-ended item. Overall, 44 teachers (69%) reported receiving training related to HTS. Even though the majority of teachers reported being trained to some degree in HTS, only a few addressed training in how to model and guide students through HTS.

Table 8

Professional Development and Training Experiences Related to HTS

<i>N</i>	Training Experience
14	PDP courses (visual literacy, reading in content, critical thinking, strategies, history scholars, HTS mini sessions, understanding by design)
7	AP Summer Institute
4	DBQ workshop
6	college courses
4	museum-sponsored training at the state and nation levels
2	History Alive
3	Teaching American History grant
1	Kagan strategies
1	21 st Century Skills
1	HTS class
1	Economic skills (discussion, questioning, contextualization, corroboration)

Differences in Experiences and Preparation by Demographic Characteristics

To further compare scale scores, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine whether teachers' years of experience and type of degree influenced responses on the HTSQ for the three scales: (1) sourcing, (2) corroboration and contextualization, and (3) explicit instruction. The first scale combined sourcing from content and methods courses. The second scale combined corroboration and contextualization from content and methods courses, while the third scale addressed explicit instruction from both types of courses. Though the significance level was not less than the traditional .05 level, the results approached significance (Wilks' $\lambda = .072$) for years of experience. The MANOVA yielded no significant main effects for type of degree in the HTS combined scales. However, a significant interaction effect was found for years of experience and type of degree (Wilks' $\lambda = .033$). Because this was an exploratory study of a new topic, the researcher decided to examine the follow-up univariate results for the years of experience variable.

To further explore teachers' preparation and experiences with HTS, follow-up analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were conducted for the three combined scales. The ANOVA tests produced significant results for years of experience on the three combined HTS scales. Table 9 presents the ANOVA results by scale. Significant differences occurred for sourcing and years of experience. Teachers with 0 to 15 years of teaching experience reported a higher mean scale score for sourcing items ($M = 3.30$) than teachers with 16 or more years of experience ($M = 2.73$). The ANOVA results for corroboration and contextualization were also significant for years of experience. Teachers with less than 16 years of experiences reported a higher mean scale score ($M =$

3.43) than teachers with 16 or more years of experience ($M = 3.02$). In addition, the ANOVA results were significant for explicit instruction and years of experience. The descriptive statistics for the significant main effects are reported in Table 10. Teachers with 0 to 15 years of experience reported a higher mean scale score ($M = 3.20$) than teachers with over 16 years of experience ($M = 2.65$). The lowest mean was reported for explicit instruction.

Table 9

Significant and Marginally Significant Follow-up ANOVA Results

IV	DV	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Eta ²
Years of Experience	Sourcing	1, 47	5.85	.02	.11
Years of Experience	Corroboration and Contextualization	1, 47	7.28	.01	.13
Years of Experience	Explicit Instruction	1, 47	5.43	.02	.10
Years of Experience and Type of Degree	Corroboration and Contextualization	1, 47	3.68	.06	.07

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Significant Main Effects

Scale	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>
Sourcing			
0 to 15 Years	28	3.30	.16
16 + Years	23	2.73	.17
Corroboration & Contextualization			
0 to 15 Years	28	3.43	.10
16 + Years	23	3.02	.11
Explicit Instruction			
0 to 15 Years	28	3.20	.15
16 + Years	23	2.65	.16

Also, the ANOVA showed marginally significant results for an interaction between years of experience and type of degree on the corroboration and contextualization scale. Table 11 provides the descriptive statistics for the interaction effect for corroboration and contextualization. Figure 1 displays the interaction effect. Teachers with 16 or more years of experience and an undergraduate degree reported the lowest mean scale score ($M = 2.75$) compared to teachers with 16 plus years and a graduate degree ($M = 3.30$). Teachers with 0 to 15 years of experience and an undergraduate degree reported the highest mean scale score ($M = 3.50$), followed by

teachers with 0 to 15 years of experience and a graduate degree ($M = 3.41$). When teachers had a graduate degree there was little difference in their mean scores on the corroboration and contextualization scale. However, if teachers did not possess a graduate degree, those with 16 or more years of experience scored significantly lower on this scale.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for Interaction Effect for Corroboration and Contextualization

IV	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Graduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	18	3.41	.45
16 + Years	14	3.30	.63
Undergraduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	10	3.50	.39
16 + Years	9	2.75	.61

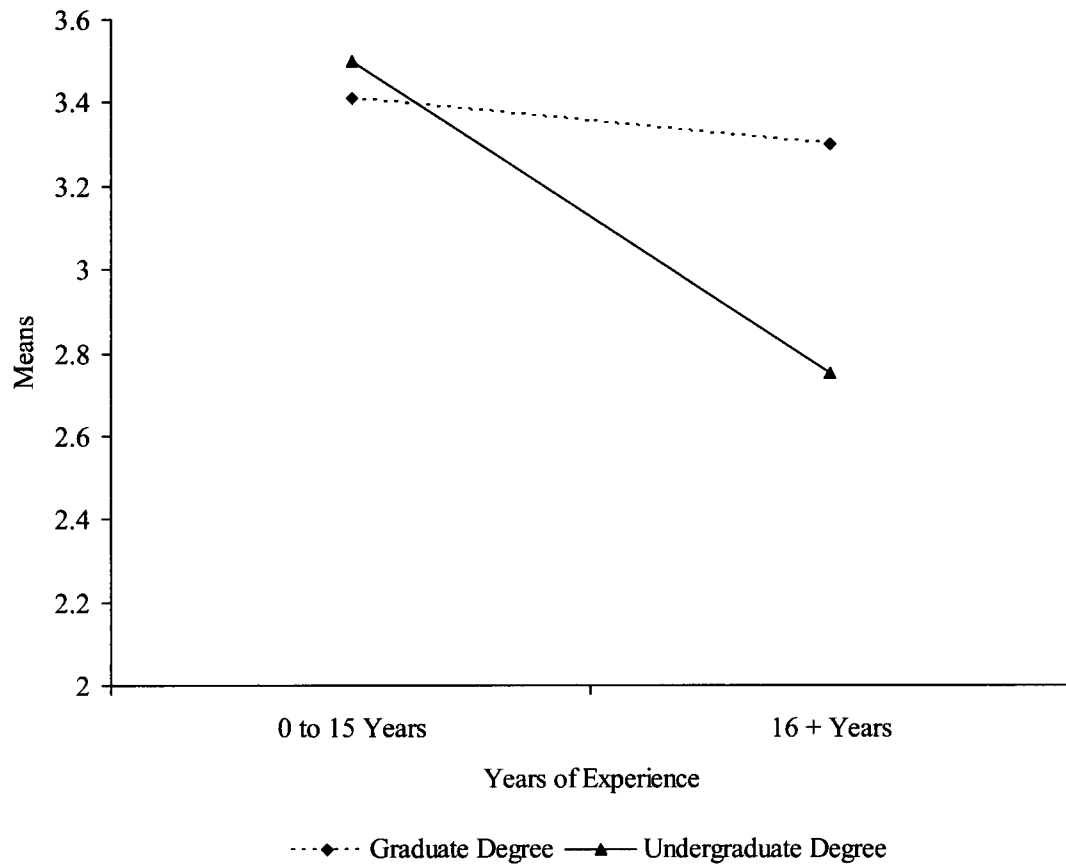


Figure 1. Interaction effect for corroboration and contextualization and type of degree and years of experiences.

Differences in Preparation and Experiences for Content versus Methods Courses

In order to determine whether teachers' preparation and experiences with HTS differed in content and methods courses, within-subjects matched pair *t*-tests were conducted. Table 12 includes the results of the *t*-tests. The *t*-tests produced significant results for all three scale scores (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) that were compared in content and methods courses. The results of the *t*-test that compared sourcing preparation and experiences in content and methods courses indicated a significant difference with a *t* value of 5.29, $p = .000$, $M = 3.38$ (content courses) and 2.80 (methods courses). More preparation and experiences with sourcing occurred in content courses versus methods courses. The results of the *t*-test that compared corroboration and contextualization experiences also produced a significant result with a *t* value of 6.81, $p = .001$, $M = 3.62$ (content courses) and 2.95 (methods courses). Teachers received more preparation for corroboration and contextualization in content courses as opposed to methods courses. In addition, significant findings occurred for the *t*-test that compared explicit instruction preparation and experiences in content and methods courses. For this scale, the *t* value was 4.74, $p = .000$, $M = 3.16$ (content courses) and 2.68 (methods courses). Teachers experienced more explicit instruction in content courses versus methods courses. Overall, the *t*-test results suggested that teachers had more preparation and experiences with HTS in content courses more so than in methods courses.

Table 12

Paired Samples t-test Results for HTS Scale Scores in Content and Methods Courses

Scales	Courses		<i>t</i> -value	Sig.	<i>N</i>
	Content	Methods			
Sourcing	3.38	2.80	5.29	.000	54
Corroboration & Contextualization	3.62	2.95	6.81	.001	55
Explicit Instruction	3.16	2.68	4.74	.000	57

Sourcing Experiences

Beyond the quantitative items, teachers also wrote responses to open-ended items that addressed HTS. The sourcing items included identifying authorship, bias, and historical circumstances when interpreting sources. Teachers reported a variety of experiences related to sourcing in their college course work. However, they reported more experiences with sourcing in content courses as opposed to methods courses.

Specifically, when teachers wrote about their experiences in content courses, they indicated that their professors discussed sourcing concepts. For example, in response to the open-ended item on the HTSQ, Ralph wrote, “I did a lot of primary source analysis.” Buddy wrote, “In content courses professors often introduced sources and supplemental readings and discussed personal perspective from authorship or visuals with art.”

However, Rory, a teacher with over 30 years of experience noted, “Very little was done

with primary sources.” While Mitzi, another teacher with over 25 years of experience wrote that primary source analysis “...was not widely used 25 years ago.” In addition, those teachers with graduate degrees reported more opportunities to identify bias in content courses than those teachers without a graduate degree. For example, Sid commented, “...higher level history content courses had...more opportunities for me to practice historical thinking.” Overall, in content courses teachers frequently mentioned that source analysis was used predominantly for completing research assignments and participating in class discussions. Sourcing experiences in content courses were more prevalent for teachers with less than 15 years of teaching compared to teachers with over 15 years of teaching.

In methods courses, with reference to sourcing experiences, the quantitative results indicated that teachers with a graduate degree reported more experiences than individuals without a graduate degree. However, the open-ended responses on the HTSQ did not support the quantitative findings. Table 13 contains illustrative open-ended responses for sourcing. In methods courses, teachers responded that they rarely had any experiences with source analysis. For instance, Sara responded, “I found my methods courses to predominantly focus on teaching methods in general.” Yet Mark, another teacher with a graduate degree wrote, “Methods courses were worthless.” However, John noted, “I was happy with my methods courses...we discussed think alouds.” A review of the open-ended responses for sourcing indicated that the majority of responses addressed content courses without discussing methods courses, and several participants chose not to answer this open-ended item.

Table 13

HTSQ Open-ended Responses for College Course Experiences with Sourcing

Teacher	Response
Amy G, 0-15y	"I used the Communist Manifesto as a link between the French Revolution and the Bolshevik Revolution."
Arnie U, 0-15y	"We discussed visual sources."
Rick G, 0-15y	"Content classes stressed the use of sources for research."
Helen G, 0-15y	"Primary sources were discussed and debated as part of regular instruction."
Betsy U, 0-15y	"I was not instructed in how to interpret."
Carol G, 16+y	"Professors expected us to know these skills. Classes were traditional lecture."
Ted G, 16+y	"I don't recall doing much in this area."

G = graduate degree, U = undergraduate degree, 0-15y and 16+y = years of experience

Corroboration and Contextualization Experiences

Teachers reported different experiences in content and methods courses with reference to corroboration and contextualization. Corroboration and contextualization includes the use of a variety of sources that are compared and contrasted to construct meaning. In the open-ended item on the HTSQ, participants reported a variety of experiences related to corroboration and contextualization. Table 14 contains typical responses related to corroboration and contextualization. Teachers listed tax records, census records, diary entries, news articles, and art work as components of their college content courses. In addition, teachers addressed exposure to debate, questioning, and discussion as a regular part of their college course work in content courses. However, in the open-ended responses, teachers rarely mentioned methods course experiences that related to corroboration and contextualization. In addition, teachers reported that their content professors expected them to know how to analyze historical sources. Corroboration and contextualization appeared as the dominant theme in the open-ended portion of the HTSQ, especially in content courses.

Table 14

HTSQ Open-ended Responses for College Course Experiences with Corroboration and Contextualization

Teacher	Response
Thelma U, 0-15y	"I recall analyzing Russian history documents...along with contrasting/comparing ideas and arguments in political science."
Cathy G, 0-15y	"I remember rarely using a textbook."
Alex G, 0-15y	"Limited. Most college level courses used secondary sources."
Trish U, 0-15y	"...comparing primary sources particularly in women's studies and African-American history."
Steve G, 16+y	"Novels, nonfiction works, essays, papers that we used to read to determine validity/disagreements of events/results."
Shiva G, 16+y	"...critical thinking skills – eyewitness accounts ... and how they differed."

G = graduate degree, U = undergraduate degree, 0-15y and 16+y = years of experience

Explicit Instruction Experiences

Overall, the explicit instruction scale received the lowest mean scores on the HTSQ. Teachers reported more experiences with explicit instruction in content courses versus methods courses. In the open-ended item on the HTSQ, teachers devoted few comments to explicit instruction in content and methods courses. Participants reported less exposure to explicit instruction than sourcing or corroboration and contextualization. In addition, teachers noted that professors provided little or no modeling, but mentioned that it would have been useful. Minimal experiences were reported for explicit instruction in content and methods courses. Table 15 contains representative quotes from the teachers with reference to explicit instruction experiences in college courses.

Table 15

HTSQ Open-ended Responses for College Course Experiences with Explicit Instruction

Teacher	Response
Elena G, 0-15y	“It was modeled once or twice.”
Fred U, 0-15y	“My higher level history content courses had...more opportunities to practice historical thinking and primary source analysis skills.”
Tom U, 16+y	“I had a limited amount of instruction in this category.”
Donna U, 16+y	“Methods classes taught about sources, but they were often without instruction in communicating source bias to students.”
Taylor G, 16+y	“Professors...did not teach or model the skills explicitly.”

G = graduate degree, U = undergraduate degree, 0-15y and 16+y = years of experience

Classroom Use of HTS

Descriptive Findings

The HTSQ contained 15 items on the HTSQ that addressed classroom use of HTS for each of the scales. Related items were combined to create scale scores for sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction. The mean scale scores for classroom use of HTS ranged from 3.64 to 3.75. The quantitative items were based on a Likert-type rating scale of one to five (1 never, 2 seldom, 3 sometimes, 4 often, 5 regularly) for use of HTS during classroom instruction. Table 16 contains the mean scale scores for classroom use of HTS. The mean scores for sourcing were similar for the three scales. The highest mean score was reported for corroboration and contextualization ($M = 3.75$), followed by sourcing ($M = 3.72$). The lowest mean score occurred in the explicit instruction scale ($M = 3.64$). The results indicated that teachers reported sometimes to often using sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction in their classrooms.

Table 16

Classroom Use Mean HTS Scale Scores

Scale	Larger Sample			Purposeful Sample		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Sourcing	63	3.72	.865	7	3.57	.734
Corroboration & Contextualization	63	3.75	.589	7	3.37	.454
Explicit Instruction	61	3.64	.804	7	3.34	.650

Differences in Classroom Use by Demographic Characteristics

To further compare scale scores, a MANOVA was performed to determine whether teachers' years of experience and type of degree influenced responses on the HTSQ for the three scales that addressed classroom use. The first scale included items that addressed sourcing in the classroom. The second scale included corroboration and contextualization items in the classroom, while the third scale addressed the use of explicit instruction in the classroom. No significant main effects were reported. However, a significant interaction effect was found for years of experience and type of degree (Wilks' $\lambda = .037$).

To further examine teachers' classroom use of HTS, follow-up ANOVA's were conducted for the three HTS scales. Significant results were reported for an interaction between years of experience and type of degree for classroom use of corroboration and

contextualization as well as explicit instruction. When teachers had less than 15 years of experience, means were similar on their classroom use of corroboration and contextualization, regardless of whether they had a graduate degree. But if teachers had over 15 years of experience, those with a graduate degree reported significantly higher use of corroboration and contextualization in their classrooms than did teachers without a graduate degree. Table 17 reports the descriptive statistics for the interaction effect for corroboration and contextualization, and Figure 2 shows the interaction effect. The same pattern was observed on the explicit instruction scale. Table 18 reports the interaction effect for explicit instruction, and Figure 3 shows the interaction effect. There was little difference in teachers' reported classroom use of explicit instruction among less experienced teachers (less than 15 years), but among teachers with more than 15 years of experience those with graduate degrees reported a higher use of explicit instruction.

Table 17

*Descriptive Statistics for Significant Interaction Effects for Classroom Use of
Corroboration and Contextualization*

IV	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Graduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	18	3.71	.47
16 + Years	17	3.94	.52
Undergraduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	15	3.77	.75
16 + Years	10	3.40	.58

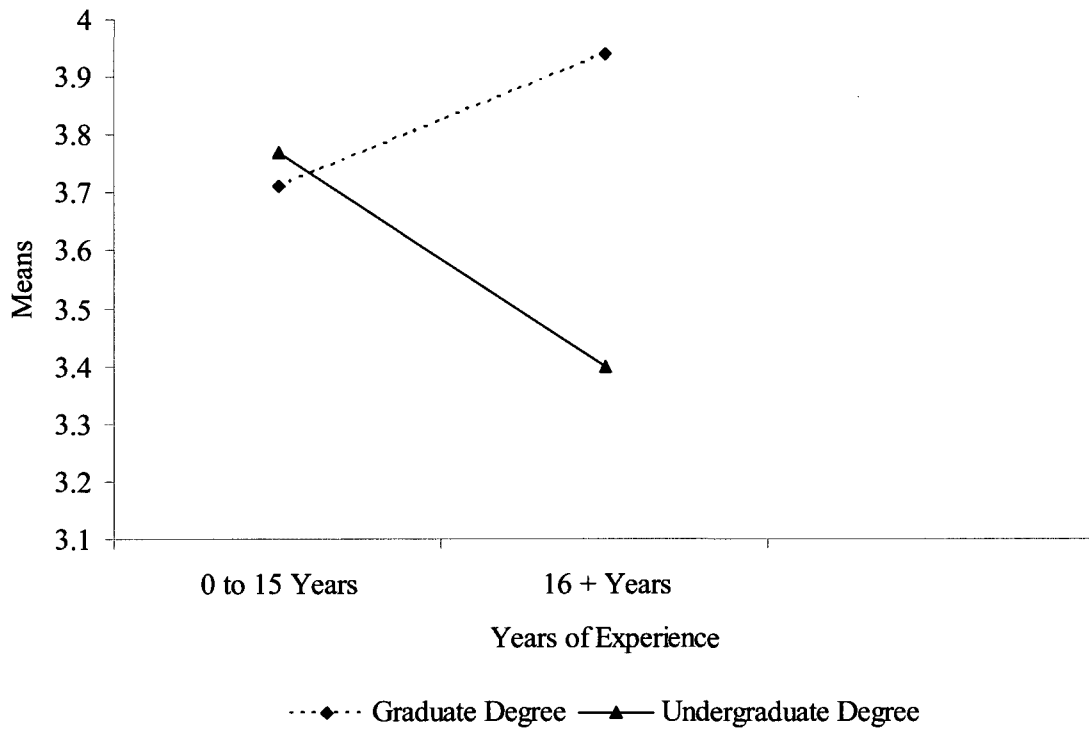


Figure 2. Interaction effect for classroom use of corroboration and contextualization and years of experience and type of degree.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for Significant Interaction Effects for Classroom Use of Explicit Instruction

IV	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Graduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	18	3.64	.82
16 + Years	17	3.94	.68
Undergraduate Degree			
0 to 15 Years	15	3.71	.85
16 + Years	10	3.10	.70

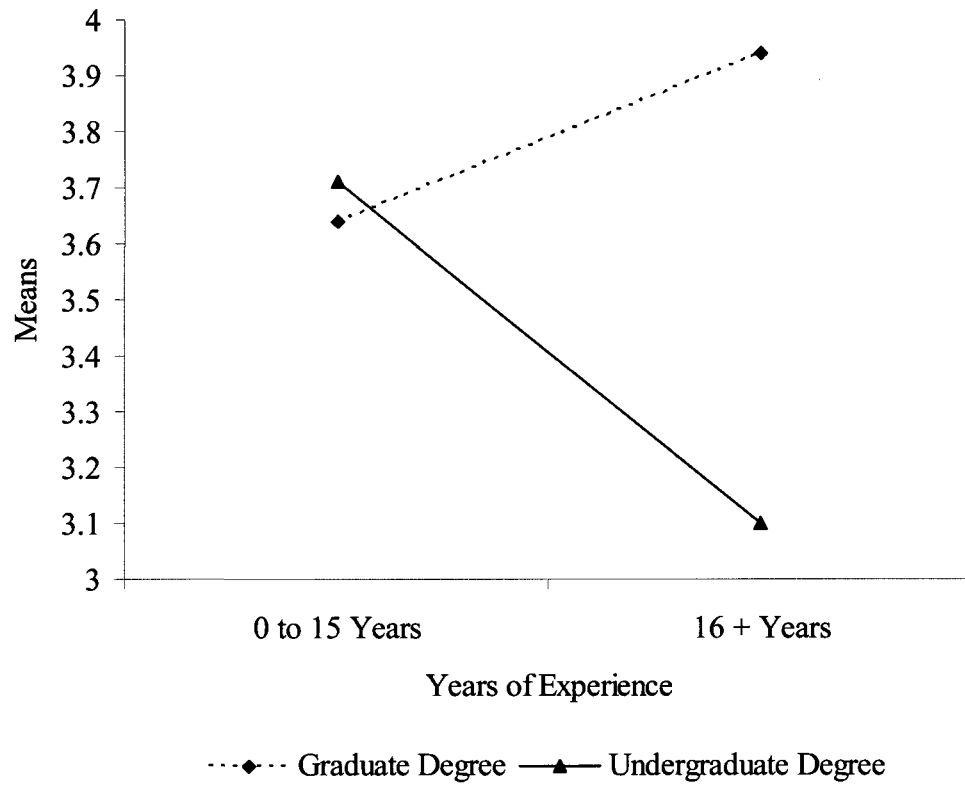


Figure 3. Interaction effect for classroom use of explicit instruction and years of experience and type of degree.

Open-ended Responses

On the HTSQ, an open-ended item asked teachers to describe the types of sources and activities that they used in their classrooms. Comments revolved around two themes, using different types of sources and including a variety of activities. Mostly, teachers' comments related to corroboration and contextualization, and they rarely mentioned sourcing and explicit instruction.

When asked about their classrooms, teachers discussed using a wide variety of resources related to HTS to enhance instruction. For example, teachers listed document based questions, entire primary documents, personal writings, political cartoons, current events, oral histories, photographs, art work, music, and digital material that reached beyond the textbook. Eric wrote, "I use mostly primary source readings and visuals such as political cartoons." Millie noted using "...photos, interviews, music, artwork, and excerpts." A few mentioned the importance of including guest speakers and field trips as sources of information. The majority of respondents listed several types of sources that they used in their classrooms, including electronic material available from websites.

Teachers also addressed activities that they relied on when using HTS in their classrooms. Activities included developing HTS skills, working with groups and partners, writing exercises, using simulations, and analyzing materials. With reference to skill development, Marty noted, "I use political cartoons and online news to address sourcing skills." Melissa addressed working with bias, and wrote, "I try to instill a sense of bias existing in sources and the need for students to be cognizant of source bias." To

enhance writing skills, one teacher listed using "...creative writing exercises where students put themselves in the story during the time and event being studied." Another teacher, Richard, mentioned writing exercises, stating "...students write reaction pieces to primary sources." Other teachers identified using skits, graphic organizers, and concept development as part of HTS instruction. Specific to 9th graders and HTS, Dusty wrote, "I engage my 9th graders through historical simulations and analysis of primary sources."

To engage students in corroboration and contextualization, teachers listed using discussions and questioning in their lessons that incorporated sources. Teachers consistently wrote about analyzing a variety of materials over the course of lessons and units of instruction. Teachers also addressed working with causes and effects as a routine part of classroom instruction. Also, teachers mentioned using graphic organizers, charts, writing, and simulations to engage their students in historical thinking.

Overall, teachers wrote about their use of diverse materials and strategies in their classrooms. The items noted by teachers were categorized mostly as HTS activities related to corroboration and contextualization, with some emphasis on sourcing. However, teachers did not mention explicitly instructing students in HTS. The most obvious theme that arose was the use of diverse sources, including electronic items, coupled with a variety of instructional activities. Table 19 presents the themes and patterns from the open-ended item on the HTSQ that addressed classroom use of HTS.

Table 19

Themes and Patterns for Classroom Use of HTS

Themes and Patterns	<i>N</i>
<hr/>	
Types of Sources	
Excerpts from primary sources	24
Visuals (art, graphics, maps, cartoons)	15
Electronic material	12
Articles	8
DBQs	5
Short quotes	4
Oral reports and guest speakers	4
Music	4
Activities Used	
Questioning and discussion about causes and effects	10
Writing exercises	10
Processing with partners and small groups	8
Sourcing	6
Simulations and role play	5

Results from the Purposeful Sample

HTSQ Open-Ended Results

Content analysis of the responses on the open-ended items for the purposeful sample produced patterns. The first open-ended question asked participants to describe their experiences using HTS in content and methods courses. Common themes for this question included using primary sources for research assignments, using eyewitness accounts, comparing and contrasting accounts, and analyzing visual sources. Three participants noted studying historical thinking methods in their college course work. An overriding theme centered on using a variety of sources for research.

The second open-ended item asked participants to describe historical thinking activities that they used in their classrooms. The responses to this item produced a wide range of topics. All seven participants mentioned primary sources that included quotes, excerpts, and personal writings. Other themes included using visual and electronic materials. Visual sources included political cartoons, art, architecture, and artifacts. Discussion and questioning was noted by the majority of participants as a key component of HTS used in their classrooms.

The third open-ended item asked participants to list HTS training and professional development experiences that they attended. Four participants listed professional development courses sponsored by the school system. These courses addressed using different sources as part of regular instruction to enhance critical thinking. Two participants mentioned taking a mini session on HTS. Skill development for reading, thinking, and questioning was mentioned by two participants. One participant noted

graduate level courses in social studies content. Overall, the seven participants listed many training experiences associated with HTS.

Interview Responses

Private interviews were conducted with each participant in the purposeful sample. The interview questions addressed sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction in content and methods courses, as well as classroom use. The final component of the interview addressed desired HTS training sessions for the future. Common themes and patterns arose.

Sourcing

When asked about sourcing experiences in college courses, the majority of participants reported few experiences beyond typical research assignments. Table 20 presents the main responses for sourcing from the interviews. Six participants noted research assignments as the main area where sourcing occurred in college courses. For instance, Jane stated, “My experiences were limited to research in the library.” However, Judy and Tim spoke about many opportunities to engage in sourcing in their college courses (content and methods). These two participants discussed working with bias, visual sources, and cultural issues. For example, Judy noted that methods courses “...spent a lot of time looking at bias.” In addition, four individuals stated that sourcing was not addressed in methods courses. For example, Linda responded that they focused on “...devising unit plans and lesson plans.” However, three participants commented that methods courses focused on useful strategies for teaching social studies. One teacher, Bob, discussed the usefulness of digital templates provided in the methods courses.

When asked about using sourcing in their classrooms, the participants discussed many topics. All seven spoke about using short quotes and excerpts from primary documents. Photographs, visuals, and electronic sources appeared as another common thread. For example, Ron discussed using "...a lot of pictures...and I modeled how it would be done." Several mentioned specific primary documents and art slides that they used in their lessons. Linda talked about using primary sources, including electronic sources, in every unit. Three discussed the importance of using first-hand accounts to motivate students to explore the past. Teachers also spoke about skill development for reading and thinking as they addressed sourcing.

Table 20

Purposeful Sample Interview Responses for Sourcing

Teachers	Description		
	Content Courses	Methods Courses	Classroom Use
Sally	none	none	short quotes, documents
Jane	research	bias, propaganda	DBQs, photos, quotes, discussion
Judy	bias, art and architecture, history courses	bias, photo analysis	art analysis, electronic items, excerpts
Linda	research, historiography class	not much, strategies	excerpts, electronic items
Tim	political science classes, second nature, expected to know it	not much, strategies	reading, thinking,
Ron	documents, video clips	not much, strategies	excerpts, relationships
Bob	extensive analysis of primary materials	not much, intro to visuals	excerpts

Corroboration and Contextualization

When asked about experiences with corroboration and contextualization in college courses, participants discussed using sources beyond the textbook. Table 21 shows the main results from the interviews. In content courses, teachers mentioned working with novels, articles, video clips, visuals, and studies to draw conclusions about historical events. When asked about a reliance on the textbook in college content courses, Linda stated, "...it was based on lecture and novels." Tim responded, "In some of the history classes a lot of them would use pictures...most of the time they would use primary sources from the time." However, in methods courses, their experiences focused on strategies for teaching and the creation of graphic organizers. For example, Tim remarked, "The only thing I can remember was using graphic organizers and stuff." Two teachers discussed using photographs, simulations, and other visuals in methods courses. For instance, when asked about methods courses, Judy commented, "We did use different types of sources. We used photographs. We used artifacts." Teachers predominantly discussed experiences with corroboration and contextualization in content courses more so than methods courses. Overall, the seven teachers in the purposeful sample discussed being exposed to a variety of sources in content courses more so than methods courses.

When asked about classroom use of corroboration and contextualization, a variety of activities were addressed. All seven teachers noted the importance of using multiple sources of information beyond the textbook to encourage students to construct meaning. Several mentioned not relying on the textbook. For example, Sally talked at length about using questioning and discussion during the process of comparing and contrasting sources. Sally stated, "I'll ask them questions to say what do you think is going on

here?” Jane talked about using concept maps and charts, noting that “...they need to break the material up and organize it in sections. Some of the material...can be intimidating and ambiguous.” Visual and electronic sources arose as a common theme, as well as first-hand accounts. Teachers also discussed critical thinking and questioning as key components of corroboration and contextualization that they used.

Table 21

Purposeful Sample Interview Responses for Corroboration and Contextualization

Teachers	Description		
	Content Courses	Methods Courses	Classroom Use
Sally	none lecture, research	none	multiple text, articles, art and architecture, visuals, comparing theories, questioning and discussion video clips
Jane	grad school	assignment	concept maps, visuals, Excerpts, video clips
Judy	sources, texts, visuals	photos, artifacts simulations, perspectives	visuals, video clips
Linda	novels, articles not much textbooks	none	excerpts in each unit, computers, text as only backup info
Tim	exclusive use of primary sources	graphic organizers	letters, documents, cartoons
Ron	beyond text, video clips, news articles, studies	thinking skills	put person face on past
Bob	extensive use of sources	visuals	pictures, excerpts, questioning, Venn diagrams

Explicit Instruction

The responses to the questions posed for explicit instruction produced a clear pattern. All seven spoke about a lack of modeling and guided practice in content courses. In addition, they also addressed a similar deficiency in methods courses. The seven participants discussed a focus on lecture and strategies in methods courses, with very little attention devoted to modeling and guided practice. For example, when asked about explicit instruction in college courses, Sally discussed a Russian history course and concluded, “He pulled a lot of sources, but did he model...I don’t know... most of my recollection of history...was lecturing.” Jane remarked that, “Unfortunately, my classes did not prepare me for this skill...I figured out how to do this on my own.” In their classrooms, the seven participants discussed how they introduced students to HTS. All seven mentioned varying degrees of modeling, whether in whole group, small group, or partners. For example, Bob stated, “I do it as a class. We go through it...they have to bring in the information...and use it to write a speech.” Tim discussed guided practice in whole group, and remarked, “I would go through the first law ... to show them what I was looking for.” Two spoke about focusing on working with context, cause and effect, and modeling curiosity to get students to experience past struggles. In summary, teachers talked about ways that they attempted to show students how to engage in analysis of historical material. Table 22 displays the main responses related to explicit instruction.

Table 22

Purposeful Sample Interview Responses for Explicit Instruction

Teachers	Description		
	Content Courses	Methods Courses	Classroom Use
Sally	none lecture, no practice	no modeling, strategies for instruction, lecture, guided practice for reading	model first, practice, use of documents
Jane	none	none	quotes and writing prompts
Judy	none	none	whole group analysis
Linda	none	none, just strategies	comparisons
Tim	no modeling, some guided practice, expected to know	just strategies	demonstrate to whole group, practice, work in pairs, reading and vocabulary skills
Ron	none	none	model curiosity
Bob	none	none	include demonstration of struggling with different views, model and practice, questioning, groups

Training Needs

When asked about ideas and needs for future HTS training, a few common themes appeared. Table 23 contains the main responses related to training. The seven teachers spoke about the need to engage in hands-on training specific to their teaching assignments and HTS that included modeling and guided practice. Jane remarked, “Departments should have a mandatory training time to discuss and plan.” Jane later stated, “All the training ... is worthless because if I’m not able to practice it, I won’t remember it.” Judy discussed the need for better examples, and stated, “...there should be more modeling of it, especially with teachers.” In addition, teamwork was mentioned as an important component of exploring HTS. Specifically, teachers talked about creating content teams to produce collections of sources and HTS teaching strategies. For example, Bob stated, “It would be cool if we already had something setup...the best ideas from other teachers.” As part of this, teachers addressed the importance of working with experienced teachers to develop resources. Practical hands-on training appeared as the dominant theme, as well as concerns about having time to implement strategies.

Table 23

Purposeful Sample Interview Responses for Training Desires

Teachers	Description
Sally	hands-on activities and workshops on how to do it
Jane	mandatory training and meeting times for departments and content teams
Judy	useful examples coupled with modeling, modeling how to teach about bias, sharing with other teachers
Linda	show us how to do the activities in our content
Tim	provide collections of sources and ideas created by teachers, critical thinking workshops specific to content, grant opportunities
Ron	sharing and mentoring with experienced teachers, grants and access to rich primary sources
Bob	teamwork, vertical training from middle school to high school, sharing of resources and strategies, how to incorporate portfolios

Observations Results

During classroom observations, observation notes were taken to capture a snapshot of HTS use in the classroom. Common patterns appeared for the seven teachers in the purposeful sample. Sally, Linda, and Bob taught lessons about Ancient India in their World History I classes. Jane, Tim, and Ron focused their Virginia and United States History lessons on political issues that arose from the Civil War to World War I.

The World History II teacher, Judy, centered her lesson around revolutionary ideas of the 18th century in Europe. A common component of all lessons was the use of elaborate questioning strategies throughout the lesson. During one observation, Tim included a variety of questions such as, “Why? How do you know that is true? Where did you find that information? Do other sources say the same thing or different things?” These probing and prompting questions were found in the lessons that were observed. A common teaching strategy involved purposefully placing students into groups or pairs to process a variety of material related to the topic in preparation for debate or whole class dialogue. For example, in Bob’s World History I class, groups of students gathered information from historical maps, web quests, excerpts, and the textbook to create a Venn diagram that compared ancient Indian cities to a contemporary city. In addition, all teachers called attention to drawing conclusions based on evidence. For example, in the U.S. History classrooms, after assigning students to small groups, Jane, Tim, and Ron asked their students to analyze a variety of quotes, political cartoons, and maps to draw conclusions about the early 19th century. Two of the U.S. History teachers, Jane and Ron, tasked students with comparing 19th century political propaganda to current political campaigns. All seven teachers first demonstrated how to complete the tasks, checked for understanding, and monitored and assisted students as they processed material. Although not all teachers used individual computers in the lesson, electronic resources were used by all seven. Three teachers designed the lesson around web quests on laptop computers. Three others incorporated video clips of art work and news reels during whole group instruction. One located pictures of artifacts on the web for students to analyze. In all

seven classrooms the lesson plan objectives included drawing historical conclusions and making personal meaning from different sources of information.

During observations a variety of primary sources were incorporated into the lessons. Teachers used pictures of artifacts, art, short quotes, and excerpts from primary documents. As an example, Judy (World History II) incorporated art slides and music from the Enlightenment and Baroque periods into the lesson. Judy also tasked her students with comparing historical issues to contemporary issues, calling attention to personal perspective and bias. Her students produced a creative writing product to portray their findings. In addition, some teachers used electronic sources during whole group instruction to initiate discussion and to demonstrate how to process material. During the lessons, students responded to questions, debated issues, engaged in brainstorming, compared and contrasted material, and worked with small groups to draw conclusions. Processing and critical thinking were dominant themes for the students in all seven classrooms. Furthermore, students produced written material as a final product of their analysis, and they verbally defended their conclusions.

In all seven classrooms, teachers and students actively processed material. Teachers incorporated a wide range of materials in their lessons, while students processed many sources of information about the past. Students also worked in groups to draw conclusions from materials beyond the text. The seven teachers remained actively engaged with the students throughout the lesson, constantly asking questions and moving about the room to monitor progress. In terms of HTS, teachers' lessons included mostly corroboration and contextualization, with less emphasis on sourcing and explicit instruction. Table 24 shows dominant HTS activities during the lessons.

Table 24

Dominant HTS Activities from the Observations of the Purposeful Sample

Subject	HTS Items Observed		
	Sourcing	C & C	Explicit Instruction
WH I	explains origins of sources from Indus Valley, research assignment, poses questions, explains paraphrasing	electronic items, artifact pictures, excerpts, historical maps, texts, web quests, visuals, compare past situations to present	demonstrated how to read and think, and interpret, time for practice, individual assistance, show how explore web, models posing questions
USH	reactions to quotes, written responses shared with partner, debate, posing questions	quotes, excerpts, political cartoons, historical maps, text, pictures, electronic sources, web quests	demonstrate how to explore the web, demonstrate how to think aloud, talk about how to interpret, self-discovery

C & C = corroboration & contextualization; WHI = World History I; USH = U.S. History

Document Analysis

Teachers in the purposeful sample also provided copies of instructional documents that were used during the observations. In general, the instructional plans listed a variety of resources for use during the lesson, in addition to teacher and student activities. Also, the instructional documents included references to the use of graphic organizers and vocabulary development. The learning plans included aims, objectives, resources, key questions, procedures, activities, and assignments. Beyond the actual learning plans, teachers also provided copies of some handouts used during the observation.

A review of the instructional documents produced evidence of HTS. Each of the seven learning plans addressed the components of HTS in varying degrees. The World History plans included analysis of quotes, art, excerpts, and historical maps. The U.S. History plans also focused on analysis of quotes, excerpts, political cartoons, and historical maps. The learning plans also included processing time with partners or groups as well as individual work. In addition, the plans addressed culminating activities that incorporated material from the lessons. Examples of HTS culminating activities for World History and U.S. History are listed in Table 25.

Table 25

Culminating Activities Listed in Instructional Documents

Create a mock interview with the current Dalai Lama

Describe what archaeological evidence reveals about the Indus Valley

Create a Venn diagram to compare Mohenjo-Daro to your city

Draw conclusions from maps and cartoons from the Civil War

Compare political cartoons from Jacksonian America to present political portrayals

Create a political party

Summary

This descriptive study provided a glimpse of HTS experiences. The social studies teachers in this study represented several high schools in a large, urban school system. In response to the first research question that addressed HTS experiences in college courses and professional development activities, teachers reported being exposed to the practice of using many different sources to gain an understanding of the past. However, the results indicated that teachers rarely received training that included modeling and guided practice, key components of HTS. With reference to the second question that addressed differences based on years of experience and type of degree, teachers with 0 to 15 years of experience and a graduate degree reported the most exposure to and use of HTS,

followed by teachers with 0 to 15 years experience and an undergraduate degree.

Teachers with over 15 years of experience and an undergraduate degree reported the least experience with and use of HTS. Furthermore, teachers reported more HTS experiences in content courses versus methods courses. The final research question addressed classroom use of HTS, and teachers mostly used corroboration and contextualization.

Observation findings suggest that teachers incorporate many types of primary sources to encourage students to make meaning of the past. However, the observation results also suggest that teachers focused less on sourcing and explicit instruction compared to corroboration and contextualization. Finally, teachers attended a variety of training activities, but they requested content specific training for the future that addresses how to “do” history. In conclusion, a clear need exists for developing HTS training that is practical, useful, and engaging, while also adhering to accountability standards.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This study investigated the experiences of high school social studies teachers with HTS. In addition, this study explored the use of HTS in high school social studies classrooms. Specifically, this descriptive study sought to gather data about the types of experiences social studies teachers had with HTS in college content and methods courses, as well as professional development activities. In addition, this study explored the degree to which teachers employed HTS in their classrooms. This chapter will close with a discussion of limitations of the present study and future research possibilities.

Chapter V will discuss the results of the HTS study. This chapter is organized around the three research questions and HTS scales:

1. What type of preparation and experiences did secondary social studies teachers have with source analysis and historical thinking skills in college content courses, methodology courses, and professional development activities?
2. Do the experiences differ based on years of experience and type of degree?
3. How do secondary social studies teachers use HTS (sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction) in their lessons?

Teachers' Preparation and Experiences with HTS

Overall, the results suggest that secondary social studies teachers were exposed to HTS in varying degrees in college courses and in professional development activities. In addition, the results suggest that teachers experienced corroboration and contextualization more so than explicit instruction during their course work and professional development activities. Furthermore, when comparing the larger sample to the purposeful sample, both samples reported similar experiences. The results suggest that teachers had the least exposure to explicit instruction in HTS. The findings indicate that modeling and guided practice were uncommon experiences for the teachers who participated in this study, yet the results also show that teachers worked with a wide range of sources in college courses and during professional development activities.

It has often been suggested that the training experiences of teachers influences how they develop their strategies. For example, Ragland (2007) concluded that teachers adopted strategies that were modeled and emphasized the most. The results of the current study support Ragland's earlier findings. Teachers reported using diverse sources in their college course work and professional development activities, but they rarely reported being shown how to use HTS skills. Specifically, a common experience was a lack of guided practice time with sourcing and explicit instruction, which relates to a prior study conducted by Fallace (2007). Fallace designed a study to explore the gap between content knowledge and pedagogy, and concluded that exposure to conflicting sources during preservice training held promise for improving social studies instruction. However, Fallace called for additional studies to explore why exposure to sources is insufficient for the development of HTS.

Patterns appeared in the open-ended items on the HTSQ. Once again, when comparing both samples, the larger sample and the purposeful sample reported similar responses on the open-ended items. Teachers wrote about using many types of sources in their college courses and PDP activities. However, a troublesome theme centered around being expected to know how to analyze diverse sources without being exposed to demonstrations and guided practice. With reference to sourcing (identifying authorship, bias, and circumstances), Cindy wrote, “we were expected to know how to do that.” Robert wrote, “Professors never showed us how to interpret sources.” Findings from earlier studies suggested that a need exists for presenting processing frameworks to use with HTS. Specifically, Van Hover and Yeager (2004) addressed the need to emphasize how to “do” history in teacher training programs so that the skills effectively transferred to first year teaching and beyond. Furthermore, in a study of inservice teachers, Yilmaz (2008) found that many of the teachers neglected to address the interpretative component of history. Similarly, in the open-ended responses from the current study, the 64 teachers rarely mentioned specifically “doing” history, but instead commented on gathering information about the past from many different sources. According to Wineburg (1998), the foundation for HTS lies in understanding context and processing strategies that evolve as one moves from novice to expert. For Wineburg, the crucial process includes learning how to ask questions about the sources. Rarely did teachers in the current study address being taught how to ask questions during processing, although they generally incorporated questioning and discussion into their processing frameworks.

Differences in Preparation and Experiences in Content and Methods Courses

Teachers reported different experiences with HTS in content and methods courses. Content courses provided significantly more experiences with HTS for each of the three scales than did methods courses. Also, differences occurred based on years of experience and type of degree. Generally, when teachers had less than 15 years of experience and a graduate degree, they reported more experiences with HTS in college courses. When teachers had over 15 years and an undergraduate degree, they reported limited exposure to HTS in college courses. The results of the current study indicate that less experienced teachers had more preparation and experiences with HTS than more seasoned teachers.

However, in a pilot study of preservice teachers and HTS (Trombino et al., 2009), participants reported more exposure to HTS in methods courses than in content courses. In the pilot study, the majority of preservice teachers were preparing to become elementary teachers, and as such were not pursuing a degree in one of the social studies subjects. The current study's participants all held teaching positions in social studies subjects, and the majority held content degrees in history or political science. Clearly, the two samples had different college course experiences. In addition, the participants of the pilot study were enrolled in a social studies methods course when the HTSQ was administered. A possibility exists that the two professors (both of whom were former social studies teachers) devoted instructional time to HTS as part of the methodology syllabus. This provides one explanation for the different results from the pilot study when compared to the current study. Another probable explanation is that elementary preservice teachers take content courses at a more general level, compared to the courses

taken by a history major. For this reason it is possible that preservice elementary teachers do experience more HTS training in their methods courses, while secondary preservice teachers experience more HTS training in their higher level content courses.

On the rating scale portion of the HTSQ, teachers with a graduate degree reported interpreting more sources in methods courses than teachers without a graduate degree, although open-ended responses failed to corroborate this result. One possible explanation is that this finding resulted from increasing experience with critical analysis typical of graduate level work. In a prior study, Rouet et al. (1996) noted that exposure to multiple sources in college courses increased the use of HTS. Yet Fallace (2007) argued that exposure alone was insufficient for improving HTS, while Monte-Sano and Cochran (2009) concluded that HTS evolved over a continuum. It is possible that as individuals progressed from novice to expert, and developed their historical thinking skills, they automatically enhanced their critical analysis of sources so that it appears to be an innate or transparent ability. This topic would benefit from additional research, but confounding variables complicate the issue. For example, it is difficult to assess when and how one develops historical thinking skills. In addition, many other factors vary such as the delivery of instruction and type of learning environment. Without a control on these factors, the findings are difficult to interpret.

Furthermore, it can be theorized that individuals with 16 or more years of experience would receive higher scores on the Likert scale portion of the HTSQ than teachers with less experience. This was not the case. In considering why teachers with less experience reported more exposure to HTS in content and methods courses, perhaps a trend to move beyond the textbook and incorporate electronic material in the past

decade has influenced college level instruction and use of HTS. Barton and Levstik (2004) devoted their research to teaching history, and their findings were reported in various formats accessible to teachers. In addition, Wineburg (2001) specifically wrote about problems associated with teaching history. Also, advances in digital technology opened access to electronic sources that were previously unavailable to teachers. Recent articles in professional journals for teachers addressed using primary sources beyond the text. For instance, Martin and Wineburg (2008) concentrated on web access. Over the past decade primary source analysis has appeared as a common topic in social studies journals and conferences. According to Nokes et al. (2007), the use of multiple sources helps individuals improve construction of meaning as they make sense of different accounts from the past. Debate and questioning also enhance the construction of knowledge (Reisman & Wineburg, 2008). In the current study, corroboration and contextualization appeared as the dominant topic in open-ended responses. These teachers also wrote about the use of debate, questioning, and discussion in their college content and methods courses.

Overall, teachers reported the least exposure to explicit instruction. This was the case for both the larger sample and the purposeful sample. However, teachers reported more experiences with explicit instruction in content courses versus methods courses. In addition, those teachers with less than 16 years of experience reported more experiences with explicit instruction than teachers with over 16 years of experience, but the experiences were minimal. As noted by Okolo et al. (2007), structured guidance is an essential component of improving HTS. Yet teachers reported limited experience with explicit instruction. In addition, Stahl et al. (1996) reported that without guided practice,

individuals struggled with making meaning. More recently, Martin and Wineburg (2008) addressed the importance of guided practice when working with sources. Participants in the current study reported less exposure to and use of explicit instruction than sourcing or corroboration and contextualization.

Classroom use of HTS

Overall, teachers reported using HTS in their high school classrooms. The scale scores for classroom use of HTS indicated that teachers used sourcing, corroboration and contextualization, and explicit instruction. Teachers' responses were similar when comparing the larger sample and the purposeful sample. However, the scores also indicated that explicit instruction was used slightly less than sourcing and corroboration and contextualization. In addition, the second open-ended item asked participants to describe the types of sources and historical thinking activities that they used in their classrooms. Teachers' responses to this item indicated that they relied on many types of sources beyond the textbook when they designed lessons. Also, teachers reported using questioning, debate, and discussion in their own lessons, and these were skills that teachers reported as regular components of college course work and professional development training. This finding is consistent with earlier results from Ragland (2007), suggesting that the transfer of instructional strategies hinges on frequent and consistent exposure to the strategies. What transfers to the classroom are the predominant experiences from college course work and professional development.

In the current study, with reference to college courses, teachers consistently spoke about being required to gather material from a variety of sources to prepare for debates and discussions. These are the same skills that transferred to the classrooms of the

teachers in the current study, with a noticeable absence of explicit instruction. A recurring activity in the observations was the emphasis on gathering information from a wide range of sources to construct meaning. In addition, interviews of the seven teachers in the purposeful sampled suggested that teachers also embedded questioning, debate, discussion, and processing in their lessons that addressed HTS. Reisman and Wineburg (2008) addressed the importance of using guided questioning to place events in context, along with providing time for explicit instruction and guided practice. An analysis of instructional documents also suggested that teachers included processing skills as a routine component of their lessons, but explicit instruction was less prevalent.

During classroom observations teachers used a variety of historical thinking skills. Mostly, teachers incorporated diverse primary sources in their lessons. They included short excerpts, visual materials, and electronic items. In addition, activities revolved around processing information and critical analysis. Teachers designed lessons around partner and group analysis that included higher level questioning, debate, and discussion. Although the three HTS heuristics were observed in the lessons, classroom observations provided more evidence of corroboration and contextualization, with less evidence of sourcing and explicit instruction.

Training and Professional Development Experiences

In addressing the possible disconnect between college courses and teaching, Van Hover and Yeager (2004) identified a need to develop ongoing mentoring programs to support and nurture the use of HTS. Teachers in the current study expressed concerns about time and standardized testing. When asked about desired training for the future, teachers consistently spoke about time to watch and practice skills with veteran teachers.

For instance, Bob stated, "...we need better examples...there should be more modeling of it, especially with teachers." Again, this statement provides important insight about teachers and training. The findings suggest that teachers seek hands-on training that is practical, efficient, and effective. Although teachers reported varying degrees of training in HTS, they lacked specific training with modeling and guided practice that included content-specific examples.

Mayer (2006) addressed the importance of time, the need for reflection, and the need for support for teachers who wished to incorporate HTS and acknowledge the usefulness of critical thinking. One teacher, Justin, commented, "You get your best ideas from other teachers." The same teacher concluded, "The best thing is critical thinking skills and getting them to think on their own." The comments from the teachers resonated with a desire to collaborate with other teachers, but time factors arose as challenges. With reference to school system sponsored professional development program classes, George remarked, "nine times out of ten nobody wants to be there." Yet this same teacher went on to describe extraordinary training experiences connected to museums and archives. The results of this study suggest that teachers hope for rich, effective, and efficient training experiences that easily transfer to their classrooms. For example, teachers specifically addressed the rich experiences from grant programs such as the Teaching American History (TAH) grant. They wrote about the benefits associated with TAH resources and instructional strategies. In addition, these same teachers noted the importance of working with other TAH grant recipients to develop teaching resources. However, in a study of TAH grant recipients, Mucher (2007) reported that TAH grant recipients did not profoundly change their instructional

strategies. Mucher's results should cause one to ask important questions about how to engage teachers in meaningful professional development.

The results of this study are similar to a pilot study of preservice social studies teachers and HTS (Trombino et al., 2009). The results of the pilot study indicated that preservice teachers experienced corroboration and contextualization more than sourcing or explicit instruction in college courses. Similarly, in the current study, social studies teachers reported more experience with and use of corroboration and contextualization than sourcing or explicit instruction. Also, in both the pilot study and the current study, participants reported a variety of ways to incorporate HTS into lessons. With reference to professional development and training, the teachers in both studies may be exposed to more HTS than teachers from other regions. For example, the school system in this study has emphasized critical thinking and 21st century skills as part of the annual training requirements for teachers. Specifically, teachers have participated in grant programs that emphasized primary sources and mini workshops with historians. Since the university prepares preservice teachers for practicum experiences in the local area, it is conceivable that the methods courses emphasize the same topics as the school system.

Limitations

This study had threats to external validity due to the use of a convenience sample. Although token gifts were offered for participation, and numerous attempts were made to solicit volunteers, only 40% chose to complete the HTSQ. In conversations with the social studies department chairs, they commented that time constraints and demanding schedules prevented teachers from volunteering. Ideally, a higher return rate would strengthen the study and yield results that were more generalizable to secondary teachers

in this school district. In addition, the results have limited generalizability to secondary social studies teachers from one urban public school system in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. However, the high schools in this study were representative of typical urban populations. Also, the pilot study of preservice teachers (Trombino et al., 2009) provided a foundation for expanding the study to include inservice teachers in a neighboring public school system where many preservice teachers complete student-teaching hours.

Other limitations threatened the study's internal validity. As is true with all survey research, this study relied mostly on teachers' self-reports of their experiences with minimal direct evidence that they possessed the HTS skills. The purposeful sample provided a way to establish consistency of information by relying on several sources of data collection. Triangulation was addressed by cross checking data and comparing HTSQ responses, observations, interviews, and instructional documents. In addition, the results of the entire sample were compared with the results of the purposeful sample. Responses were consistent across scales and open-ended items.

It is possible that the open-ended items on the HTSQ were too general, since items were not divided into separate segments for each HTS scale. In the future, the open-ended items may better address each scale by adding specific items for each heuristic. For instance, one open-ended item would address sourcing in content courses, and another would ask about methods courses, and a third would ask about corroboration and contextualization, followed by explicit instruction. By modifying the open-ended items, teachers would be able to focus their responses to each scale.

Sampling strategies and the small number of observations may not have captured the extent to which teachers employed HTS. For instance, observations were arranged during a time when teachers expected to include HTS and may not be representative of day to day instruction. Each teacher was observed one time for a period of 45 to 90 minutes. Ideally, the procedure would include multiple observations of each teacher.

Reactivity to the researcher could have produced an effect since both teachers and students were made aware of the purpose of the observation. However, teachers provided limited information to the students about the researcher and the study. In addition, classroom observations are a routine part of the school day in all high school classrooms in this school system.

Implications for Research and Practice

The field of historical thinking skills would benefit from additional research. The results of this study indicate that inservice secondary social studies teachers vary in their HTS knowledge and use of HTS based on years of experience and type of degree. Specifically, teachers with 15 or less years of experience reported more use of HTS than teachers with over 15 years of experience. However, explicit instruction and guided practice were not common experiences among any of the teachers, even though they reported using a variety of sources. Related to the earlier findings of Yilmaz (2008) and Wiersma (2008), this study identified a crucial need to address HTS and teacher training to ensure that teachers enter the classroom equipped to use and demonstrate HTS. The effectiveness of an intensive professional development program devoted to modeling and guided practice might be evaluated.

Another important direction for study is the blending of HTS with access to electronic material as a typical aspect of social studies instruction in the 21st century. As noted by Saye and Brush (2007), the purposeful inclusion of technology helps to engage learners and enhance their inquiry skills as they learn to navigate and interpret various digital evidentiary accounts of the past. The ability to discern fact from fiction is a crucial skill in the world of rapidly changing technology. Digital material adds another layer to HTS and should be incorporated into further study. Critical analysis of sources provides opportunities for students to explore the diverse stories from the past to construct meaning. Electronic material alleviates the cumbersome process of locating printed copies of sources, and digital items allow teachers to incorporate a variety of sources in their lessons. As addressed by VanFossen and Berson (2008), with increased access to digital documents and other source items, a need exists to explore HTS, technology, and explicit instruction as they relate to 21st century skills associated with critical analysis.

Potential exists for the expansion of this study. Future research could explore the degree to which teachers use HTS in more depth and breadth. At a basic level, future research would include larger sample sizes that incorporated more observations and interviews than the current study. In addition, a more random sample would improve the validity of the study. An ethnographic design would add strength to the study by exploring the experiences of social studies teachers over an extended period of time such as one school year. Specifically, this would allow the researcher to gain an understanding of the degree to which the cultural group of secondary social studies teachers use HTS during the course of a school year. Random and prearranged observations would provide

rich sources of data. Sampling might include a specific subgroup of social studies teachers, such as World History or U.S. History teachers from neighboring school systems in one region. The study could expand to include other comparable regions and schools. Other sources of data would include instructional documents such as learning plans and teaching resources. The inclusion of a larger sample that incorporated observations and interviews would strengthen the study.

In addition, although complex, it would be beneficial to design a longitudinal study that followed first year teachers over their first five years of teaching. As suggested by Mayer (2006), a case study approach provides a lens for viewing a teacher's development and use of HTS. In addition to observations and the collection of teaching artifacts, a longitudinal study would also utilize reflective journal entries and interviews. The use of a case study approach would expand on the earlier studies and address gaps in research.

Since the current study produced results that suggested that teachers lacked training with modeling and guided practice (explicit instruction), an experimental design provides another possibility for future research. For example, social studies teachers from one school system would be divided into three groups. One group would receive HTS resources, but would not receive HTS training. A second and third group would receive specific HTS training and content specific resources for explicit instruction. The groups would include teachers matched on years of experience and type of degree. For instance, each group would be purposefully selected to include teachers with specified years of teaching that represented the typical range of experience. Initial training would occur prior to the school year with the prearranged second and third groups. Both the

second and third groups would be told that trained researchers and administrators would conduct random and prearranged observations throughout the year. In addition, one group that received training would be told that administrators would be required to record evidence of HTS as part of their evaluations. The other group that received training would be asked to implement the strategies without any mention of administrative evaluations. At the conclusion of the school year, results from groups would be analyzed and compared to see whether differences occurred based on the knowledge that administrators were evaluating teachers' use of HTS. An accountability check may be a crucial step in putting training into practice.

A reasonable conclusion is that without time to explore and practice HTS, teachers struggle to include these skills in their lessons. Van Hover and Yeager (2004) addressed the disconnect from college work to classroom instruction. The results of this study indicated that teachers experienced limited instruction related to modeling and guided practice, and they also reported limited use of explicit instruction in their own classrooms. With access to so many electronic resources, it would be beneficial to include studies that address the effective use of digital sources to promote HTS.

The results of this study highlight teachers' strengths and weaknesses associated with HTS. The results suggest that the majority of teachers in this study frequently used a variety of sources and processing strategies. To create opportunities for students to construct meaning, teachers noted extensive use of questioning and discussion, coupled with writing activities. However, teachers rarely engaged in a step by step approach to demonstrate how to "do" history.

In terms of future training opportunities, teachers' responses suggested that they desire content specific training that allows time for practice. Specifically, teachers voiced a desire to work with their peers to share and produce materials that directly relate to teaching assignments. Some teachers actually requested HTS training with experts who would show them how to teach students the process of analyzing sources. Another concern emerged over the issue of time. Therefore, the training would need to be custom designed for specific content units, to be effective and efficient. With such training for an entire school system, it would be appropriate for the school system to monitor the implementation of HTS in the social studies classroom. A formative evaluation of HTS training and use would provide insightful information that could be used to enhance training and teaching.

For two decades researchers have explored varying degrees of HTS, yet a clear need still exists to improve history instruction in secondary schools. With an emphasis on 21st century skills that include thinking and the adept use of technology, it becomes increasingly obvious that Wineburg's ideas about critical analysis are still important components of understanding history. The notion that events from the past are compared and judged to make meaning directly relates to skills that transfer into life skills. In addition, teachers in this study requested practical, hands-on HTS training that easily translates to their classrooms. If history is a tool for learning how to think and judge, then by moving beyond a focus on high-stakes tests, ideas from Wineburg (2001) and others can be used to improve social studies instruction in the 21st century.

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Appendix A

HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS QUESTIONNAIRE**Study Description**

As part of my requirements for my doctoral program of studies, I am conducting a descriptive study of historical thinking skills. Historical thinking skills involve the use of critical analysis and interpretation of various sources, with an emphasis on processing materials to gain understanding. The questions focus on historical thinking skills and the experiences and practices of secondary social studies teachers in college courses as well as their current high school classrooms.

Your participation is voluntary and your completion of this questionnaire indicates your willingness to participate. Your answers will provide important insights about historical thinking skills. In exchange for your help, I have volunteered to provide resources and training associated with historical thinking skills. At a later date I will present the results of this study. You will not be identified by name or any identifying characteristic in any written report, so please be candid in answering the questions. I thank you for your time. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me.

Denise L. Trombino

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Historical Thinking Skills Questionnaire

Please provide demographic information. You will not be identified by name in any reports generated from this study.

1. DEGREES: Please list the degrees and major areas of study that you have completed.

A. What undergraduate degrees have you completed?

Degree(s) earned:

Major areas of study:

B. What graduate degrees have you completed?

Degree(s) earned:

Major areas of study:

2. TEACHING CERTIFICATION: Please check the items that apply to you.

Certified to teach secondary social studies

Certified to teach only limited subjects (check the subjects)

History

Government

Other (please list)

Geography

Psychology

Not certified at this time

3. TEACHING EXPERIENCE – Check the appropriate year range.

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

<input type="checkbox"/> 0-5	<input type="checkbox"/> 6-10	<input type="checkbox"/> 11-15	<input type="checkbox"/> 15-20	<input type="checkbox"/> 21-25	<input type="checkbox"/> 26-30	<input type="checkbox"/> over 30
CURRENT TEACHING ASSIGNMENT (subjects and grade levels):						

4. If you are willing to participate in observations and interviews, please list your contact information. You will not be identified in any reports. Participants selected for observation will receive gift cards from local vendors.

NAME:	EMAIL ADDRESS:	SCHOOL:	PHONE:

Part 2: Corroboration and Contextualization. Items 11 through 20 address the concepts of corroboration (comparing and contrasting various sources) and contextualization (constructing meaning).

Rate your knowledge and experiences in content and methodology courses based on the rating scale listed below. Check the appropriate box.

1 – never 2 – seldom 3 – sometimes 4 – often 5 – regularly

Corroboration and Contextualization Questions	Content Courses					Methods Courses				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. My professors used a textbook as the main source of information.										
12. My professors used primary documents to augment the textbook.										
13. My professors compared text material to a variety of other sources (e.g. visual, auditory).										
14. My professors discussed how to draw conclusions from a variety of sources to gain a comprehensive understanding of past events.										
15. My professors initiated discussions of sources to construct meaning of past events.										
16. I used a textbook as the main source of information in my courses.										
17. I used primary documents to augment The textbook in my courses.										
18. I compared text material to a variety of other sources (e.g. visual, auditory).										
19. I drew conclusions from a variety of sources to gain a comprehensive understanding of past events.										
20. I participated in discussions of sources with my professors and classmates to construct meaning of past events.										

Part 4: Items 31 through 45 address the historical thinking skills that you use in your classroom. Rate your experiences in your classroom based on the rating scale listed below. Check the appropriate box.

1 – never 2 – seldom 3 – sometimes 4 – often 5 – regularly

Sourcing Questions	1	2	3	4	5
31. When I use sources in my classroom, I address how to interpret sources.					
32. When I use sources in my classroom, I address how to identify authorship of sources.					
33. When I use sources in my classroom, I address issues associated with bias.					
34. When I use sources in my classroom, I address the importance of considering relationships and circumstances at the time the source was created.					
35. When I use sources in my classroom, I discuss the usefulness of thinking aloud to interpret sources.					
Corroboration/Contextualization Questions	1	2	3	4	5
36. In my classroom I use the textbook as the main source of information.					
37. In my classroom I use primary documents to augment the textbook.					
38. In my classroom I compare text material to a variety of other sources (e.g. visual, auditory).					
39. In my classroom I discuss how to draw conclusions from a variety of sources to gain a comprehensive understanding of past events.					
40. In my classroom I initiate discussions of sources to construct meaning of past events.					

1 – never 2 – seldom 3 – sometimes 4 – often 5 – regularly

Explicit Instruction Questions	1	2	3	4	5
41. In my classroom I model how to identify authorship, bias, and relationships when interpreting sources.					
42. In my classroom I model how to compare and contrast various sources.					
43. In my classroom I model how to construct meaning from sources.					
44. In my classroom I provide time for guided practice with thinking aloud during source analysis.					
45. In my classroom I provide feedback when I interpret sources.					

Part 5: Write responses to each question.

1. Describe your experiences using primary source analysis and historical thinking skills (sourcing, corroboration/contextualization, and explicit instruction) in college level content and methods courses.

2. Describe the types of sources and historical thinking activities that you use in your classroom.

3. What type of training and professional development experiences have you attended that relate to source analysis and historical thinking skills?

Appendix B

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDELINES FOR HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS

DATE	TIME	TEACHER	SCHOOL	ROOM	SUBJECT

HTS	TEACHER ACTIVITIES	STUDENT ACTIVITIES
SOURCING: Identifying authorship, bias, and relationships		
CORROBORATION / CONTEXTUALIZATION: Comparing, contrasting, and constructing meaning Types of sources used		
EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION: Modeling, guided practice, and thinking aloud		

ADDITIONAL NOTES:

Appendix C

**HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS CONSENT FORM AND INTERVIEW
PROTOCOL****Study Description**

As part of my requirements for my doctoral program of studies, I am conducting a descriptive study of historical thinking skills that will include classroom observations and interviews. *Historical thinking skills involve the use of critical analysis and interpretation of various sources, with an emphasis on processing materials to gain understanding.* The observations and interviews focus on historical thinking skills and the experiences and practices of secondary social studies teachers.

Your experiences and practices will provide important insights about historical thinking skills. Your participation is voluntary and your signature on the consent form indicates your willingness to participate. In exchange for your valuable help, at the conclusion of the observation and interview, I will provide you with a gift card from a local vendor. When I present the results of this study at a later date, you will not be identified in any written report, so please be candid in answering the interview questions. I thank you for your time. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me.

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Consent Form

I consent to be observed during classroom instruction, and I agree to be interviewed by Denise L. Trombino after the observation. She will observe me on _____ 2009. She will interview me on _____ 2009. The interview addresses historical thinking skills in a high school classroom. The observation and interview fulfill a segment of Denise L. Trombino's dissertation requirements for the ECI doctoral program at Old Dominion University.

I understand that Denise L. Trombino will retain the observation notes and the voice recording of the interview. I understand that I will have the opportunity to read the verbatim transcript of the interview and verify that the transcript is accurate.

I agree that the observation notes and the transcript of my interview may be used by Denise L. Trombino in her written report for her dissertation. I understand that I will not be personally identified in any written report or presentation of the observation and interview. I understand that I may withdraw as a subject of this study.

Signature

Date

Historical Thinking Skills – Interview Protocol

Purpose

I am an ECI doctoral student at ODU. Part of my research focuses on historical thinking skills. Historical thinking skills involve strategies and techniques used by teachers and students to analyze a variety of sources. Your experiences bring an important perspective to my research. The interview is about your experiences with source analysis and historical thinking skills. The purpose of this interview is to capture your ideas and strategies for using primary sources.

Confidentiality

Nothing you say will be identified with you personally. If you have any questions during the interview, please ask. If there is anything that you do not want to answer, please tell me. The interview should take approximately 40 minutes. Do you have any questions?

Sourcing:

1. Tell me about your experiences in college level content courses with identifying authorship of sources. (Where did you attend college?)
2. What kinds of experiences did you have in college level content courses with identifying bias and relationships of sources?
3. Turning to your methods courses, tell me about your experiences with identifying authorship of sources.
4. What types of experiences did you have in methods courses with identifying bias and relationships of sources?
5. In your classroom, how do you use identifying authorship of sources with your students?
6. When you are teaching students, how do you include identifying bias and relationships of sources in your lessons?

Corroboration/Contextualization:

7. In college level content courses, what kinds of experiences did you have with using different types of sources?
8. Tell me about your experiences in college level content courses with comparing and

contrasting different types of sources to construct meaning.

9. Thinking about your experiences in methods courses, how did you use different types of sources?
10. In methods courses, what types of experiences did you have with comparing and contrasting different types of sources to construct meaning?
11. Considering your classroom, tell me how you use different types of sources with your students.
12. Focusing on your classroom, share with me how you use comparing and contrasting sources to construct meaning.

Explicit Instruction:

13. Tell me about your experiences in college level content courses with modeling of source analysis and historical thinking skills.
14. What kinds of experiences did you have in college level content courses with guided practice using source analysis and historical thinking skills?
15. Recalling your methods courses, describe your experiences with modeling of source analysis and historical thinking skills.
16. With reference to your methods courses, tell me about your experiences with guided practice using source analysis and historical thinking skills.
17. In your classroom, how do you model source analysis and historical thinking skills?
18. Thinking about your classroom, tell me how you incorporate guided practice using source analysis and historical thinking skills.

Training/Other:

19. What type of training do you feel would benefit teachers who wish to improve historical thinking skills?
20. What type of training have you had with historical thinking skills? (TAH grant?)
21. What are your thoughts about cultural background and its impact on HTS?
22. Do you have anything else that you would like to add?

Thank you for taking the time out of a busy schedule. Your information is valuable, and I appreciate your time and effort.

VITA

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EDUCATION:

- May 8, 2010 Expected date of completion
 Ph.D. in Education Curriculum and Instruction
 Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia
 Dissertation Topic: The Experiences of Secondary Social Studies
 Teachers with Historical Thinking Skills
- 1990 M.S. in Secondary Education, Social Studies, Old Dominion University,
 Norfolk, Virginia
 Concentrations: curriculum theory and writing across the curriculum
 Project: AP European History Manual for Curriculum and Instruction
- 1987 B.A. in Secondary Education, Social Studies, Virginia Wesleyan College,
 Norfolk, Virginia
 Senior Project: created syllabus, readings, and assignments for social
 studies methods course, and taught social studies methods as a teaching
 assistant

EXPERIENCE:

- 1987–present **Teacher**, Social Studies Department, Bayside High School,
 Virginia Beach City Public Schools, Virginia Beach, Virginia
- 1992- 2009 **Chairperson**, Social Studies Department, Bayside High School,
 Virginia Beach City Public Schools, Virginia Beach, Virginia
- 2008 **Research Consultant**, Teaching American History Grant,
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- 1993-1999 **Instructor**, Social Studies Methodology, Adult Studies Program, Virginia
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PUBLICATIONS:

Trombino, D. L., Bol, L., Manfra, M. M., & Pribesh, S. (2009). *Experiences of preservice social studies teachers with historical thinking skills*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Trombino, D. L., & Manfra, M. M. (2008). *Teacher resources for desegregation*. Special Collections, Old Dominion Library, Norfolk, VA.
<http://www.lib.odu.edu/special/schooldesegregation/teachers.htm>.

Trombino, D. L. (2006). Participating as a team member. In *Virginia's workplace readiness skills curriculum* (pp. 13-1 to 13-65). Richmond, VA: CTR Resource Center, Virginia Department of Education.

Trombino, D. L. (2004). Team work module. In *About Face Curriculum*. Virginia Beach, VA: Virginia Beach City Public Schools.

NATIONAL PRESENTATIONS:

Trombino, D. L., Bol, L., Manfra, M. M., & Pribesh, S. (2009). *Preservice social studies teachers' experiences with historical thinking skills*. Paper submitted for presentation.

Trombino, D. L., Fischer, C., & Manfra, M. M. (2008, November). *Connecting local history in the social studies classroom: Investigating desegregation*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the National Council for the Social Studies, Houston, TX.

Fischer, C., Trombino, D. L., & Manfra, M. M. (2008, November). *Historical thinking and student-created digital documentaries*. Session presented at the annual conference of the National Council for the Social Studies, Houston, TX.