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Teaching the Voices of History Through Primary Sources and Historical Fiction: A Case Study of Teacher and Librarian Roles

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ABSTRACT

The ability to analyze alternative points of view and to empathize (understand the beliefs, attitudes and actions of another from the other's perspective rather than from one's own) are essential building blocks for learning in the 21st century. Empathy for the human participants of historical times has been deemed by a number of educators as important for the development of historical understanding. The classroom teacher and the school librarian both have a prominent stake in creating educational experiences that foster the development of perspective, empathy, and understanding.

This case study was designed to investigate the idea that teaching with primary sources and historical novels during historical inquiry enhances students' development of cognitive and emotive empathy. The study was framed around two research questions: *How do classroom teachers and school librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels and primary sources? What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and primary sources on the development of historical empathy?*

The case study was conducted in an English/history humanities block and the school library in a New York City secondary school. Data were collected through classroom observations, interviews with the classroom teachers and librarian, and samples of student work. On the use of primary sources and historical novels, the study found that primary sources must be surrounded by context to be useful to

students in their learning, that secondary sources were necessary for providing that

context, and that historical fiction provides social context, but its use must be

scaffolded to help students distinguish fiction from fact. In addition, the study found

that unless library linkages to primary sources are embedded in classroom instruction,

they are not used by students or teachers.

In answer to the second research question, the study found that primary

sources have a strong impact on the development of historical empathy if their use is

mediated by a teacher or librarian and that cognitive empathy must be developed

before emotive empathy. Finally, this case study showed that a school librarian's

effectiveness is diminished by fulfilling a resource-provider role with no integration

into classroom instruction.

TEACHING THE VOICES OF HISTORY THROUGH PRIMARY

SOURCES AND HISTORICAL FICTION:

A CASE STUDY OF TEACHER AND LIBRARIAN ROLES

By

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degree of Doctor of Professional Studies in Information Management
in the Graduate School of Syracuse University

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PREFACE

This study was designed to take an empathetic look at teacher and school librarian roles in teaching historical inquiry using primary sources and historical fiction. I wondered if the use of sources that were obviously created by real people (as opposed to the generic authorship of textbooks) would impact the development of historical empathy in students. By conducting a case study and observing in eleventh-grade classrooms and the school library, I had the opportunity to witness the authentic instructional context of a slave narrative unit and analyze it from the perspectives of a social studies teacher, English teacher, and school librarian.

My research would not have been possible without the generous support of colleagues and friends. First, I am extremely grateful to the principal, teachers, librarian, and students of "Jones" High School, who welcomed me into their educational environment and shared their enthusiasm for teaching and learning. The school library community of New York City has surrounded me throughout my doctoral program with encouragement, support, and a passion for the power of school librarianship to change students' lives. I am especially indebted to our team in the Office of Library Services: Leanne Ellis, Barbara Jackson, Melissa Jacobs-Israel, Esther Louise, Elizabeth Naylor-Gutierrez, Lois Polite, Judith Schaffner, Lynne Kresta Smith, Mohini Sookdeo, and Carmen Turner.

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Christina Leigh Deitz, Martha Lorber, and Paul Stamas.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Young people today are not prepared to participate effectively in our increasingly diverse society and global economy. Although they have the potential to encounter a wide range of ideas, cultures, customs, and points of view as they navigate through millions of websites, wikis, videos, podcasts, tweets, and IMs, young people tend to use interactive tools and personal online networks to connect with like-minded "friends," rather than to seek diverse perspectives. Increasingly, educators have recognized their responsibility to foster the consideration of diverse points of view and the development of an empathetic stance in their students, because students will not develop these habits of mind on their own (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Dede, 1992; Downes, 2005).

The ability to analyze alternative points of view and the development of empathy (the ability to understand the beliefs, attitudes and actions of another from the other's perspective rather than from one's own) are essential building blocks for learning in the 21st century. Empathy, in fact, rests on the ability to recognize diversity, to seek an understanding of the "strangeness" of others by analyzing their actions and words in the context of their time, culture, or situation (Lowenthal, 2000).

The classroom teacher and the school librarian both have a prominent stake in developing perspective and empathy. History teachers use a variety of primary and secondary sources to bring their students to an understanding of the very nature of

history as interpretation of past actions, events, and words within the context of the historical time. Historical perspective taking or empathy (these terms are related, but not synonymous – they will be differentiated in the section entitled "Purpose of the Study") is a natural outgrowth of understanding the nature of history. Empathy for the human participants has been deemed by a number of historians and history researchers as important for the development of historical understanding (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001; Lowenthal, 2000; VanSledright, 2001; Yeager & Foster, 2001). Sam Wineburg, a noted expert on historical thinking, actually defines the understanding of history as learning what it is to be human (Wineburg, 1999, 2001), and his ideas are confirmed by Lee who states that all of history is human history (Lee, P., 2004). Lee contends that understanding the human story of history helps us understand our own identity (Lee, P., 2004).

Historical empathy may also have a place in the English language arts classroom as a part of reading and understanding historical novels. Empathy in that realm may be defined more broadly than in the history classroom to include perspective taking, emotional identification with the characters (usually the protagonist), and imagination (imagining oneself in the historical situation with a psychological state similar to the characters, but maintaining some degree of one's own feelings and beliefs), but not to include sympathy (feeling sorry for the characters) or what Coplan calls "emotional contagion" (the reader catches the emotion of the characters) (Coplan, 2004; Gernsbacher *et al.*, 1992; Harold, 2003).

School librarians also have a vested interest in the concept of historical perspective taking, not only by providing access to high-quality primary and secondary sources, but also by teaching the evaluation of point of view and the formation of conclusions and interpretations. These important 21st-century learning skills are included in the national standards of the American Association of School Librarians (AASL, 2009b) and taught regularly by librarians in collaboration with content-area teachers.

Pressures in the educational environment, however, have complicated and sometimes marginalized the use of multiple resources and the teaching of history as a human story rather than merely the accumulation of factual knowledge. The teaching of historical perspective taking and empathy may be missing altogether. Increased levels of testing in social studies have led to a content-coverage approach, with a focus on textbooks and lecture and limited or no time allotted to use of multiple sources and in-depth learning or disciplinary thinking (Grant, 2003). Teachers and librarians who wish to replace textbooks with other resources find that the exploding access to digital resources, including an ever-increasing number of primary sources, places new, time-consuming responsibilities on them for selecting the most appropriate resources and teaching students the critical skills of navigation, evaluation, and interpretation that are required for historical inquiry. In addition, the very definition of literacy is changing, because educators are discovering that specialized skills are necessary for students to create meaning from resources in multiple formats, including all the visual and social networking formats that dominate the information environment. In fact, a

term has been coined to represent the new literacy demands – transliteracy – defined as the ability to communicate across multiple platforms and formats (Thomas *et al.*, 2007).

Librarians and classroom teachers, therefore, struggle to integrate perspective taking, empathy and the human aspects of history and culture while they are trying to balance the emphasis on content coverage with the necessity of teaching discipline-based critical thinking skills and the pressure of too many poor quality and disorganized digital resources.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

The 21st century has brought exponential increases in access to information and interactive communication with a global community. The K-12 years of schooling provide society's best chance of preparing the next generation to transform information into knowledge and understanding through thoughtful consumption, critical evaluation of information quality, ethical consideration of multiple perspectives, and creative synthesis and application of understanding to new situations. Librarians have the opportunity to redefine their role in 21st-century learning by teaching 21st-century skills and scaffolding access to resources and interactive communication networks and tools. Changes in information access, then, offer a critical opportunity for changing teaching strategies to meet the needs of today's learners.

Another rising trend in education, the use of an inquiry-based approach to teaching and learning, provides the second opportunity for a new and more effective

approach to teaching in our schools. During inquiry, students engage in questioning, problem solving, active investigation, and critical thinking. The ideas associated with inquiry-based teaching (experiential learning, learning-by-doing, and learning in depth) stem from John Dewey and are currently labeled "constructivism" (Stripling, 2003).

Social studies and history in schools have a particularly prime opportunity to be transformed by the changes in the world of information and inquiry-based teaching, because resources that were previously unavailable to teachers and students are now digitized and accessible through the Internet. Students can read and view sources from around the world and from throughout history (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999). Many of these sources are "primary sources," also called "original sources," meaning that they were created at the time of the situation or event by a participant or observer. With the expanded access to facsimiles of primary sources comes an increasing mandate for teachers and librarians to teach the skills of deriving meaning from primary sources, identifying and evaluating the impact of perspective, balancing multiple perspectives, and developing interpretations based on evidence (Boland & Metcalf, 1993). Students now have the opportunity to "think like an historian," but they have to be taught the skills to do so (Wineburg, 1999, 2001).

One aspect of thinking like an historian is the ability to see history as a human experience and to understand that our understanding of history is based on interpretation of historical evidence. Every piece of historical evidence, particularly primary sources, represents a perspective or point of view. Historians must understand those perspectives within their historical context and balance different

perspectives to form an interpretation. Some historians have described perspective

taking or empathy as essential for developing a deep understanding of history (Davis,

Yeager, & Foster, 2001). The increasing access to primary sources facilitates the

teaching of historical perspective taking, because primary sources usually represent

the human experience in history.

The synergy of these changes in 21st century information and learning

(expanded information access, inquiry-based teaching and learning, increasing access

to primary sources, and the importance of perspective taking) has produced a "perfect

storm" that can greatly impact the history classroom and the school library. The result

can be the development of historical interpretation and understanding in our students

(Adams & Pasch, 1987) and a transformation of the role of a 21st-century school

librarian.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

My broad research question addresses this confluence of changes in the

teaching, learning and library environment of K-12 schools: *What are the implications*

of digital inquiry (inquiry conducted in the digital environment) for both the quality of

student learning and the role of school librarians?

As a part of this broad research agenda, I conducted a research study to

investigate the specific research questions: *How do classroom teachers and school*

librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels and primary

sources? What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and primary sources on

the development of historical empathy?

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this case study was to investigate the roles of classroom teachers (in a history/English humanities block) and the school librarian in teaching with primary sources and historical novels in the classroom and library and to look at the implications for the students' development of historical perspective taking or empathy, as well as ultimately on their historical understanding. For the purposes of this study, the term "historical empathy" is used to encompass two constructs – cognitive and emotive empathy. Cognitive empathy, also called perspective taking, is defined as the ability to understand why historical agents took actions and made decisions, given the context of the time they were living. Emotive empathy is defined as the ability to understand the feelings and beliefs of historical agents, again given the context of the time period. The concept of "empathy" as evoked by historical narrative similarly involves the taking of a character's perspective and a recognition that the self is different from the character (called self-other differentiation), but it expands the idea of historical empathy to include imagined shared feelings (Coplan, 2004).

The study was conducted in an English/history humanities block and the school library in a New York City secondary school. The school site was selected as a typical case from participants in the NYC Teaching with Primary Sources 2010 summer institute. The study included attention to processes for selecting and organizing primary sources, the types of primary sources used, how both primary sources and historical novels are used, the disciplinary skills taught, student demonstrations of

empathy and perspective taking in their assessment products, and teacher and librarian perceptions about their respective goals, roles, and impact on student understanding.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant because it addresses four gaps in the research literature. First, the research about teaching history tends to focus on discrete areas of interest. For example, there is research into history as disciplinary thinking, into the use of primary sources, or into the development of historical empathy. This study, however, was designed to investigate connections between the use of primary sources and the development of empathy. I have analyzed the teaching strategies of two classroom teachers and the school librarian in their use of primary and secondary sources and historical novels and have assessed the resultant student levels of empathetic understanding.

Second, the rapidly expanding digitization of historical primary sources by libraries, archives, museums, and other institutions, as well as the proliferation of digital collaborative and interactive tools, requires new strategies by teachers and librarians in organizing and delivering these resources for effective use. Social tools may enable educators to empower students to participate in the assessment and organization of resources (Lankes *et al.*, 2007b). Research demonstrating positive results from using digital primary sources is needed to help school librarians broaden their instructional vision to incorporate virtual and participatory library services.

The increasing access to primary and secondary sources in multiple formats through the digital environment provides the third significant gap that this study addressed – the nature of the skills that students need in order to make meaning from resources in different formats. Sense-making is a long strand of research in education and school libraries, but the digital environment and the continuing expansion to formats beyond the "book" dictate a research focus on sense-making in these new contexts. This sense-making process is called "digital inquiry" for the purposes of this study.

Finally, this study has probed the definition and negotiation of roles of the humanities teachers and school librarian. The librarian's role delineated in library literature promotes an agnostic approach to inquiry and teacher/librarian collaboration, in which the same inquiry framework and collaboration strategies are used with teachers and classes in every content area. Library research and anecdotal evidence indicate that the librarian's ability to collaborate and teach inquiry-skills lessons may be shaped by the personality and style of the classroom teacher, but not by the nature of the content discipline itself.

Some research in history teaching, however, refutes that generic stance and concludes that inquiry is a process that must be differentiated according to the specific discipline in which it is applied. Furthermore, Seixas (2000, p. 20) has identified three different paradigms of history teaching that influence the way that teachers frame their instruction. Teachers may place greatest emphasis on 1) history as story, collective memory, and heritage; 2) history as disciplinary thinking open to student

interpretation; or 3) history as it serves present-day purposes and social action. School librarians hold similar paradigms about their role, ranging from resource provider (aligned with the paradigm of history teachers who emphasize telling the story) to teacher of information skills (aligned with disciplinary thinking) to a connector to the real world through an emphasis on authentic projects (similar to the history paradigm of serving present-day and social action purposes). This study focused on instructional strategies and negotiated roles of the school librarian and a humanities-block team (a history and an English teacher) as they taught a unit of historical inquiry using primary sources and an historical novel.

This case study was designed to investigate the theory that teaching with primary sources and historical novels during historical inquiry enhances students' development of cognitive and emotive empathy. The case-study approach provides an in-depth and real-life view of the role of a history teacher, an English teacher, and a librarian as they collaborated to teach historical inquiry. The hypothesis about primary sources, historical fiction, and empathy is based on a synthesis of ideas from research literature in several disciplinary fields, including information science, library science, history education, and cognitive science. The following chapter, Literature Review, lays out the line of argument underlying this case study by tracing the relevant research in four main areas: the context of education, school libraries, inquiry and the digital world; the discipline of history and historical inquiry skills; historical empathy; and teaching with primary sources and historical fiction.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Teaching and school librarianship tend to be additive professions. Teachers and librarians are bombarded with new "you can't miss" teaching strategies, tests and test-prep expectations, revised standards, technology, textbooks, digital and print resources, and the flavor-of-the-minute priorities of the principal and school district. The educators are expected to integrate all of the new initiatives into their practice while balancing the sometimes competing pressures. Research on school reform, however, tells us that teachers may resist making changes to their practice even when the new ideas are known and understood and their benefits are clear.

How do teachers and librarians make decisions about their instructional practice and their use of resources? What are the influences on their choices? The focus of this research study was to find answers to these questions by looking at how classroom teachers and librarians use historical fiction and primary sources to teach historical inquiry. The research case study involved a close look at the classrooms of a history/English humanities block and the school library during an historical inquiry instructional unit. My goal was to capture a robust picture of teaching practices in the use of resources through an analysis of classroom and library discourse, the learning context, and conversations/interviews with the teachers and librarian. My expectation was that the use of primary sources and historical fiction would impact students' development of historical empathy.

I cannot assess the nature of historical inquiry instruction without carefully examining the environmental layers that surround and provide a context for decision

making by classroom teachers and librarians. Part I of this literature review peels back the theoretical and research-based environments of education, learning, and motivation; the school library; inquiry-based learning; and the digital world. Core trends in each of these areas provide a synergistic momentum for changes in history teaching and school librarianship.

Part II of this literature review moves from the overall educational context described in Part I to examine more closely the influences on the teaching of history and English teachers and librarians. Several areas of consideration influence teachers' and librarians' decisions during the design and teaching of historical inquiry: the discipline of history; historical inquiry; and historical inquiry skills and habits of mind. Even though a librarian's role is to serve teachers and students across the curriculum, this research study is focused through the lens of teaching history. An understanding of the librarian's role as a collaborator and teacher of historical inquiry leads to a broader understanding of the librarian's role across the curriculum.

Part III offers an in-depth look at historical empathy, including its conceptual definition, importance, strategies for development, and criteria for recognizing and measuring. Both the understanding of and the acceptance of historical empathy have had a controversial evolution over the last thirty years. In Part III, I will clarify and defend the concepts of historical empathy that are used in this study.

Finally, Part IV probes the use of resources, particularly primary sources and historical fiction, to teach historical inquiry. This section connects the types of

resources to the development of both cognitive and emotive empathy. Implications

for the roles of classroom teachers and librarians are included.

PART I: ENVIRONMENTS

EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Ideally, educational environments are designed around what we know about

learning. Research about learning has led to a new science of learning that focuses on

students' understanding and applying ideas to new contexts rather than simply

knowing, doing rather than receiving (active instead of passive learning), and

constructing new understandings rather than memorizing facts (Bransford *et al*.,

2000). The roots of this type of learning, called constructivism, extend back to John

Dewey, who theorized that learning is a combination of Acting and Reflecting on the

thoughts, actions, and feelings. Dewey's philosophy was that meaningful learning

emerges from a series of coherent experiences that enable the learner to engage

actively, reflect, and organize the ideas to derive his own meaning (Dewey, 1938).

Although the foundation of constructivism can be traced back to Dewey, it has

emerged as a prominent educational theory during the last 20-30 years. Despite its

numerous and varied interpretations, constructivism commonly encompasses four

main characteristics: 1) learners are responsible for constructing their own meaning;

2) learners build new understanding on their prior knowledge; 3) learning is social and

formed through social interaction; and 4) the most meaningful learning emerges from

authentic tasks and assessments (Applefield *et al.*, 2000/2001; Bruning *et al.*, 1995; Pressley *et al.*, 1992).

Constructivism and the idea of active learning have been adapted in various ways in the educational environment (e.g., reciprocal teaching of Palincsar and Brown (1984); problem-based learning; inquiry-based learning), but the key goal of the learning is that the learner constructs understanding, not merely accumulates information or knowledge. Constructivist teachers actively foster that construction rather than simply communicate information or knowledge (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

In the often cited book about the science of learning, *How People Learn*, the editors build upon the research to offer three major implications for teaching: 1) Prior Knowledge: Teachers must start with what the students already know and help students construct new understandings from that platform, either replacing misconceptions or deepening the conceptions they already had; 2) In-Depth Learning: Teachers must foster deep learning about major concepts in the curriculum, building on a base of content knowledge and providing multiple opportunities for students to grapple with the ideas to build in-depth understanding; and 3) Reflection and Metacognition: Teachers must provide opportunities and time for students to reflect, to think metacognitively about their own learning. Research shows that integrating metacognitive instruction with discipline-based teaching, grounded in an inquiry cycle, helps students become independent learners and improves their achievement and level of understanding (Bransford *et al.*, 2000).

An in-depth view of a school gathered through a case study enables a researcher to gauge the extent to which the principles of learning and constructivism are integrated into the reality of everyday teaching. That reality is reflected in the learning context that is created and maintained in the classroom and library. *How People Learn* uses the research about learning to describe four general characteristics of an effective learning environment that would support deep and reflective learning. The learning environment should be: 1) Learner-centered (focused on the skills, knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs that students bring with them to the classroom); 2) Knowledge-centered (well-organized discipline-based knowledge and an emphasis on sense-making); 3) Assessment-centered (formative assessments with feedback, self-assessment, and authentic summative assessments); and 4) Community-centered (sense of community created in the classroom as well as connections to the broader community) (Bransford *et al.*, 2000).

The last characteristic of an effective learning environment – community-centered – captures an important and fundamental aspect of learning that may be overlooked in the focus on individual learners – the understanding that learning is social. Lev Vygotsky recognized the interdependence between the individual and his social milieu. To Vygotsky, individuals learn and appropriate ideas internally only when they interact with others in their environment (Vygotsky, 1978).

The idea of the social context of learning has been further explored under the Social Constructivism umbrella. Palincsar (1998) recognizes that learning is qualitatively different from individual learning when it is the result of social

interaction.   Research shows that participants' thoughts, learning, and knowledge are changed as a result of the social context and the experience of multiple perspectives and social construction of ideas (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996; Palincsar, 1998). Brenda Dervin, known for her Sense-Making theory, recognizes the impact of the situational context on the individual's Sense-Making process. Every situation is different, so the meaning of information changes with the context (Dervin, 1998, 2003). Context, in fact, has emerged as an essential aspect of information seeking (Dervin, 1998; Johnson, 2003).

Collaboration and discourse within the social context have been shown to be important for learning. When learners explain their thinking to another, it leads to deep cognitive processing (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1989). Cognition itself is a collaborative process; thought is socially shared information/activities that are transformed into internalized discourse (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996 in Palincsar, 1998; Rogoff, 1998). In social constructivism, knowledge is possessed by a group rather than by an individual (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997).

In addition to active learning and the social construction of knowledge, motivational factors in the educational environment heavily influence the effectiveness of learning. Edward Deci identifies three main components of intrinsic motivation: autonomy support; a sense of competence in meeting a challenge; and relatedness. Autonomy support is defined as providing encouragement, with choice and limitations, for students to initiate actions, experiment, and accept responsibility for their own behavior, rather than pressuring or controlling them. Support for an

individual's autonomy is especially important in inquiry-based learning situations:

"Intrinsic motivation is associated with richer experience, better conceptual

understanding, greater creativity, and improved problem solving, relative to external

controls" (Deci, 1995, p. 51).

Deci draws from the theory of Robert White (expressed in his paper

"Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence") in suggesting the second

factor that underlies intrinsically motivated behavior – the need for individuals to feel

competent in addressing a challenge (White, 1959). Two implications for teachers and

librarians emerge from this motivational factor. First, teaching and scaffolding the

skills of learning must be integrated into learning experiences, so that students are

successful and feel competent. Second, to be motivating, the learning experiences

must present enough challenge to spark the desire to learn. Deci connects the

competence factor with the motivation to engage in inquiry: "When you think about

it, the curiosity of children – their intrinsic motivation to learn – might, to a large

extent, be attributed to their need to feel effective or competent in dealing with their

world" (Deci, 1995, p. 65).

The third factor in intrinsic motivation is relatedness, that people need to feel

connected to each other and part of a social context in order to feel supported in their

autonomy. Deci (1995) finds that individuals accept the values of the group and

assume responsibility for participating in group activities that do not initially interest

them when the environment fosters their relatedness, or sense of community. Deci's

work affirms the importance of the social context of learning advocated by social constructivists.

In an ideal world, the essential elements of an effective learning environment are in place in every classroom and school library. Teachers and librarians are able to teach for understanding in well-designed learning environments that are focused on learner needs, sound disciplinary content and pedagogical practice, and ongoing assessment that enables students and teachers to monitor learning continuously. The classroom and library are communities of interactive learning where ideas are both exchanged and challenged and multiple perspectives are respected.

Research shows, however, that teachers today must contend with numerous issues that surround them with complex influences and little instructional guidance. Testing and accountability may result in a narrowing of the curriculum, time spent in test preparation, the "continued disadvantaging of minority and low income students," and a dampening of the enthusiasm and energy of ambitious teachers (Grant, 2003, p. 147). Edward Deci's work on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation shows the negative effect of using testing as a reason for learning: ". . .the students who learned to put the material to active use displayed considerably greater conceptual understanding of the material than did the students who learned in order to be tested" (Deci, 1995, p. 47).

Research in social studies classrooms reveals that the teachers themselves may be part of the reason that the best ideas from research are not implemented in the classroom. Barton and Levstik (2004) find that many teachers, both new and

experienced, know the characteristics of effective history teaching – investigation, interpretation, and perspective – but they ignore these reform ideas and revert to traditional, lecture- and textbook-based instruction that is focused on content coverage and control of students. Textbooks are given authority as the "true" story of history because they are the resources readily available in the classroom (Bain, 2006). Curriculum decisions are heavily influenced by testing, and social studies curriculum documents are often referred to only in passing because they contain lists of people, places, and events (too many to even be covered) with no guidance in pedagogical techniques (Grant, 2003).

The 21st century skills movement, touted by researchers and practitioners alike, has placed new emphasis on transforming education to meet the needs of today's learners. The call is for a curriculum that effectively integrates solid content knowledge with critical thinking, collaboration, creativity and problem solving skills (Rotherham & Willingham, 2009).   The Common Core national standards, released in June 2010, are permeated with comprehension, research, and critical thinking skills (National Governors Association, 2010). A comparison with the national *Standards for the 21st-Century* Learner issued by AASL (2009b) shows that the Common Core and AASL skills are well aligned and can be integrated to form the basis of the school library curriculum; therefore, the opportunity for school librarians to take an instructional leadership role and pursue collaboration with classroom teachers has never been higher.

Essential 21st-century skills include the thinking, communication, collaboration and presentation skills associated with the use of the latest technology (e.g., wikis, blogs, and websites). Lemke and Coughlin (2009) list four main ways that technology is empowering students; each is within the realm of the school library: 1) Democratization of knowledge through online access to information; 2) Participatory learning through the use of interactive tools; 3) Authentic learning, or in-depth learning that the student produces to share with an authentic audience; and 4) Multimodal learning through a combination of text, sound and visuals.

In summary, the foundation for effective teaching of historical inquiry is embedded in the educational environment. Research-based principles of learning and constructivism translate into practices that empower students to become active inquirers, motivated to use critical thinking, technology skills, and collaborative discourse in their pursuit of information and knowledge. Although the environment is poised for reform, research has shown that teachers are reluctant to take that step. Teachers are challenged by the pressure for content coverage and testing, as well as the onslaught of new technologies and resources. Their response may be to retreat into the safe, traditional, textbook-based mode of instruction.

School libraries and librarians have the potential to shift the educational balance toward reform. School library programs, evolved from the disciplines of library science, information science, and education, can redefine their role in supporting and driving educational reforms. The next section offers an overview of the development and potential impact of school libraries.

DEFINING SCHOOL LIBRARIES AND THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN ROLE FOR THE 21ST

CENTURY

Changes in the educational environment and the infusion of technology require

rethinking the role of the school librarian, as outlined in the new national guidelines

for school library media programs (AASL, 2009a), to include teacher, instructional

partner, information specialist, program administrator, and instructional leader. The

school librarian's role has emerged from an amalgamation of three disciplines – library

science, information science, and education. Each discipline provides a research base

for rethinking the school librarian role for the 21st century.

Library Science

Library science is service-oriented, concentrating on "understanding,

facilitating, or improving access to recorded knowledge" (Bates, 1999; Buckland, 1988,

p. 21). From research in librarianship, school librarians draw central issues of library

professional practice: information retrieval from the perspective of the individual

user, not the system; information gathering behavior, bibliographic control, and the

nature of libraries as social and cultural institutions (Gorman, 1999; Saracevic, 1992;

Wilson, P., 1983).

Library science clearly places the school librarian in the resource provider role,

but that role must change as the educational environment changes. Technology has

multiplied exponentially the amount of information available to our students and has

changed the pattern of reading. A report issued by the Global Information Industry

Center at the University of California, San Diego, estimates that reading of

conventional print media fell from 26% of all words consumed in 1960 to 9% in 2008. At the same time, however, the consumption of words via the computer has grown to 27% of all words consumed (Bohn and Short, 2010).

Technology, then, has provided an imperative for librarians to explore new possibilities for "provision" of resources through the library. Digital inquiry may be most effectively implemented when a virtual environment is created to support the learning. The virtual environment, often a virtual library component of the physical library, serves to "make thinking visible and lead students to develop a stronger sense of public accountability for their ideas" (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999). Fundamental to most school libraries is digital access to the library catalog and online databases. Databases offer dynamic and direct access to valid and reliable information and fulfill the librarian's role of "provider" of high quality information.

Students, however, often choose to ignore databases and explore the Internet to discover resources on their own.   Without guidance and structure provided by a librarian, these students quickly become lost in the millions of hits they gather on Google. School librarians must develop a digital library approach (for example, a portal) that scaffolds students' paths through the digital resources and allows them to make choices within a framework of validity and relevance. The digital resources will include databases, e-books, websites, and digitized primary sources.

Access to a portal designed to meet digital information needs offers students a number of benefits: they are not overwhelmed by the abundance of irrelevant and inconsequential information; they encounter documents in the order which makes

sense for their inquiry (e.g., background and contextual documents early in the process; in-depth and specific information later); the highest quality websites and "hidden web" sites are recommended; and scaffolding and context can be built around the resource links that are provided.

The portal-like structured access to relevant resources enables educators to enrich educational experiences and support inquiry learning by providing context, a variety of formats, and multiple perspectives. The resources linked on the portal should be evaluated based on their ability to transform teaching to active, inquiry-based instructional experiences, their relation to the curriculum, and their high quality (Bull *et al.*, 1999, as cited in Lee, J.K., 2002).

The virtual environment can include spaces for displaying student work (like virtual museums and exhibitions, online historical newspapers written by the students, Voice Thread presentations, podcasts, and online debates) and opportunities for virtual collaboration and communication (like wikis, blogs, online student-written book reviews, Google Docs, and shared tagging). The virtual space must include opportunities to produce multiple formats and include multiple voices and perspectives (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999). The digital environment facilitates connected learning; therefore, the virtual space must take advantage of the hypertext linkages that students can create from site to site and concept to concept. The linkages should demonstrate the relationships among ideas that students have discovered (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999).

Library science has provided a foundation for school library services and led to a resource provider role for the school librarian. Clearly that role must change from collecting and cataloging print resources to guiding and scaffolding the use of both print and electronic resources.

Information Science

In addition to library science, school librarianship has evolved from information science. The roles that emerge from that discipline are also in a state of evolution. Information science is a fairly new discipline defined as "the study of the gathering, organizing, storing, retrieving, and dissemination of information" (Bates, 1999, p. 1044). Information retrieval is at the core of information science (Saracevic, 1992) as it is with library science, but librarianship is "an applied philosophy of information" (Herold, 2001, p. 6; Floridi, 2002) while information science is concerned with providing an academic research base to the phenomenon of information itself (Saracevic, 1992).

School librarians draw upon research in information science to understand what information is and how people access and make sense of it. Information science offers a theoretical base in the phenomenology of information-seeking behavior – "a deep analysis of what the information seeker believes s/he is doing, of what the intention is in the acts employed to discover information, and in what the information found means to the information user" (Wilson, T.D., 2003, p. 448). This shift to a user-centered perspective on information seeking, from a system/resource approach, is

noted by Dervin and Nilan (1986) and extended as a theory of Sense-Making by Dervin

(1998, 2003).

Although school librarians may not recognize that their process models of

research and inquiry and their curriculum of information skills derive, at least in part,

from Dervin's Sense-Making, the line of influence is clear. Dervin asserts that

individuals form knowledge by making sense of the gaps that exist between their

current situations and the uses or outcomes that they desire, which she calls

"discontinuity." The process of Sense-Making stems from a need for information and

knowledge to bridge the gap. Individuals perceive gaps in their situational conditions

and respond by seeking information and constructing knowledge. This drive to bridge

discontinuity that Dervin identifies is related to the sense of perturbation identified by

Dewey (1938) and the need for challenge to generate competence identified by Deci

(1995). In every instance, the learning or inquiry is provoked by a sense of missing or

conflicting information.

Carol Kuhlthau (2004) identifies a similar phenomenon that drives information-

seeking behavior in her Uncertainty Principle. She defines uncertainty as "a cognitive

state that commonly causes affective symptoms of anxiety and lack of confidence"

that anyone who is engaged in an information search process experiences, particularly

at the earlier stages before a clear focus is formulated (p. 92). Kuhlthau recognizes

that uncertainty actually propels the search for information: "Uncertainty due to a

lack of understanding, a gap in meaning, or a limited construction initiates the process

of information seeking" (p. 92).

Kuhlthau's Information Search Process (ISP) provides a sense-making foundation for the school library field. Kuhlthau's model is the only research model in school librarianship that is based on extensive empirical research. The ISP is user-centered and is focused on individual experiences with information seeking and changes in thoughts, feelings and actions during the process of learning, or of transforming information into knowledge. The ISP represents a cognitive approach to studying information behavior, but it defines "cognitive" broadly to include thinking, feeling, and doing. Learning is defined as a constructive process in which meaning is developed by learner, not transmitted by teacher and not housed in the information itself. Kuhlthau's empirical research identifies six phases to the Information Search Process, which may be seen as a recursive inquiry process: Initiation, Selection (topic), Exploration (on general topic), Formulation (of focus and hypothesis), Information Collection, and Search Closure (Presentation) (Kuhlthau, 2004).

The information science discipline has led to an essential development of the school librarian role from providing resources to developing a user-centered approach that emphasizes a process and skills for making sense of information. The curriculum of instruction for the school library is crafted around the core principle of sense-making. The school librarian's role that evolved from information science is to develop a curriculum of information skills that can be applied to learning in any subject area. This sense-making has been further developed and expressed through an inquiry-based focus for school librarians, which will be discussed in the section on Inquiry-Based Learning.

Education

The third discipline that impacts the school librarian is education, because theory and research in education define the librarian's instructional role. Although educational theories abound, and many are applicable to school librarianship, three main theories are important foundations for the current research: John Dewey's series of connected experiences; Lev Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development; and Jerome Bruner's emphasis on interpretation in learning. John Dewey provides the foundation for sense-making and inquiry-based learning and teaching with his philosophy that learners derive meaning by engaging in a series of connected experiences that cause them to hypothesize, reflect, and explore. Since experiences are always transactions with the environment, Dewey sees the teacher's role as the selector of experiences that "have the promise and potentiality of presenting new problems which by stimulating new ways of observations and judgment will expand the area of further experience" (Dewey, 1938, p. 75). Dewey's philosophy is the foundation of the current teaching epistemology called constructivism and the learning framework used by librarians called inquiry.

Lev Vygotsky's theories also have implications for the instructional role of the school librarian. Vygotsky believes that meaning is made as a result of social interaction within a cultural context. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) provides a theoretical base for a whole strand of thinking about teaching and learning. The ZPD represents the gap between the level that a learner can reach on his own and the level he can achieve with provocation and scaffolding from a knowledgeable

"other" (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD is a Zone of Intervention for the librarian (Kuhlthau, 2004) and is justification for facilitative, constructivist teaching in which the librarian carefully creates the environment that challenges students to reach higher levels of thinking and provides the emotional and cognitive supports that enable students to reach those levels.

The psychologist, Jerome Bruner, also offers theories on the nature of learning that contribute fundamentally to the rethinking of the role of the school librarian. Bruner confirms the importance of interpretation in learning; knowledge is not embedded within the content but is constructed by the learner through social interaction (Bruner, 1986). Bruner and his colleagues designed a social studies curriculum called Man: A Course of Study (MACOS) in 1965 to guide the discovery process for students and to ground classroom instruction around socially relevant issues (Bruner, 1965). Bruner feels that students should be engaged in active inquiry, examining diverse perspectives and drawing their own interpretations. Although evaluations of the curriculum showed its positive effects on promoting inquiry, positive classroom interaction, and students' self-confidence in expressing their ideas, the curriculum was short-lived, perhaps because it focused on inquiry and failed to "cover the basic content" and there was public concern that children would be exposed to a variety of perspectives (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996).

School libraries, then, have a unique combination of influences that position the librarian for leading instructional change. Instead of the traditional resource provider role, librarians can take advantage of the digital environment and provide a

portal to the world of information. The increasing digitization of primary sources (and the disorganized access to them) opens an opportunity for librarians to redefine their role in providing access to rich learning resources. Education theorists like Dewey, Vygotsky, and Bruner describe a vision for learning in today's school libraries – experience-based, thoughtful, and challenging. The information science background of libraries contributes a focus for libraries that has perhaps the most potential to transform teaching and learning in a school – the movement from a theory of sense making to a process approach to information skills and instruction and ultimately to inquiry.

INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING

Inquiry-based learning seems to be a natural outgrowth of the research on learning and constructivism; however, the construct of inquiry has been somewhat muddled by the various applications that claim inquiry as their root, including discovery learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, and active learning in addition to inquiry learning. The confusion in the scope and practice of inquiry has resulted in a lack of careful implementation and a dearth of research-based evidence about the effectiveness of inquiry-based learning. Kirschner, Sweller, and Clark published an article, in fact, that declared inquiry-based teaching a failure because it provided too little guidance and scaffolding for students (2006). Other researchers from Rutgers published an article the following year that refuted the arguments in Kirschner's article by differentiating inquiry-based learning from unguided discovery learning and by providing evidence of the scaffolding that leads to effective and

complex learning (Hmelo-Silver *et al.*, 2007). This flurry of controversy is illustrative of

the importance of clearly defining the construct of inquiry-based learning as well as

the learning environment and teaching strategies of inquiry-based teaching. These

definitions and examples will be provided in the context of several sections of this

literature review.

The ability to solve problems and use information-literacy skills to pursue

inquiry-based learning has increasingly been identified as critical to the 21st-century,

not just by educators, but also by business leaders and professionals in every content

area. The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, with an advisory board of prominent

business, professional and technology organizations, has published a framework that

identifies the skills of learning and innovation and the information, media, and

technology skills that are essential to teaching and learning (Partnership for 21st

Century Skills, 2003). Researchers in history education are calling for a shift away from

a fact-drive approach and toward an inquiry-based approach (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003;

Lee, P., 1998; Seixas, 2000; VanSledright, 2002). A librarian in British Columbia,

William Badke, sums up the importance of inquiry (Badke, 2009, p. 55):

> The ability to work with information, whether in written, audio, or video
>
> form -- to define a problem, understand the nature of the information
>
> available, use the best tools well to find the information needed, and
>
> then enlist the information effectively and ethically to address the issue
>
> at hand – may well be the most important skill of the 21st century.

Inquiry is a process for learning that involves connecting to personal interests and a desire to know, gaining background knowledge of historical context, asking questions that probe beyond simple fact gathering, investigating answers to gather evidence from multiple perspectives, constructing new understandings and drawing conclusions with support from historical evidence, expressing the new ideas through a variety of formats, and reflecting metacognitively on both the process and product of learning. Inquiry is recursive and cyclical, with learners going back and forth between the phases to resolve new questions and complexities as they arise. True inquiry should result in new understandings for learners, but not final answers, because during the process, learners should naturally discover new questions and intriguing areas to pursue in future investigations.

The process-model approach to learning and inquiry has evolved quite naturally in the school library field since the 1980's when librarians and library educators began to focus on a research process and information literacy skills. Carol Kuhlthau conducted empirical research and developed a seven-step research process that was published in her 1985 book entitled *Teaching the Library Research Process*. Her process was later revised to become the Information Search Process (ISP) model. Barbara Stripling and Judy Pitts published a ten-step research process in 1988 in their book entitled *Brainstorms and Blueprints: Teaching Library Research as a Thinking Process* based on their professional practice and experience. A third national model of a research process, an information problem-solving model also developed from professional practice, was published in 1990 by Mike Eisenberg and Bob Berkowitz in

Information Problem-Solving: The Big Six Skills Approach to Library and Information Skills Instruction.

Over the last 25 years, the school library field has been replete with variations of research process models, but the increasing importance of constructivism, authentic learning, and inquiry have led some process developers to shift from linear research processes to recursive and cyclical inquiry processes (e.g., the Pathways to Knowledge model developed by Marjorie Pappas and Ann Tepe (Pappas & Tepe, 2002) and the Stripling Inquiry Model).

Based on constructivist and learning theory as well as professional practice, the author has developed an inquiry model with the following phases: Connect, Wonder, Investigate, Construct, Express, and Reflect (Stripling, 2003). Specific thinking strategies and actions characterize each phase, although the whole process is recursive and overlapping (see Figure 1). The Stripling model resembles the cognitive aspects of Kuhlthau's information-seeking ISP model, but it places greater emphasis on certain stages of the process – questioning rather than selecting a topic as the impetus for the investigation; the construction of interpretations and conclusions after information is collected; and final reflection of the learner.
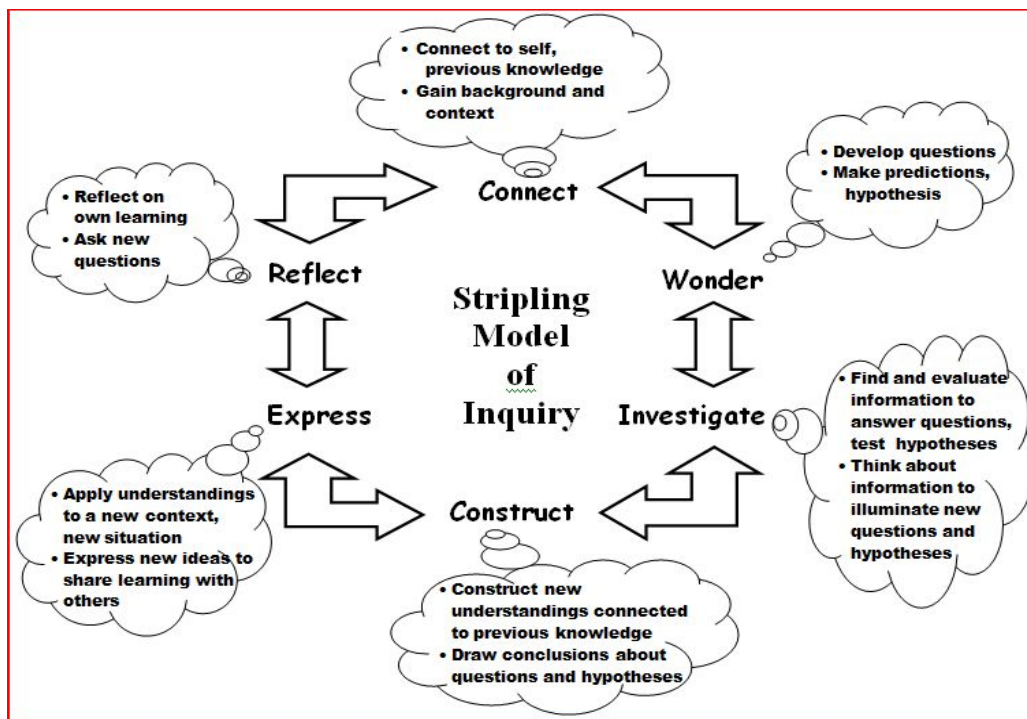
Figure 1: Stripling Model of Inquiry

Process models of research and inquiry are firmly embedded in the school

library field. Librarians plan instructional units with classroom teachers using a process

model as a frame for the design, resources, and instruction in information skills. What

has not been determined, however, is the applicability of a generic process model to

specific content areas. Researchers have been investigating whether the processes

and skills of learning are subject-specific (Richardson, V., 2003). Although some

research indicates that skills do not easily transfer across subjects (Detterman &

Sternberg, 1993; Mayer & Wittrock, 1996), other research finds that there are cross-

cutting skills and processes that can be applied to learning in a contextual way in

multiple content areas (Richardson, V., 2003; Salomon & Perkins, 1987).

The Scientific Method proposed by John Dewey in 1910 and modified by him in

1944 (Barrow, 2006) and then further modified into a process advocated by the Intel

International Science and Engineering Fair (Society for Science & the Public, 2008) is an

example of an inquiry process that looks very similar to the more general inquiry

model proposed by Stripling (see Table 1).

Dewey Scientific Method (1944)	Intel International Science and Engineering Fair (2010)	Stripling Model of Inquiry (2003)
Presentation of the problem	Be curious Ask a testable question Do background research	Connect: Prior knowledge; Personal connection; Background research
Formulation of a hypothesis	Form a hypothesis – possible solutions, predictions	Wonder: Question; Form hypothesis
Collecting data during the experiment	Design the experiment Challenge and test hypothesis through experiment	Investigate: Find and evaluate information to answer questions
Formulation of a conclusion	Draw conclusions based on empirical evidence	Construct: Draw conclusions based on evidence
	Prepare and exhibit report	Express: Create and present a product to communicate conclusions
	Review findings with peers/others Ask new questions	Reflect: Reflect on your process and product; Ask new questions

Table 1: A Comparison of the Scientific Method and a General Inquiry Model

Taken as a whole, the scientific method presents an ideal process for pursuing

scientific questions and conducting experiments to test hypotheses (Bauer, 1992). The

reality of K-12 education and of actual, serendipitous scientific progress demonstrates

that rarely is inquiry conducted with strict adherence to the scientific method. Much

of the active experimentation in schools must be scaffolded, demonstrated, or

simulated – a call for strategic, inquiry-based teaching, not a call for abandoning the

underlying scientific methodology (Bauer, 1992).

The history/social studies curriculum lends itself naturally to the application of an inquiry model because history is an inquiry- and interpretation-based discipline. Surprisingly, though, a model of inquiry has not been proposed for the history field by educators, historians, or researchers. What has been investigated and described is an array of discipline-specific skills and habits of mind, not an overall process of inquiry. Van Drie and van Boxtel (2007) offer a framework for historical reasoning in which they identify six types of reasoning essential to the study of history without attempting to define an historical inquiry process. The six reasoning components are: asking historical questions, using sources, contextualizing, using substantive concepts, using meta-concepts, and developing a line of argument. These components are presented in a visual model that shows that they are mutually dependent, recursive, and interactive, but the model does not indicate when in the process of an inquiry investigation a student should use the reasoning strategies. The noted history researcher, Sam Wineburg (1991), identifies three foundational skills for the study of historical documents – contextualization, sourcing, and corroboration – but, similarly, does not frame those skills within an inquiry process.

I believe that there is no historical inquiry model because history researchers and educators focus on the specific thinking skills required to make meaning from history content, not on the overall process of information-seeking behaviors that bring access to that content.

The lack of an historical inquiry model actually opens the door to collaboration between the school librarian and the history or social studies teacher. The skills of

historical inquiry fit neatly within the Stripling Model of Inquiry and provide definition

to the skills that should be taught or scaffolded at each phase of inquiry. The inquiry

model provides a framework for the overall design of the instructional unit that guides

students and teachers through a complex, student-driven process of developing new

historical understandings. The integration of the skills and strategies of historical

inquiry into the Stripling Model of Inquiry is detailed Part II: History as Disciplinary

Inquiry in the section entitled "Historical Inquiry Skills."

The importance of an inquiry process to teaching and learning in a school can

be enhanced with the opportunities available through technology. The next section

probes the implications of technology for inquiry-based teaching and learning.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE DIGITAL ENVIRONMENT FOR INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING

Technology can be used to strengthen the inquiry-based approach to teaching

and learning. Accessibility to historical primary sources is greatly enhanced through

technology, because the digitization/archiving of historical documents (in all formats)

is expanding rapidly, digital documents are more searchable and manipulable than

non-digital documents, and the hypertext environment enables "a type of connective

meaning that is often buried in traditional narratives" (Lee, J.K., 2002). A case study

investigating the use of primary sources and the role of the school librarian during

historical inquiry must consider the opportunities and challenges offered by the digital

environment.

The learning process may be affected positively by the digital environment.

Learners can grasp the complexity of historical narrative by confronting different

perspectives available through multiple formats (e.g., from official texts to personal diaries, from commercial recordings to personal oral interviews, from movie productions to news documentaries). Lee found that the use of digital historical resources results in student-centered learning experiences: students engage in a higher level of recursiveness because they keep going back to the texts; students develop a stronger understanding of the interconnectedness of history and causation; and students feel that their learning is more authentic (Lee, J.K., 2002). The hypertext nature of the digital environment allows learners to "deal more effectively with the multiple sequences, voices, outcomes and implications of historical narrative," according to historian Edward Ayers (as cited in Lee, J.K., 2002).

The digital environment also helps learners take a more active role in constructing their own interpretations of the past. Students have the opportunity to pursue their own questions (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006). Students can build links to historical evidence to create coherent and complex narratives that reveal authentic perspectives (Lee, J.K., 2002).

The interactive Web 2.0 aspect of the digital world poses both opportunities and challenges to learners and teachers. Knobel and Wilber have identified three opportunity components of Web 2.0: participation (every individual can contribute); collaboration (both interactivity and a creative commons approach to sharing work); and distribution (global access to distributed knowledge) (Knobel & Wilber, 2009). Each opportunity can be matched with challenges to learning in the digital environment.

Democratized participation, with increased empowerment and productivity of the individual, leads to a glut of information produced by authors with no authoritative knowledge and limited perspectives. In a substantial segment of the 2.0 information world, participation has become ego-centered and opinion-based, with a culture of "It's all about me." Whereas, in pre-Web 2.0 days, librarians and book editors often provided a quality-based filter by selecting and organizing information for their "customers," now learners are challenged to hone their own evaluation skills in order to find high-quality digital information among the clutter. Continual interaction with too much information has led to a deterioration of thoughtfulness, "chipping away our capacity for concentration and contemplation" (Carr, 2008).

The enhanced opportunities for collaboration and interactivity presented by the virtual world also create an interesting yin-yang dynamic. The ability to collaborate has often been named a pivotal skill for the 21st-century workplace. The social interactivity enabled through technology allows learners to work with their peers in developing interpretations and creating and sharing presentations to invite conversations about their ideas (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999; Lee, J.K., *et al*., 2006). In the global environment, virtual collaboration has assumed an increasingly important role in productivity and innovation. Douglas Reeves, however, notes that the high tech world is not high-touch and that students need real faces and real people attached to information to help them judge credibility (Reeves, 2009). If collaborative networks are formed, however, among the "real faces and real people" attached to personal

spaces like *Facebook* pages and blogs that are opinion-based and perhaps inaccurate, then credibility becomes even more difficult to judge.

Finally, Knobel and Wilber tout access to distributed knowledge as a positive attribute of the Web 2.0 environment (2009).   Indeed, the sharing of knowledge is beneficial, but knowledge often gets buried in the rapidly proliferating glut of information on the web. Some educators (for example, Douglas Reeves) note that students become overwhelmed with the volume of information, and they cut and paste without thinking rather than spend time and intellectual energy to evaluate and select carefully (Reeves, 2009, pp. 87-89).   For many educators, the role of the school is to produce thinkers and creators of knowledge, not simply knowledge consumers. The issues (both positive and negative) underlying distributed-knowledge networks are still emerging.

The lateral and linked nature of the digital environment presents special challenges for teaching and learning, because many inquiry-based learning strategies and habits of mind are not well supported by that environment. Throughout the inquiry cycle, teachers and learners need to be aware of the differences in thinking strategies and approaches that are required for substantive inquiry in the digital environment.

The first consideration is active learning vs. passive learning. At first glance, students using computers to find information seem to be learning actively. The pressure of the web is actually more toward passive learning. Online information is so readily accessible that learners are tempted to accept what they find first and easily,

without monitoring their own thinking, seeking less readily available or alternative viewpoints, questioning, analyzing, and probing (Wolf & Barzillai, 2009). Wolf and Barzillai stress the importance of active learning where learners "build knowledge and go beyond the wisdom of the author to think their own thoughts" (p. 34).

A second digital issue that affects the whole process of inquiry is the lack of continuity and coherence in the web environment. All information on the web is presented with equal importance, and learners may encounter it in an order that has nothing to do with time (historical vs. current), place (websites from any area of the world appear on search engine results), or even synchrony with their central idea (especially if there is ambiguity in search terms). Several approaches can be taught to students to help them build continuity and coherence. First, the framework of an inquiry process provides a structure for acquiring and thinking about information and focusing on a main idea. Second, the strength of the digital environment for fostering connected meaning provides a degree of coherence, because learners are making those connections themselves. Finally, scaffolding provided by the teacher facilitates students' encountering documents in a logical order so that students can construct coherent narratives.

The third digital environment issue is the positive effects of Web 2.0 interactivity. With the collaborative and interactive tools now available, students can engage with the online texts by having a conversation with the author – asking questions captured on digital post-it notes, challenging the ideas through highlighting and margin notes, and conversing online about the meaning with others. The digital

environment becomes a new space for conversation and shared learning, which has several positive effects: students who would not speak up in a face-to-face situation contribute to the online conversation; literacy becomes an integral part of inquiry and content learning; and students' learning is deepened through the social interchange of ideas (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999).

Part I of this literature review has traced the background and context for learning in the K-12 environment. Theory and research support teaching that pushes learners to engage, inquire, build knowledge, develop critical thinking skills, and share their learning experiences with others. The school library is positioned to assume a pivotal role in school change by providing access to a full array of resources, both on-site and virtual, and by leading a school-wide instructional focus on inquiry and integration of technology.

Part II probes into one aspect of the curriculum – the teaching of history – to look at how educational pressures and opportunities are translated into the realities of teaching in a specific discipline. On the surface, the social studies curriculum seems to provide the best opportunities for librarians to collaborate with content-area teachers, with so many topics and perspectives for students to investigate and the need to use multiple sources. Only a deep exploration into the discipline of history and the teaching of historical inquiry, though, will uncover the nature of learning in history, what processes and skills must be taught for students to develop historical understanding, and how the librarian can be deeply supportive through collaboration, instruction, and resource selection and organization.

PART II: HISTORY AS DISCIPLINARY INQUIRY

Part II focuses on the context of history as disciplinary inquiry. This section extends the educational considerations presented in Part I – the educational environment, school libraries and the librarian's role, inquiry-based learning, and the digital environment. Part II analyzes the characteristics of the discipline of history and the historical inquiry skills that are essential for developing understanding of history.

THE DISCIPLINE OF HISTORY

In order to study how teachers and librarians implement an historical inquiry unit, the nature of the discipline of history must be understood. The discipline provides a context for decision making, but to different degrees depending on the educator's knowledge of the discipline. I made certain assumptions about the disciplinary knowledge levels of the history teacher, English teacher and librarian involved in this study. Since the high school history teacher is educated and licensed in the discipline, although perhaps not in the specific area of history he or she is teaching, I assumed a high level of disciplinary knowledge. Barton and Levstik (2004) provide research that shows that deep knowledge of the discipline is a prerequisite for good teaching. My second assumption was that the English-teacher member of the humanities block team has not been trained in the discipline of history, but through collaboration has absorbed some of the teaching philosophy and history knowledge of the history teacher. This assumption was tested when I observed the use of the historical novel as a part of the historical inquiry unit. Finally, I assumed that the librarian has been trained in library and information science, so that she has

knowledge of information and inquiry skills, but she has no training in the discipline of history. Part of the puzzle of collaboration is whether librarians can integrate appropriate instruction in inquiry skills with limited disciplinary knowledge.

History can be seen as a narrative of interwoven "motives, actions, results" (Wineburg, 1999, 2001) that coalesce into "trends and themes, patterns and perspectives" (Wineburg, 2001, p. 144) and move together through a gradual process of change. Historians develop an understanding of historical change by describing the processes of change (cataclysmic event vs. evolution), comparing different historical phenomena, explaining multiple causes and effects for historical events, and using sources from different perspectives (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). The narrative of history is not fixed; it must be constructed through "ongoing conversations with the past" and interpretations that respond to the historical and current context (Holt, 1990, p. 13; Wineburg, 2001, p. 82). Students must construct their own narratives (interpretations) of history by engaging with historical evidence and developing the habits of mind that help them "sympathetically yet critically imagine the world of the past" (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005).

Developing an understanding of historical content is learning **about** history more than it is learning **of** history (Yang, 2007); in other words, learning history is learning to think like an historian, developing a "disciplinary knowledge orientation" (Seixas, 2000). Saye has identified three dimensions that experts use to address issues in the social sciences: knowledge of the issue; a conceptual framework to organize information for reasoning and interpretation; and metacognitive strategies (Saye &

Brush, 2002). Teachers with more domain expertise ask more explanatory questions in the classroom; questions drive historical reasoning (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Students often have no coherent picture of the past, because they have no sense of the overriding themes, key concepts, and sequence that form the human narrative (Lee, P., 2004). Using a conceptual framework as the foundation for understanding history has several advantages. First, it allows learners to attach new ideas and information to larger ideas so that they can be judged and remembered. Second, a conceptual framework provides a structure for organizing and focusing thinking. Finally, it emphasizes the substantive concepts (or meta-concepts) that are essential for understanding history (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Concepts are discipline-specific and in history include historical phenomena, structures, persons, and periods (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). They provide a thematic framework that enables learners to see history as a connected process of change. Concepts may pose problems for students because they are abstract and have no fixed meaning (e.g., the concept of religion changes with the time period and location) (McKeown & Beck, 1990 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Students may have to infer the meaning of concepts because they are not stated explicitly; however, students have limited background knowledge and context, so they may make erroneous judgments because they base them solely on the current context (what Wineburg calls "presentism") (van Drie and van Boxtel, 2007). Finally, some concepts that are embedded in history are emotionally charged (e.g., slavery) and

students have difficulty separating their emotional reactions from historical analysis (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Teachers use conceptual frameworks to help students overcome their difficulties in understanding substantive concepts. The frameworks provide a structure for learning that enables students to organize the information they find to build new understandings. Three different frameworks have been suggested by the literature in historical inquiry: analytic stance (a frame that moves from questioning to analysis to interpretation to opinion); chronological (organizing events and issues in sequence); and dialectical reasoning (argumentation around opposing viewpoints) (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Saye & Brush, 2002; Yang, 2007).

Selection of the conceptual framework to use is dependent on the overall goal of the inquiry. If the goal is to develop an understanding of an issue in a specific time frame, then the analytic stance might be most appropriate. If the goal is to analyze the change in an issue over time, then the chronological approach will be most beneficial. If the major focus is to look at opposing viewpoints, then the dialectic reasoning approach would best facilitate that thinking. All three frameworks are focused on developing understanding of the major concepts that are the focus of the study. To be effective, all three require active construction of interpretations and conclusions about the major concepts under study, based on the framework of evidence that has been gathered and organized.

It is important for teachers and librarians to have a mutual understanding of the conceptual framework alternatives and choices, especially in a collaborative

teaching situation. If a teacher is most concerned that students build a timeline of a certain era in history, but the librarian stresses finding multiple perspectives when students are in the library, the team is working at cross purposes and students will be unsuccessful or at least confused.

HISTORICAL INQUIRY

A number of researchers have called for a change in history instruction from a fact-based approach to historical inquiry, with more authentic and meaningful learning experiences, more use of technology and digital primary sources, and more development of inquiry-based habits of mind (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Lee, P., 1998; Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006; Seixas, 2000; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; VanSledright, 2002). To be effective, the instruction must be designed to break through students' preconceptions (mental models) that there is only one true version of the past, that the only way to know something is through personal experience, and that history is one event after another rather than a slow process of change (Lee, P., 2004).

Barton and Levstik outline three important ways that inquiry contributes to developing understanding in history (2004). First, students develop new understandings as a result of inquiry. Although research studies have not compared the nature of the understandings gained through inquiry in the constructivist classroom with retention of facts acquired in a behaviorist classroom (because those are pointed toward different objectives and therefore not comparable), Barton and Levstik state the value of inquiry clearly: "When understanding is needed, inquiry appears to be one of the best ways to get there" (p. 189). Second, inquiry engages

students in historical thinking and gathering evidence according to their own starting points. Students who come to the classroom with a nontraditional or less robust background in history have an equal opportunity to connect to the learning. Third, inquiry presents the opportunity for rich discourse in the classroom, because teachers and students are challenging ideas and discussing their own interpretations, rather than simply accepting ideas in a text (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Bass and Rosenzweig (1999) found that inquiry should be structured around guiding experiences that are based on an understanding of the inquiry process with embedded teaching of inquiry skills. The process starts with identification of prior knowledge, preconceptions and mental models in order for learners to attach new understandings to existing knowledge (Kuhlthau, 2004). The process is context-specific and focused on the essential ideas and concepts of the discipline. The instruction should be designed to frame students' thinking and opportunities need to be built in for students to express their thinking explicitly.

Several aspects of historical inquiry, called "historical reasoning" by van Drie and van Boxtel (2007), present problems to many students: 1) Line of argument – students have difficulty in evaluating different sides to an argument and when they present their line of argument, they tend to ignore alternative views; 2) Sourcing and Corroboration – students do not use multiple sources, do not evaluate the trustworthiness of their sources, and do not corroborate the information they find in one source with another; 3) Contextualization – students have limited contextual knowledge of the time period and the complex aspects that surround historical issues;

4) Presentism – students tend to judge the past by values and beliefs of the present; 5) Historical change – students have limited understanding of the continuity of change, cannot sort through multiple causes for change, and tend to overemphasize the human role and underemphasize the role of institutions in historical change (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

The findings of van Drie and van Boxtel, that students have difficulty with some of the more complex skills of historical reasoning, sketch the backdrop of student needs that drive teacher and librarian pedagogical decision making. Student thinking is the basis of historical understanding. Understanding is not the accumulation of facts, but the development of interpretation by students. That process of developing interpretations involves the teaching and scaffolding of discipline-specific skills throughout the instructional activities.

The major disciplinary skills needed for historical understanding have been identified through research and are described in the following section. Several questions about the skills, however, have not been firmly decided by research; exploring answers to these questions is part of the methodology for the current research study:

- How comfortable are teachers and the librarian with their own competence in performing these disciplinary skills? In teaching these skills?
- How do teachers and the librarian decide which skills to teach and which to scaffold?

- How are the skills aligned with the inquiry process? How do teachers and the librarian decide the most appropriate time to teach a particular skill?

- How do the disciplinary skills interface with the use of primary sources? Which skills are most important to enable students to draw meaning from primary sources?

- What is the effect of the digital environment on disciplinary skills? Do some become more important and others less so?

- How do disciplinary skills impact the development of perspective taking and historical empathy?

HISTORICAL INQUIRY SKILLS

Historical inquiry requires the development of multiple literacy, inquiry, critical thinking, and information searching skills, as well as habits of mind to pursue historical thought independently. The digital environment has increased access to the human story of the past, but it has also opened a new realm of skills that learners must acquire to successfully inquire into the past, develop deep understandings, and connect those ideas to our world today.

Dispositions/Habits of Mind

For successful historical inquiry, learners must call upon dispositions and habits of mind that allow them to think like historians. They must exhibit openness to new ideas, especially when their previous mental models have been based on inaccurate or incomplete information. Learners should develop a questioning frame of mind, not just by asking historical questions that can lead to an intriguing investigation, but also

by questioning the "texts" throughout the investigation (Seixas, 2000; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). An analytic stance allows learners to find component issues and conflicts within an historical problem (Barton & Levstik, 2004). A critical stance enables learners to examine each source and piece of evidence for authority, validity, corroboration, and point of view (Drake & Brown, 2003; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Building on the critical stance, learners must employ the habit of dialectical reasoning (Saye & Brush, 2002). Alternative viewpoints must be investigated as a matter of course and persuasive final arguments should address competing points of view (Saye & Brush, 2002). Learners need to have imagination during their historical inquiry, so that the evidence can be placed in an imagined and accurate historical context (Drake & Brown, 2003). Finally, the historical inquiry process rests on the learners' ability to empathize (Drake & Brown, 2003; Newmann, 1991). History is the story of people and learners need to connect on the human level to understand historical issues, events, and actions.

Different historical inquiry skills are required at each phase of the inquiry process. The Stripling model of inquiry has been used as a framework to discuss these skills, although the process of skill development is as recursive as the inquiry process itself.

Connect

In the early phase of inquiry, two factors are especially important for historical understanding – developing an historical context and establishing a conceptual frame. Contextualization, in fact, is one of the three skill frameworks that have been

identified by a number of researchers as important for conducting inquiry with historical documents (Drake & Brown, 2003; Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2007; Yang, 2007).

Contextualization is "situating a historical phenomenon, an object, statement, text, or picture in a temporal, spatial, and social context in order to describe, explain, compare, or evaluate it"(van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Contextualizing is especially important early in the inquiry process as students are tapping into their prior knowledge and building new background knowledge. Students need to generate questions based on the issue or document in its context and investigate within the historical context in which the document or issue occurred (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006). Contextualization re-emerges as an essential skill when students are using primary sources during the Investigate phase of inquiry.

Lack of contextualization is one of the biggest issues for students when they are seeking information in the digital environment. Information on websites tends to be very specific and presented without background information to help the researcher place the ideas in context. To compensate, teachers should make sure that their students encounter overview information early in the inquiry process. Online encyclopedias are valuable sources for providing general context, specific terms, dates, and prominent people's names.

The other important factor that should be introduced early in the historical inquiry process is a foundation in a substantive concept (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). The concept, although it is abstract, provides a framework for organizing the evidence

found and the different perspectives taken. Learners have difficulty in maintaining a

focus in their inquiry, especially in the digital environment, because they get lost in the

multiple small bits of specific information that are often not connected to larger ideas

or themes. The introduction of central themes and big ideas during the Connect Phase

helps learners maintain focus as they encounter an overabundance of information.

Sam Wineburg says that ". . .history is held together by overarching ideas and themes,

which lend coherence and provide a way of understanding the rich texture of human

experience" (Wineburg, 2001, p. 160). The overarching concept is especially important

if students are engaged in inquiry and the use of primary sources because the theme

provides an organizing touchstone for information searching and analysis of multiple

sources with different perspectives.

The work on developing a conceptual frame includes identifying students'

preconceptions, beliefs, and prior knowledge. During this early phase of inquiry,

teachers should help students tap into their mental models, because those models,

accurate or inaccurate, shape the way that they think about any evidence. If students

do not realize that they have a particular mental model, then they never investigate it,

challenge it, or change it. Students form their mental models from a lifetime of

experiences (not necessarily educational experiences) and their models influence the

thinking at all stages of inquiry (Levisohn, 2006), so an accurate and robust mental

model is essential.

When students are able to organize their information and connect it to a larger

idea or conceptual frame, they develop deeper and more long-lasting understandings

(van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). The challenge for learners is that abstract historical concepts are difficult to develop and distinguish from current views on that concept (for example, the concept of equal rights has very different meanings in the 1950's and the 1990's).

Teacher pedagogy impacts the development of both contextualization and conceptual frameworks. Teacher-guided class discussions exhibit a greater historical contextualization, explanatory questioning, and use of abstract ideas than discussions held by student pairs (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Wonder

Historical question posing is a skill needed by both students and teachers (Lee, J.K., *et al*., 2006; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Van Drie and van Boxtel (2007) have identified four types of questions that are effective for historical inquiry: descriptive, causal, comparison, and evaluative. They found that evaluative questions provoked more historical reasoning than did explanatory questions.

Asking historical questions that challenge assumptions and authority and lead to substantive inquiry is difficult; teachers are required to have a knowledge of historical moments, issues, and people that have embedded conflicts or ambiguities that could lead to interpretation and not just fact finding. The best questions are open-ended with no one right answer (van Drie and van Boxtel, 2007) so that they lead learners to explore the complexity of the topic – multiple perspectives, change over time, hypotheses and predictions. Well-written historical questions have the potential

to propel students into investigations that push past students' assumptions and probe deeply into the unknown to build historical context (van Drie and van Boxte, 2007).

Skilled teachers must help students develop historical questions (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006). Researchers have suggested that students be confronted with conflicting sources of information to provoke questioning (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005). Teachers often use primary sources to introduce these conflicts. Good questions developed by students at the initial stages of inquiry drive the whole process of developing a line of reasoning. Students must also learn to ask all four types of questions throughout their inquiry. Wineburg (1998) discovered that understanding develops as a result of a dialectic between a learner's questions and the sources he encounters.

Classroom and library observation during this study noted the type and substance of the questions asked by both teachers and students and the strategies employed by the teachers to help students generate their own questions.

Investigate

When students are investigating and gathering evidence during historical inquiry, the research literature describes the importance of both the content of the evidence and the thinking skills that students need to make meaning from that evidence. The Investigate Phase often begins with mental activity that Levisohn has called "cultivating puzzlement," when learners figure out what they do not know and develop a plan to guide their inquiry (Levisohn, 2006). Ideally, learners start their planned investigations by constructing search strategies, including the key search terms, their combinations through Boolean or semi-Boolean operators, and an idea of

the catalog, database, search engines or websites to be searched. In practice, however, the ideal, library-based search strategies are not widely used. Learners tend to go to Google, enter natural language search terms or whole sentences into the search box, and then compensate for the millions of hits by looking at the first few references. Without specific intervention by teachers, learners do not refine their search terms and they almost never discover the hidden web of valuable sources not in Google, nor the purchased databases of selected, high-quality information.

The interactive nature of social tools on the web has produced a related phenomenon of searching called participatory organization – researchers try to overcome the disorganization of the web by tagging and organizing text and websites for their own personal and academic use. They are able to capitalize and build on the tags created by others and find sites that others have deemed helpful. This natural language searching and tagging does impose a superficial order on digital information; unfortunately, that order does not necessarily interface well with the structured environments created by authoritative sources (like the Library of Congress, part of the hidden web).

Researchers uniformly acknowledge the necessity for students to use analysis and evaluation skills during investigation, so that they have the evidence they need to form their own interpretations (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Drake & Brown, 2003; Lee, J.K., 2002; Saye & Brush, 2002; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Some researchers have called this frame of mind a critical stance toward historical information.

Historians have identified three major thinking skills that are necessary for gathering evidence from historical documents: contextualization (placing historical information within the time and place), sourcing (evaluating the source of the information), and corroboration (checking one source against another) (Drake & Brown, 2003; Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; Van Drie & Van Boxtel, 2007; Yang, 2007). Contextualization, already noted as important during the earliest phase of research, is also essential during the investigation phase of inquiry. Wineburg has written extensively about the importance of contextualization, that to understand history one must understand the conflicting and connecting patterns of the time, not superimpose today's patterns upon the historical setting (Wineburg, 1999, 2001). Proponents of active learning stress that students should **create** the historical context for a document, not **place** documents in their proper context (Wineburg, 1998 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007), because the aim is construction of meaning not a matching game. Students have difficulty with historical context because they have trouble avoiding "presentism," they cannot grasp the mindset of people in the past, and they have trouble empathisizing with those whose lives are quite different from their own (Husbands, 1996 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; Lee, P., *et al.*, 1997 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; Wineburg, 2001).

Sourcing, the second process framework for historical inquiry cited by many researchers, is evaluating the authority and credibility of the source by establishing who wrote it, for what purpose, and with what underlying motives (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; van Drie & van Boxte, 2007; Yang, 2007). The reputation of the

publisher may also be used in the analysis of credibility. For historical documents,

sourcing presents a variety of challenges. Information may not be available about the

"authors" of personal documents and artifacts. Official documents may have been

produced for reasons that are no longer obvious (e.g., detailed maps of neighborhoods

in New York City showing residences and businesses by name were produced by

insurance companies in the 1800's), and they may, therefore, have a hidden bias.

Historians have noted that it is very difficult to determine the underlying motives that

caused people to save one historical document and not another.

Sourcing, or determining the authority of sources, has already been established

as an essential component of historical inquiry. The criteria for evaluating digital

sources include content, clarity, and communication (from Andrew McMichael of the

American Historical Association as cited in Lee, J.K., 2002) and reliability, credibility,

perspective, and purpose (from the University of Purdue Comprehensive Online

Resource Education – CORE – as cited in Lee, J.K., 2002). The difficulties of sourcing in

the digital environment emerge in the self-publishing world of the Internet. The

identity and credentials of the creators of web-based information are difficult if not

impossible to determine on many sites. Because of the "graphic seduction" of image-

intense websites, a blog may appear as authoritative as a report from the Center for

Disease Control.

The third in the trilogy of essential thinking frames for historical inquiry is

corroboration, which means evaluating and validating the information within a source

by comparing it to information in other sources, prior experience or prior knowledge

(Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; Yang, 2007). Students have to learn to challenge and question the information within a source. Wineburg found in his research that students tended to accept the authority of a text, while for historians, the locus of authority was in the questions they asked about the text (Wineburg, 1999, 2001). A number of researchers have emphasized the importance of examining multiple perspectives of the same issue in order to gain a complex but authentic picture of the context and time (Davis *et al*., 2001; Toner, 1993). Corroboration of evidence is an essential step before interpretation and drawing conclusions (Lee, J.K., *et al*., 2006), but the underlying thinking processes are complex. To corroborate, learners must be able to differentiate between fact and opinion, they must recognize the effect of point of view on the information, and they must have a strategy for resolving conflicts in evidence (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999). The level of corroboration necessary is relative to the learners' purpose in conducting the inquiry.

Corroboration is especially difficult and important with historical information available through the Internet. So much of history is interpretation; students may experience great frustration in trying to authenticate the "true" voices when they encounter multiple perspectives on the same event or issue. Digital primary sources add another layer of complexity, because students must consider the dates, creators, purposes, and biases of individual sources with evidence that can only be corroborated by interpretations written by others at various points in time. Because the interpretation of historical evidence is dependent on the context and that context changes over time, students must decide what evidence to accept as corroboration.

Once students have corroborated the evidence, two literacy strategies help them make sense of information they find on the web - connected meaning and deep reading. The web environment favors lateral over linear thinking. The advantage is that learners may develop a capacity for connected meaning between texts, where they link the ideas in one website to another. Connected meaning also enables them to look at multiple perspectives and find commonalities and differences among them (Yang, 2007). The disadvantage of the lateral environment of the web is that there may be fewer linear connections made, when the learner probes one topic or website deeply and thoughtfully.

Students who know how to connect the ideas that they find to their big idea or to information they have discovered in another site or source are in a position to take advantage of the lateral nature of the web. For most students, however, the flow of connected learning is interrupted by the very nature of a website, with small amounts of information posted on various pages within the site. Learners have to determine the order and comprehensiveness of the investigation of each site. With limited knowledge and time, learners may haphazardly click on different pages or links and make few or fallacious connections among the ideas presented. Teachers can frame the investigation for students to build in connected meaning that has substance by asking them to compare and contrast information, to analyze and compare different perspectives, and to reflect on their own investigation during the process.

Deep reading, the reading of text using critical thinking skills to explore the deeper meaning, is "endangered by the digital culture's pervasive emphases on

immediacy, information loading, and a media-driven cognitive set that embraces

speed and can discourage deliberation in both our reading and our thinking" (Wolf and

Barzillai, 2009, p. 33). Wolf and Barzillai further caution that with a digital culture, "we

may be spawning a culture so inured to sound bites and thought bites that it fosters

neither critical analysis nor contemplative processes in its members" (p. 36). With

such strong pressure from the digital environment to read superficially, students must

be taught strategies for critical literacy; they need to learn to question the text, to read

for analysis not paraphrasing, to evaluate rather than summarize the text, and to read

for subtext, the implicit meaning that comes from the author's intentions and world

view (Haas & Flower, 1988, in Wineburg, 2001, p. 78; Wineburg, 2001, p. 74; Levisohn,

2006; Yang, 2007).

Teaching students to read deeply helps them build evidence for their own

interpretations. Deep reading leads to interpretations that are shaped by the text,

that balance preconceptions with openness to new ideas, that help students learn

from the past rather than label it, and that respond to changes over time (Levisohn,

2006).

Inference, interpretation, and forming opinions are skills that blend evaluative

and creative thinking. Students must be able to assess the information they find to

determine the relevance to their hypothesis (Beyer, 1988), build reasoned judgments

and form their own conclusions based on facts, sometimes conflicting evidence (Bass

& Rosenzweig, 1999) and their own inferences (Paul & Ennis as cited in Beyer, 1988;

Yang, 2007). Newmann calls inference one of the five higher-order thinking

competencies in social studies (1991). Tally calls inferencing a "reflexive habit of mind" (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005).

Media literacy, the ability to "read" and interpret information presented in visual and oral formats as well as in print text, must be nurtured and taught explicitly. Learners have to be aware of several dangers: using visuals for illustration purposes only; the distraction of visuals leading to less likelihood of information recall (Wolf and Barzillai, 2009 citing Eastin *et al.*, 2006); the "graphic seduction" of online visual material resulting in superficial interpretation and jumping from one idea to the next with no focus (Weigel & Gardner, 2009), what Seymour Papert called a "grasshopper mind" (Papert, 1994); and the influence of graphics on critical reasoning (Weigel & Gardner, 2009, p. 38).

Tally has suggested strategies for building media literacy: look for contradictory material, determine the author's purpose, and imagine what understandings viewers might have had at the time of creation (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005). The format of the material has an impact on how well students identify main ideas and supporting evidence, how engaged students are in the inquiry process and topic/question, and how much their reasoning was shaped by the format itself (van Drie *et al.*, 2005 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Ethical participation is difficult for students in today's digital world. Both the ease with which information can be cut and pasted and the difficulty of tracking down the original author of web information result in challenges to ethical participation in the digital environment, such as plagiarism. Learners are increasingly confused by the

blurry lines between proprietary information and creative commons information. Every school should develop a digital citizenship wiki with curriculum lessons and examples of ethical participation in the digital environment.

The historical reasoning skills that students need to employ while they are investigating their inquiry questions are complex and layered. The decisions that teachers and librarians make about which skills to teach and which to scaffold are dependent on many factors: the lesson and unit goals, the level of teacher and student experience with historical thinking, the expectation for active learning, the availability and use of resources, the desired balance between teaching and scaffolding, the expected outcomes, and even day-too-day classroom management issues like student absences and behavior.

Teachers and librarians may feel underprepared to teach historical reasoning skills of investigation; in fact, research shows that typically teachers have no experience with inquiry-based skills such as contextualization, authorship, and perspective (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Investigation is the phase where collaborative teaching between a classroom teacher and the library can be the deepest because investigation often occurs in the library with library resources, and the skills required for finding, evaluating, and using information are perhaps the strongest focus of the library instructional program. Just as the classroom teacher may be tempted by the difficulty of teaching historical reasoning skills to scaffold heavily or just deliver the content, so the librarian may feel

under pressure to teach the quick-win skills of searching and navigation and forego the complex skills of sourcing, corroboration, interpretation and media literacy.

A case-study approach to research provided an in-depth look at the decisions made by classroom teachers and the librarian during the critical phase of inquiry in which students are seeking answers to their questions, probing and interpreting sources, and evaluating multiple perspectives.

Construct

Once students have gathered their historical evidence, they need to construct their own understanding and interpretation based on that evidence (Stephens & Thumma, 2005; Wineburg, 2001). Researchers have identified this phase of inquiry as very difficult for students, because most have little experience with taking a perspective, analyzing evidence from that perspective, and forming an interpretation (Davis *et al.*, 2001) or with developing a line of argument (Karras, 1999; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

In the hypertext environment, students need to be able to synthesize large amounts of specific bits of information and ideas and weave them into a meaningful whole (Levisohn, 2006). Their synthesis must lead to the formation of valid opinions and constructed understanding of key concepts (Richardson, W., 2009). The construction of new ideas is difficult for most students. Teachers can engage with students in an ongoing dialogue, in order to help form and monitor students' progress in avoiding "presentism" by developing their own interpretations based on the historical context rather than present day values (Wineburg, 2001), testing their

interpretations against the evidence (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999), and looking for patterns and clusters of ideas.

Construction of ideas and new understandings in a digital environment requires students to look for patterns and relationships among ideas as they build organizational frameworks and form their own opinions. Online organizational tools can facilitate the thinking process and enable students to collaborate. Teachers must help students avoid the danger of mindlessly populating graphic organizer templates and instead push themselves to discover new connections among ideas. Jacques Barzun stated this caution about using a timeline framework: "Use chronology to get things in order, but then look at motives and actions of many individuals" (Wineburg, 2001, p. 153). Students who decide on a cause and effect organization need to be pushed to look for multiple causes and effects and alternative interpretations.

Argumentation is a skill identified by a number of researchers as important to historical inquiry (Paul & Ennis as cited in Beyer, 1988; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Students must be able to form an opinion and defend it with evidence. They must be able to build reasonable arguments that fortify their own interpretations and opinions with documented evidence (Perfetti *et al*., 1995 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).   They must be able to reconstruct the past by critically using evidence (Paul & Ennis as cited in Beyer, 1988). Finally, students must legitimately contend with alternate viewpoints by addressing counter arguments, pro and con perspectives, and conflicting evidence (Lee, P., & Ashby, 2000 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; van Drie *et al*., 2006 as cited in van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Karras (1999) has criticized textbook writers and teachers for allowing narrative to assume equal priority with argument. If students have been directed by their teachers to develop an argument, the students' greatest failing is that they do not engage in dialectical reasoning, with a presentation of their argument and counter arguments and then a strong case that the preponderance of evidence supports their argument (Karras, 1999; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Special attention will be paid to the historical reasoning taught and scaffolded at the Construct phase because forming opinions and developing argumentation are critical to historical understanding (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). Students have confronted multiple perspectives in their investigation and they have built an historical context to interpret them. That is only halfway to understanding. To develop deep understanding and historical empathy, students must learn to take a perspective and defend it with credible evidence in a line of argument. A deeper analysis of historical empathy will be offered in Part III.

Express

During the phase when students are creating and sharing expressions of their learning, students most often present their interpretations through writing. The research literature supports the positive effect of the writing process on a student's ability to think through the evidence and develop an argument (Toner, 1993). Some researchers have investigated the effect of student production of digital and visual media and have found a high degree of student engagement and creativity (Adams & Pasch, 1987). The research of Lee suggests that students who use digital sources

during inquiry and engage in constructivist learning experiences are more likely to engage in connected meaning, where ideas from one text or perspective are connected to other ideas or perspectives (Lee, J.K., 2002).

The opportunities for communication through multiple media are rapidly expanding, with many formats that are easily manipulated and produced by students. New social sharing tools like Voice Thread provide templates, tools, and storage space on an external server for students to produce video, audio, graphics, websites, and presentations. The authenticity of these modes of communication, with application to students' own lives and current world issues, engages and motivates students. The allure of alternative digital forms (e.g., podcasts, wikis), however, may pressure students to present a collage of ideas through a series of links, rather than creating a reasoned, in-depth, coherent whole (Ohler, 2009).

Students can reach a high level of thinking during the Express Phase as they use digital tools to create their own messages and transform learning from presenting "reports" to creating original and valid stories of history (Ohler, 2009, p. 12). . Research has shown that it is beneficial for students to share their individual interpretations with a group, followed by the opportunity for group discussion and comparison of perspectives (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999; Lee, J.K., Doolittle *et al.*, 2006; Saye & Brush, 2002; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; Yang, 2007). The expected student outcomes – their expressions of understanding – will be an important assessment of students' historical understanding and of the impact of using primary sources to provoke historical empathy. Some products are indicative of empathy (e.g., a line of

argument that builds a context for an historical decision and provides evidence that indicates understanding of the decision and the alternatives available). Other products, perhaps those preferred by teachers because they are engaging and enjoyable for students, may indicate the accumulation of facts but be historically invalid and nonempathetic because the students have substituted imagination for missing facts or have judged historical situations and people using a current set of values and beliefs (e.g., an imaginary diary of a Medieval knight who resembles Lancelot).

Reflect

The final phase of inquiry, when students reflect on both the process and product of their learning, has been shown to be extremely important for students' metacognitive skill development. Richard Paul has named criteria for evaluating thinking process skills: clarity, accuracy, precision, relevance, sufficiency, logic, depth and breadth (Yang, 2007). Students must also be able to reflect on the content of their learning – their clarification of historical concepts (Yang, 2007) and construction of historical knowledge.

Reflection is also an essential component throughout the process of inquiry. Students learn to be self-regulated as they reflect at points throughout the inquiry process and think about the content learning and their own thinking (metacognition) (Saye & Brush,2002; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; Yang, 2007). Metacognition is the backbone of the development of historical reasoning.

Teachers are challenged to build a culture that supports inquiry by maintaining a contemplative environment (Wolf & Barzillai, 2009, p. 33). In the instant messaging and media bombardment world, the difficulties in building an environment that supports contemplation and quiet reflection are compounded by the priorities that students place on immediate results and multi-tasking.

Although students were not interviewed during this research study because the focus was on the role of classroom teachers and the librarian, students' expressed reflections were captured through observation of class discussions, conversations within student work groups, and reflective products assigned by the teachers and librarian. Especially critical for this research was student reflective responses to primary sources and to the different perspectives they represent.

Part II has explored the discipline of history and the nature of historical inquiry. The goal of history education is not the accumulation of historical facts, but the formation of interpretations based on authentic historical evidence. The process of interpretation rests on an inquiry-learning cycle and embedded skills. Many historians and history educators believe that deep historical understanding goes beyond a detached view of historical events, people, and actions to a realization that history is a human story that can only be understood in terms of its context. The path to that deeper understanding is the development of historical empathy. Part III defines historical empathy and its importance, offers strategies for fostering empathy, and recommends criteria for recognizing when students have developed empathy.

PART III: HISTORICAL EMPATHY / PERSPECTIVE TAKING

The major goal of history education is to enhance students' historical understanding by designing learning experiences that engage them in confronting issues, developing knowledge of the context, asking questions, critically examining sources of information, interpreting the information they gather, and drawing conclusions that are supported by the evidence. History is a discipline of interpretation based on analyzing the perspectives of the humans who participated in that history. Students who reach beyond analysis of historical perspectives to take and defend a perspective based on the contextual evidence are engaged in what historians call "perspective taking," or "historical empathy." Historical empathy is not the goal of history instruction; it is a thinking process that enables students to reach the goal of historical understanding.

Historical perspectives vary according to the needs, thoughts, emotions, and reactions of each historical agent (participant). Empathy is making sense of past actions based on the context of the time, the perspectives of the people involved, and how those perspectives affected their actions (Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001). Empathy is understanding the "connections between intentions [why], circumstances [context], and actions [consequences] (Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001, p. 24).

Many historians acknowledge the importance of understanding these different perspectives empathetically in order to form a defensible interpretation: "In the construction of historical meaning, empathy for participants in historical events is central" (Boland, 1997; van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007; Yeager & Foster, 2001, p. 13).

Historical empathy, however, is difficult to achieve. Individuals exist in a specific time

and space with values and attitudes that have been formed in that context. Individuals

cannot understand humans in the past and the reasons they acted as they did by

interpreting their actions from the lens of their current values and beliefs

(VanSledright, 2001).

Competing definitions of historical empathy exist within the history field. Most

history researchers agree that historical empathy is reasoning from evidence and using

inference "to bridge the gap between what is known and what may be inferred from

history" (Ashby & Lee, P., 1987; Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001; Portal, 1987a; Yeager & Foster,

2001, p. 14). Some historians and history researchers believe, however, that historical

empathy extends beyond reasoning and inference to include the affective domain

(Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001; Barton & Levstik, 2004). Foster, one of the leading advocates

for empathy, admits that "No universal definition [of historical empathy] emerges"

from the research literature (Foster, 2001, p. 167).

Foster strongly favors a cognitive definition of empathy, a perspective shared

by his colleague, Elizabeth Yeager. They believe that empathy is a cognitive, not an

affective, stance involving an understanding of an attitude, action, or decision in the

historical context. To Yeager and Foster (2001), historical empathy is recognition of

the human reasoning behind historical events or issues and understanding the "why"

of history. For the purposes of this research study, this type of historical empathy is

labeled "cognitive empathy."

Foster (2001, p. 169-175) lists six characteristics of historical (cognitive) empathy:

- Does not involve imagination, identification, or sympathy;

- Involves understanding people's actions in the past;

- Involves an in-depth understanding of the historical context;

- Requires multiple forms of evidence with diverse perspectives and points of view represented;

- Requires students to examine their own perspectives (their "positionality"); and

- Encourages the formation of conclusions that are well-grounded on the evidence, but tentative because they are based on interpretation.

Two constructs in these characteristics deserve further explanation. Positionality is a term coined by VanSledright (2001) to describe the phenomenon that he thinks dominates the act of historical interpretation – that everyone, including historians, approaches history through a personal lens. All interpretation is made through that lens, no matter how carefully the individual attempts to shed the personal perspective and look only at the historical evidence. Creators of primary sources (and secondary sources as well) impose their own positionality on their creation, but the positionality must usually be inferred. Van Sledright would agree with Foster and Yeager that a component of empathy is for the student (or reader) to identify his own positionality. Van Sledright says that empathy results when the reader's positionality overlaps that of the creator.

The construct of imagination in historical empathy must also be defined. Imagination is integral to empathy, but it is not unchecked creativity; it must be based on careful examination of the evidence. Davis (2001, p. 4) actually defines empathy as "imagination restrained by evidence." Portal (1987a) finds that empathy involves a balance of "imaginative speculation" and "methodological investigation" in historical inquiry. Rogers (1990) echoes the idea in his definition of historical imagination as the re-creation of the past using an understanding of context, outcomes, and evidence.

Downey takes an even stronger stand than Foster and Yeager against the affective implications of a construct like empathy being applied to the study of history. He rejects the term empathy in favor of perspective taking. To Downey, historical perspective taking is constructing perspectives of the past by analyzing facts and evidence, not by trying to identify or sympathize with feelings from people in the past (Downey, 1995).

To achieve cognitive historical empathy, students must suspend their own attitudes and beliefs, place themselves in the other's shoes (remembering the restraints on imagination), understand the past on its own terms, and refrain from judging based on current criteria (Lee, P.J., 1984; Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001; Yeager *et al.*, 1998).

Several historians and researchers align themselves with the inclusion of feelings in the definition of historical empathy (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lee, P., & Ashby, 2001; Lowenthal, 2000; VanSledright, 2001). Lee and Ashby (2001) include the affective domain in their construct of historical empathy, but they carefully

differentiate empathy, understanding the feelings of people from history, from sympathy, sharing feelings of people from the past. Empathy rests on diversity; sympathy rests on affinity (Lowenthal, 2000). Lee and Ashby (2001, p. 25) feel that students can build historical understanding by knowing what people in the past believed, what they did, and that they felt the appropriate feelings, not by feeling the same emotions themselves. The emotional aspects of historical empathy are named "emotive empathy" for the purposes of this research (a term developed by Bryant and Clark in their 2006 article).

Sam Wineburg says that he cannot imagine an historian trying to learn history by ignoring emotion – indeed, the areas of history they pursue are often selected based on an emotional attachment to the subject: "It is hard to imagine serious historical work in which emotion plays no role – if not in the historians' passion for the subject. . ., then at least in historians' ability to empathize with the people they seek to understand" (2001, p. 237).

The researchers Barton and Levstik push the concept of empathy, or "perspective recognition," beyond understanding the feelings of people in history to "empathy as caring." They share the reasons why caring is so important to the study of history, for without care "Students will be asked to learn stories they don't care about, to inquire into events without caring that they occurred, to examine the perspectives of people without caring for them – and to study history without caring to use it in the present" (2004, p. 240-241). They explain the dimensions of caring that are important to help students develop historical understanding (caring about, caring

that, caring for) and finally, at the highest level, caring to -- to bring the lessons of history to current controversial issues and to take action (2004).

I believe that, in the history classroom, empathy is largely cognitive, but that emotive empathy, as defined above, is also important. In order for students to move from knowledge to understanding, they must deepen their knowledge and build cognitive and emotive empathy. Cognitive and emotive empathy are not locked together; it is possible to have cognitive empathy for historical agencies for whom emotive empathy is not possible (Portal, 1987a), although it is not possible to have emotive empathy without the contextualization and interpretation of evidence from cognitive empathy (Bryant & Clark, 2006). Bryant and Clark (2006) find that students more easily try to use emotive empathy, because they think they know what people felt in the past. For most students, cognitive empathy is counterintuitive, which makes it all the more important to be included in history instruction.

Bryant and Clark developed a chart to lay out the differences between cognitive empathy (which they call historical empathy) and emotive empathy. Unfortunately, their research led them to develop a rather negative view of emotive empathy as thoughtless and over-emotional. I have reproduced their chart below (Bryant & Clark, 2006, p. 1044), with a third column added to detail the characteristics of emotive empathy that I am using for this research (see Table 2).

Bryant and Clark Historical Empathy	Bryant and Clark Emotive Empathy	Stripling Emotive Empathy
Primarily cognitive domain	Primarily affective domain	Combination of cognitive and affective domains
Uses multiple sources of evidence	Relies on limited sources of evidence	Uses multiple sources of evidence portraying

Bryant and Clark Historical Empathy	Bryant and Clark Emotive Empathy	Stripling Emotive Empathy
		multiple perspectives
Probes for context (motives of historical agents and their access to knowledge)	Accepts evidence at face value	Relies heavily on context for each of the perspectives represented
Includes those with whom we cannot identify, as well as those with whom we can	Identifies with historical agents Seeks to share their feelings, perspectives, values	Seeks to understand the feelings of historical agents within the context of their situation, not to identify with the agents or share their feelings.
Recognizes that the passage of time limits the ability to understand historical agents' actions because our access to information about the influences on those actions diminishes over time	Seeks to understand the past through a contemporary lens	Makes inferences about actions and feelings of agents in the past based on available historical evidence and careful interpretation

Table 2: The Differences between Historical and Emotive Empathy

The inclusion of empathy is important to the study of history. It can be a way

of thinking that fosters the use of historical imagination and therefore brings the study

of history alive (Portal, 1987a). Portal (1987a, p. 98) believes that integration of

empathy into the study of every historical topic will bring out the human side of

history, so that students understand that history is "a subject concerned primarily with

the intentions and actions of human beings and the ways in which these purposes

interact and influence each other." Yeager and Foster claim that empathy engages

students in historical inquiry and motivates them to think critically about the past

(Yeager & Foster, 2001).

Empathy has interesting effects on interpretation and application to the

present world. On the one hand, because it is based in historical context, empathy

helps combat "presentism," because the learner applies empathy to the historical

situation and interprets based on historical values. On the other hand, researchers

have recognized that developing empathy for historical persons makes children more

likely to be able to see how actions affect other people and, therefore, how they can

cope more successfully in their own lives (Ashby & Lee, P., 1987). Students who

develop a genuine understanding of the past also identify their own perspectives (their

positionality) and are able to connect personally to the meanings they draw from

history (VanSledright, 2001).

This research study was designed to look at how classroom teachers and the

librarian use primary sources and historical novels during historical inquiry. An

expected impact of using primary sources was the development of both cognitive and

emotive empathy. Use of an historical novel was expected to generate emotive, but

not cognitive empathy. It was important to identify the characteristics of empathy, so

that student responses could be analyzed.

Three competing frameworks are offered by researchers on the characteristics

of historical empathy. Two are arranged in taxonomic order (Shemilt's original

taxonomy as modified by Ashby and Lee, P., 1987, and Downey, 1995). The third

framework is a set of characteristics that occur in any order (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

The three frameworks are described in Table 3 and discussed below.

Ashby and Lee, 1987	Downey, 1995	Barton and Levstik, 2004
Past as incomprehensible *People in the past were mentally defective*	Past different from present *Students demonstrate their understanding that the past is different from the present and*	Sense of otherness *A recognition that others think and feel differently from ourselves*

Ashby and Lee, 1987	Downey, 1995	Barton and Levstik, 2004
	that the outcomes of the past are directly connected to that historical situation	**Shared normalcy** *An acceptance of the idea that the differences that others display do not mean that others are ignorant or old-fashioned, but that their actions made sense in their context*
Generalized stereotypes *People in the past are judged by stereotypes about their values, goals, and intentions*	Students can discriminate between past perspectives *Students demonstrate that they can discriminate between past perspectives and that they can shift from one perspective to another in an objective way*	**Historical contextualization** *Explanations of past actions in terms of the values, attitudes and beliefs of the time; the evidence had to be convincing to the people of the time, but not necessarily to people of today*
Everyday empathy *People in the past are judged by the situations in which they found themselves, but the situations are perceived in modern terms, as we would look at them today*	Students take a perspective and explain it *Students explain the perspectives that they take and the consequences of those perspectives on the participants*	**Multiplicity of historical perspectives** *An understanding that multiple perspectives, both between groups and within groups, exist at any point in time, and that conflicts may arise between those perspectives*
Restricted historical empathy *Actions of people in the past are judged by the historical context, but the context is specific to that situation and not related to other beliefs and values of the time*	Students' perspectives based on historical evidence *Students' perspectives are based on historical evidence and are both accurate and factual*	
Contextual historical empathy *Students judge actions of people in the past through a lens of understanding a wide context of beliefs and attitudes*		**Context connection to present – our own perspectives come from the past** *A call to social action with a recognition that our own perspectives depend on what has come to us from history*

Table 3: Frameworks of Historical Empathy Characteristics

All of the researchers have used their frameworks to assess student

development of historical empathy. The taxonomy of Ashby and Lee has gotten

traction and acceptance in the literature, partly because of the extensive research and

writing by Ashby and Lee to document the validity of the taxonomy in classrooms.

Downey's taxonomy is clearly designed for cognitive perspective taking, not for

emotive empathy. It is less judgmental and more academic in its portrayal (e.g., no

student comments about the ignorance of those in the past, no inclusion of beliefs and values, focus limited to historical perspectives). In 2004, Barton and Levstik refuted the leveled approach of Ashby and Lee by saying that perspective recognition is not a single cognitive process that can be put in taxonomic order. Instead it is a process that involves various competencies that are developed in no particular order.

For a number of reasons, this research study used the Barton and Levstik characteristics to assess the development of historical empathy in student conversation and work products. First, this study was designed around a case study. I observed classroom teachers and the librarian during an historical inquiry unit where the educators knew that I was looking at the use of primary sources, but they did not know that I was investigating the possible impact of primary sources on the development of empathy. I, as the researcher, was an observer only, not a participant observer. I did not influence the lesson or unit design in any way. I could not use a taxonomic approach to the development of historical empathy when teachers were not designing their instruction to teach empathy in a sequential development process.

I did expect to observe and hear many instances of empathetic thinking from the students in response to the use of sources, teacher and librarian instruction, class conversation, and assignments. I was able to use the Barton and Levstik characteristics to analyze and interpret student responses even though the students were not following a process of development in their empathetic thinking. In addition, I was able to use the same characteristics to assess students' response to their viewing of the video adaptation of the historical novel, "Roots." It is important to use

characteristics that are designed for history, so that empathy that results from the fiction reading is historical emotive empathy, not psychological empathy (with no attention to historical context and shared feelings rather than an understanding of the feeling of an "other").

Several challenges in the use or implementation of historical empathy have been identified in the literature. First, students are unable to empathize unless they have enough knowledge of the context to understand the perspectives they encounter (Davis, 2001). The more knowledge that students have, the better their capacity for empathy. Barton, Levstik, and Lowenthal write that empathy does not go far enough to provoke a deep understanding of history because it deals only with the causes of historical actions, but not the consequences (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lowenthal, 2000).

Lowenthal (2000) states that hindsight, based on an understanding of the consequences, is essential for in-depth interpretations of historical events, but he offers a caution that hindsight tends to give coherence to the past that was not actually experienced by those living at the time. Unless handled deftly by the teacher, hindsight could lead students to believe that the path of history could have happened in only that way. Yeager and Foster (2001) claim that the teaching of hindsight enriches students' insights into the "why" of history. VanSledright (2001) says that investigating hindsight is a cognitive process that takes the mystery out of empathy. Despite the generally positive effects on the development of empathy and historical

understanding, consequences are rarely incorporated by history teachers who organize their curriculum chronologically, by far the most common organization.

The biggest challenge to teaching historical empathy has been posited by VanSledright, who contends that our inherent positionality (bringing our own world views to the thinking we do about the past) and the fact that we do not have access to all the evidence we need to form valid interpretations make historical empathy impossible to achieve (VanSledright, 2001). VanSledright would shift the discussion from historical empathy to the cognitive processes involved in historical contextualization. He does not totally discount the value of empathy, but believes that it should not be the center of focus: "If empathy happens to follow from engaging the mind in contextualizing the past, then all the better" (2001, p. 65).

Despite the challenges to teaching historical empathy, the development of empathy is clearly regarded by history researchers and teachers as a contributing factor to historical understanding. The teaching of historical empathy, both cognitive and emotive, should be incorporated into every history classroom and library. Not only do students develop deeper historical understandings, but they start to see the value of history for helping them examine their own place in the world (Gutierrez, 2000).

Teachers and librarians who accept the responsibility for fostering the development of historical empathy are confronted by the challenge of bringing history to life in the non-real environment of school. Their selection of resources and the strategies they use to organize and teach with those resources are both a reflection of

their commitment to teach for empathetic historical understanding and a predictor of their success. The following section, Part IV, explores the research literature on teaching history through secondary, primary, and historical-fiction resources. It concludes with suggested connections between resources and the development of historical empathy. An investigation into those connections in the day-to-day planning and instruction of history teachers, English teachers, and librarians is the focus of my case study and is described fully in Chapter 3: Methods.

PART IV: USE OF RESOURCES FOR HISTORICAL INQUIRY AND DEVELOPMENT OF EMPATHY

Teachers use resources to fulfill their instructional goals. If their purpose in teaching history is for students to learn a body of knowledge about history, then they may choose resources solely to deliver content. Other teachers, including the ones involved in this research study, have the goal of generating disciplinary thinking in their students through historical inquiry. They choose resources to provoke thinking about content, introduce multiple perspectives, and support student interpretation.

The following section analyzes and evaluates the use of three types of sources in the pedagogy of historical inquiry – secondary (including textbooks), primary, and historical fiction – as well as the classroom teachers' and librarian's roles in mediating the use of the resources. The connections of all three types of sources to historical reasoning and the development of cognitive and emotive empathy are explored.

USE OF SECONDARY AND PRIMARY SOURCES

History education, like ethnography, has a dual purpose – to make the strange familiar and to make the familiar strange. Students need to become familiar with and understand the "strangeness" of the past through broad narrative frameworks that connect events, people, actions, and social characteristics in coherent patterns of development and, therefore, convey a sense of the wholeness of human history. Students of history also need to realize that humans in the past lived in a particular context and their values and beliefs, as well as their actions, were products of interacting with that context. Students must not impose their "familiar" values and beliefs on the past, but must "make the familiar strange" by acknowledging the different values and beliefs of humans in the past.

Teachers use primary and secondary resources to accomplish both goals. The challenge for teachers is to determine the type of resource most appropriate for each phase of the learning experiences they design. What is clear is that resources have a profound effect on the type and quality of learning that occurs, as confirmed by Riley (2001) in research on the Holocaust and historical empathy: ". . . the selection of instructional materials [historical evidence] determines to a significant extent the historical understanding a student acquires."   Teachers, therefore, need to assess the resources carefully and use a variety of resources in their instruction. The need for strategic resource selection is especially critical in the area of historical inquiry when in-depth learning rests on understanding historical evidence from multiple perspectives, and use of textbooks alone leads to shallow and ill-formed conclusions

(Foster, 2001). Educators must balance students' need for organized background

information gained through secondary sources with the provocation and perspective

gained from an exploration of primary sources. In the end, the sources used in an

instructional unit must lead students to develop an understanding of the historical

context, evidence from different perspectives, and consequences of historical actions

(Foster, 2001).

Denis Shemilt (2000) acknowledges that students need to develop a broad

narrative-framework understanding of history by working through different levels of

understanding, from a simple chronological view to a complex, multiple-perspective

one.   When Shemilt's levels are interpreted through the lens of resources, they

demonstrate the importance of starting with secondary sources and moving to the use

of primary sources with ever more diversity of viewpoints and perspectives (see Table

4).

Shemilt's Levels in the Development of Narrative Frameworks in History (Shemilt, 2000)	Implications for Resource Support
Level 1: A Chronologically Ordered Past • Students understand the significant phases of human history, located in time and space • The past is a coherent progression, with one phase leading to another	Secondary sources (including textbooks) offer a coherent outline of history, usually in chronological order. Eras are often named and demarcated from one another, leaving an impression that history is a disjointed sequence of different ways of living.
Level 2: Coherent Historical Narratives • Students understand the patterns of history and the connections between the patterns formed by turning points and trends • Students are looking at intentional and causal explanations for the patterns of history	Secondary sources may show the overall trends, but primary sources should be introduced to help students see the different interpretations of patterns and trends that can be formed from different perspectives.

Shemilt's Levels in the Development of Narrative Frameworks in History (Shemilt, 2000)	Implications for Resource Support

Level 3: Multidimensional Narratives
• Students should consider at least three dimensions for each narrative framework:
   o Means of production /population history
   o Social organization
   o Cultural & intellectual history
	A combination of secondary and primary sources will enable students to probe deeply into the context of the historical time. The focus is not on what is happening, but what is going on. Students will benefit from primary sources that show specific human conditions, decisions and actions, rather than generic overviews (e.g., "The Crusades were. . . .").

Level 4: Polythetic Narrative Frameworks • Students develop narrative frameworks that acknowledge and include alternative narratives	Primary sources are essential for developing an in-depth view of alternative perspectives.

Table 4: Shemilt's Development of Historical Narrative Frameworks & Implications for Resource Support

Most history instruction in the schools is based on the use of secondary sources, primarily textbooks. Students and teachers are comfortable with the format, the information is often presented with controversies unmentioned or resolved, and interpretations/point of view are embedded and virtually invisible to all but the most discriminating readers. Research by Rouet *et al*. (1998) indicates that students read textbooks to gather information with no regard to the author. In addition, Rouet *et al*. find that students regard textbooks as more important than primary sources. On the 1988 NAEP history assessment, only 39% of 12th grade students reported that they had read material from any source other than a textbook (Britt *et al*., 2000). Research shows that teachers often choose to teach with textbooks to maintain their two highest priorities: coverage of the prescribed curriculum and control over the classroom and learning (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Secondary sources (including textbooks) can be used successfully in combination with primary sources, much as the Shemilt chart above indicates – secondary sources contribute an overall picture of an area of study, albeit with a limited scope and depth (Lee, M., 2004), while primary sources enable students to understand different perspectives on the same issue. If students are to think like historians, they must evaluate the credibility and point of view of secondary sources as well as primary sources (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007). By comparing one source with another, students begin to understand that all texts are created from a point of view (van Drie & van Boxtel, 2007).

Toner's research (1993) suggests an effective use of secondary sources when paired with primary sources. Toner led students through a series of exercises designed to help them evaluate all type of sources, both primary and secondary. In order to help students develop their own interpretations, Toner exposed them to secondary sources as models of developing interpretations of various formats of primary sources. By integrating the strategic use of secondary sources, Toner successfully taught students to find and evaluate primary sources and develop their own historical interpretations based on the evidence.

The use of primary sources in historical inquiry has the power to transform the **study** of history to the **doing** of history (Lee, M., 2004). Primary sources may be used to foster active mental processes as learners are prompted to observe the features of the source carefully, use their prior knowledge to make inferences, make personal connections, and use evidence to support their speculations and predictions (Bass &

Rosenzweig, 1999; Bransford *et al.*, 2000; Perkins, 2003; Seixas, 1998; Seixas, 2000; Stearns *et al.*, 2000; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005). Students with different learning preferences and strengths respond to the multiple pathways presented by the different formats and the tools and structures that surround primary sources on many sites (e.g., a tool that overlays typed text on top of handwritten and hard-to-read text) (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005).

To use primary sources well, teachers need to help students move from reasoning **about** the texts (focusing on evaluating the documents based on what type of documents they are) to reasoning **with** the texts (focusing on using the meaning of the documents in the historical inquiry) (Rouet *et al.*, 1996).

Cognitive Reasoning

Primary sources promote several types of cognitive reasoning – contextualization, critical thinking, analysis of multiple perspectives, interpretation, and sourcing. These reasoning skills lead to the development of cognitive empathy or perspective taking.

Primary sources enable students to recognize historical context and get a sense of the complex conditions at the time (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006). Primary sources should be used to counter the allure of "presentism," a proclivity to interpret and judge the past based on current values and contexts that has been identified by Sam Wineburg as a danger in historical inquiry (Wineburg, 1999, 2001). Primary sources communicate both the reality and the complexity of the past; their fragmentary and contradictory nature leads to messy and sometimes frustrating learning experiences

(Tally & Goldenberg, 2005), but also to greater engagement and a need for students to develop coherent interpretations of their own; and they help students see that history is complex and based on conflicting evidence that must be interpreted based on the historical and social contexts (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999).

Primary sources provoke the development of critical thinking skills because learners must develop their own interpretations and inquiry-based habits of mind in order to construct their own narrative. Students may learn to employ a questioning stance, an openness to different points of view, a critical lens of analysis and evaluation, a willingness to draw inferences and conclusions based on the evidence, and an understanding of the specific contexts for broad historical themes (Lee, P., 2004; Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006; Yang, 2007). Primary sources may be used to provoke conceptual thinking when learners are expected to place the specific details of the sources in the context of larger issues and themes, generalizations, and essential concepts (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006; Yang, 2007).   The visual nature of many primary sources (cartoons, photos, maps, posters) produces immediate responses from learners (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005) and, because of the abstract quality, may lead to conceptual thinking more easily than verbal text.

A third historical reasoning skill that is developed through the use of primary sources is recognition and analysis of different perspectives. Primary sources provide authentic views (not to be confused with "true" views) of different opinions, points of view, and roles of the human actions during an historical time period (Lee, J.K., & Clarke, 2003). Discussions of power (whose viewpoints are preserved?) and bias (are

any primary sources unbiased?) ensue when students confront multiple perspectives. Teachers can guide students to move beyond accessing and interpreting different perspectives to perspective taking, or being able to understand the context, take a particular perspective, and develop a line of argument defending the perspective with supportive evidence that is drawn from the primary sources. Perspective taking at its most thoughtful is equivalent to cognitive empathy.

 Interpretation is another historical reasoning skill that emerges from the use of primary sources. Wineburg suggests that interpretation is actually a dialectical process and it is particularly useful for historical documents. Students ask questions of the documents, seek answers in the text or other documents, ask further questions, and so on until an interpretive opinion is formed that is justified by the documents (Wineburg, 1998). A number of subskills are involved in interpretation, including asking questions, reserving judgment, paying attention to emotional responses, and persevering through confusion long enough for an interpretation to be formed (Wineburg, 1998, p. 340). Primary sources provoke interpretation because the sources are not pre-packaged with someone else's interpretation, nor do they allow a "scissors-and-paste" approach to history (Eamon, 2006). Interpretation is the underpinning of cognitive empathy. Students will not be able to develop cognitive empathy unless they can form interpretations for themselves; otherwise, they are appropriating an interpretation without truly understanding the ideas and opinions in context. Cognitive empathy is the difference between knowing and understanding.

Another important reasoning skill that is developed through the use of primary sources is sourcing. On one level, sourcing (determining the origin, authority, perspective, and reliability of the source's creator) is a cognitive activity of analysis and evaluation (Eamon, 2006; VanSledright, 2004). As a normal part of the school library curriculum, students are taught to use sourcing strategies to evaluate every resource, particularly those sources available in the "anyone-can-publish" digital environment. Sourcing applied to primary sources, however, reaches a much higher level than the mere application of evaluation criteria. The connection between primary sources and the human face of history is strong – humans created the texts and their authorship can usually be determined. The creators had a purpose for creating the texts and that purpose can be inferred to generate a personal insight into the perspective of the creator. Primary sources are not generic texts written or created to offer summary explanations of other people's experiences. They are specific and rooted to the personal perspective of the humans in history who created them. With primary sources, the cognitive evaluation skills of sourcing are transformed into cognitive empathy.

Emotional Responses

Students also are more likely to engage emotionally as they connect to the people represented in many primary sources either as authors or subjects; by their very humanness, primary sources communicate the "voice" of the past (Tally & Goldenberg, 2005; Yang, 2007). Digital primary sources "empower students to construct more personal understanding of history" (Lee, J.K., 2002). The human

connection of primary sources goes beyond emotional engagement to lend

authenticity, because they allow students to go "beyond the predigested, seamless

quality of most textbooks to engage with real people and problems" (Bass &

Rosenzweig, 1999; Tally & Goldenberg, 2005). Students develop a sense of the reality

and complexity of the past (Bass & Rosenzweig, 1999) and they are better able to

connect the past with the present (Lee, J.K., *et al.*, 2006). Emotional responses to

primary sources may result in emotive empathy when students understand the

feelings and emotions of the humans represented by the sources. Emotive empathy

must be properly mediated by the teacher or librarian to ensure that students do not

confuse empathy with sympathy, identification, or unfounded imagination. Students

should be able to understand the feelings of others in their historical context without

experiencing the same feelings themselves.

Challenges to Using Primary Sources

Challenges to using primary sources have been identified through research

conducted by Lee, J.K., Doolittle and Hicks (2006) and Lee, J.K. (2002). In the Lee,

Doolittle and Hicks study, teachers do not use primary sources often because of

testing; their belief that most students are unwilling and unable to engage deeply with

primary sources; teachers' own limited ability to access, analyze and interpret

historical sources; and teachers' perceptions that they are blocked by limited access to

computers. Teachers do not name their own lack of training as a challenge to using

primary sources, but Lee, Doolittle and Hicks identify that the teachers have very

limited knowledge of some of the most prominent sites with historical primary sources

(Lee, J.K., *et al*., 2006). In another study, Lee finds that there is reluctance to use

primary sources because they can create information overload, with too much

information and too little organizational structure (Lee, J.K., 2002).

Sam Wineburg, the noted history researcher, recognizes the layers of challenge

that historical documents pose to teachers and students. Textual documents are often

difficult to read for a number of reasons; students fail to comprehend the meaning

because they do not understand the vocabulary, the sentence structure, the purpose

of the text, the literal and hidden meanings, or any of a number of textual challenges

(Wineburg, 2001). Even more importantly, however, Wineburg finds that students fail

to engage in an interpretive process of questioning historical texts, seeking meaning or

"the truth" in the texts rather than in themselves. Teachers also may undermine the

thinking provoked by the use of primary sources by using them as illustrations, rather

than as texts to be probed for meaning (Eamon, 2006).

Strategies for Teaching with Primary Sources

Several researchers have investigated the usage of primary sources by history

teachers and the teaching strategies that are most successful for engendering student

learning. A few of the strategies will be detailed here, but a fuller explanation will be

provided in Part V. J.K. Lee (2002) analyzed the 2001 NAEP in US History responses to

find that most history and social studies teachers use primary sources only once a

month or less (87% of 4th graders; 70% of 8th graders; 77% of 12th graders). Lee, J.K.,

Doolittle and Hicks (2006) conducted a study of high school teachers in which they find

that some analysis activities are done by 50% of the teachers – identifying key

individuals and ideas, detecting and evaluating bias, and comparing and contrasting

details across multiple sources. They also find that two analysis activities are done by

fewer than one third of the teachers – uncovering the context in which the source was

created and assessing the source for credibility, authority, and authenticity. It is

important to note that Wineburg identifies both the sourcing and contextualizing skills

as essential to historical inquiry (Wineburg 1991, 2001).

Based on their research study, Lee, J.K., Doolittle and Hicks (2006) suggest

some changes that could be made to increase the usage of digital historical primary

sources: provide more web-accessible computers; devote more time to the study of

historical documents; lessen the emphasis on standards and standardized tests; and

provide training to teachers on locating and using primary sources. They conclude that

teachers need to use primary sources more before they will incorporate their use into

the classroom and that the usage will not increase without a "shift in teacher

disposition toward authentic inquiry with the broad and active use of primary

historical sources."

Historical inquiry benefits from a model for teaching with primary sources that

includes a well-defined problem/issue to be addressed that has no obvious solution or

resolution and fits into a larger theme, scaffolded encounters with conflicting evidence

or multiple points of view, and explicit modeling of the skills being taught (Saye &

Brush, 2002). Many primary sources incorporate images such as photographs,

graphics, maps, cartoons, or even documentary film or video. Tally finds that teachers

need to slow down the process of image analysis and sequence it through stages in

order to make the thinking visible to students and enable them to follow the thinking

process independently. Tally prescribes four phases to image analysis: observation,

information gathering, making inferences, and asking questions (Tally & Goldenberg,

2005).

Librarians and classroom teachers have different roles in mediating the use of

primary sources. Although their roles overlap in the teaching of historical reasoning

with primary sources, the classroom teacher has the responsibility for the long-term

and strategic integration of primary sources into classroom learning. The teacher must

prepare students to engage with the documents properly, using analysis tools and

strategies, to avoid the challenges of superficial truth-gathering and illustration

suggested by Wineburg and Eamon (Eamon, 2006; Lee, J.K., & Clarke, 2003; Wineburg,

2001). Saye and Brush (2002) advocate that teachers use both hard and soft

scaffolding – hard scaffolding is the specific strategies taught to the students for

document analysis and interpretation; soft scaffolding is the continuous, on-the-spot

support by the teacher during the course of instruction. Teachers need to monitor

their expectations and move from the more common position of using primary sources

to find evidence of key individuals, events, and ideas to the more powerful and less

common position of using primary sources to compare and contrast details across

sources and evaluate credibility, authority, authenticity, and completeness (Seixas,

2000; Wineburg, 1991).

The librarian role in the use of primary sources, beyond teaching reasoning and

inquiry skills, is not well defined by the research. Certainly the selection of resources is

key, but that role has become exponentially more complicated by the rapid pace of digitization of resources. Even keeping track of stable sources of high quality digitized archives is difficult; mastering the proliferation of new websites and collections of digital historical materials is probably impossible. Established institutions themselves, like the Library of Congress, are caught in the gap between digitization and access. The cataloging developed for very old materials housed in the Library of Congress do not translate well to online searching; users have been known to search Google to find Library of Congress materials. If librarians are overwhelmed by the explosion of digital access to primary sources, then classroom teachers are more so.

Organization of access to online resources, then, must be part of the redefinition of the school librarian role. Online collections of primary sources, or the links to them, must be organized with a pedagogical framework to have value for students and teachers (Lee, J.K., & Clarke, 2003). That framework facilitates finding and manipulating primary sources to pursue historical inquiry. Librarians have started using websites and wikis as portals that organize relevant resources and mediate their use. Interesting work in participatory librarianship, translated to the school environment, holds great promise for inviting teachers and students to interact with and add to the organizational frameworks and conversations about history in schools (Lankes *et al.*, 2007b). Facilitating the educational use of Web 2.0 tools by teachers and students will become an integral part of the redefined school librarian role.

Additional insights into the school librarian's role in the use of primary sources will emerge from the current research. Librarians need to mediate the use of primary

sources to enable students to develop meaning and empathy by providing access to context, conflicting multiple perspectives, and evidence.

One of the research questions for the current research study is about the impact of sources (in particular primary sources) on the development of historical empathy. Clearly there is a relationship between the use of sources and empathy: ". . . the ability to acquire empathy or historical understanding is largely dependent on the materials a student is able to examine" (Riley, 2001, p. 148). The use of textbooks as sole sources in the classroom does not foster the development of historical empathy. Textbooks generally present one point of view and one interpretation of historical events and people; offer limited context; and often compare the present and past in terms of similarities and differences which leads to deficit thinking about the past (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lee, P., & Ashby, 2000; Wineburg, 2000). The use of a combination of primary and secondary sources has a positive effect on the development of both cognitive and emotive empathy if the use is mediated through instruction in reasoning skills, careful selection and organization of resources, and definition of the roles of the classroom teacher and librarian.

USE OF HISTORICAL FICTION

The current research case study involved the teaching of history and English in a humanities block. The teachers paired appropriate historical fiction with the study of history; while students were engaging in an historical inquiry unit, they were also viewing a fictional representation of that era. History and historical fiction are obviously not the same, and confusing their use is a dangerous practice: "Any attempt

to equate history with fiction is dangerous, as it allows any interpretation to have

equal validity; it creates moral relativism, where those who deny the Holocaust have

equal place with those that tell its horrors" (Harris & Foreman-Peck, 2004). Mills,

however, draws from Vivienne Little's *Historical Fiction in the Classroom* (Little &

Trevor, 1986) to argue that they have the same purpose: to stir the imagination, bring

ordinary things to life, help readers and students be more aware of the world around

them, and help readers and students understand different ways of behaving and

different perspectives (Mills, 1995). Teaching historical fiction in tandem with the

study of history has both advantages and disadvantages in terms of student learning

and the development of historical empathy.

Narrative is an intrinsic aspect of history. Educators realize that students must

grasp the human story of history to develop a coherent understanding of the

continuity and complexity of actions, attitudes, beliefs, and events over time. Students

respond to the narrative line of history. Jerome Bruner argues that narrative is an

innate capacity in humans, and that children make lasting meaning by constructing

narratives. Bruner writes: "The typical form of framing experience (and our memory

of it) is in narrative form. What does not get structured narratively is lost in memory"

(Bruner, 1990, p. 56). Bruner recognizes four innate sensibilities in children that

constitute their narrative ability: a sense of agency, that humans are agents who take

actions toward goals; a sense of linear progression of events; a sense of the normal

way that things should occur; and a sense of the perspective of the narrator (Bruner,

1990, p.77). Bruner's ideas seem well-suited to the study of the narrative line in history, or the story of humans through time.

The narrative framework of history, however, is different from the imaginary narratives that have been created by authors to convey a sense of history, historical fiction. Using fiction as a way in to history has the potential to strengthen historical understanding, and a number of positive effects are noted by researchers, but teachers need to be aware of and mediate the challenges.

Young people who read historical fiction gain a sense that real people were involved in history and that times and issues in history were complex (Levstik, 1989). Harold identifies a positive effect on moral education as readers develop a caring attitude toward the characters (Harold, 2003). There is virtual unanimous agreement that reading historical fiction leads to the development of empathy. While the connection to emotive empathy seems clear, Harris and Foreman-Peck (2004) find that reading historical fiction also helps children overcome the problems they encounter in perspective taking, or cognitive empathy: limited life experiences; less advanced moral development than the adults of history they are trying to understand; and a lack of sophisticated understanding of historical evidence and how the past is different from the present.

Teaching with historical fiction may also have a connection to teaching for social responsibility, one of three paradigms for history teaching identified by Seixas (2000). As students read fiction and develop a caring attitude toward the characters, they understand the "emotion and complexity of the human condition" (Wolk, 2009,

p. 672). Keen recognizes that reading novels might lead to empathy and then local

altruism, but she finds no evidence that students display world citizenship as a result.

She, however, does not dismiss the importance of the empathy aroused by a novel:

"Readers, which is to say living people, bring empathy to the novel, and they alone

have the capacity to convert their emotional fusion with the denizens of a make-

believe world into actions on behalf of real others. That they rarely decide to do so

should not be taken as a sign of fiction's failing" (Keen, 2007, p. 168).

Mediation and teaching techniques will determine the effect of reading

historical novels on students' development of historical understanding and empathy.

Many of the same skills that are taught for historical inquiry should be applied during

the reading of novels – determining the author's intent and the context in which the

book was written; questioning and interpreting the text, not just comprehending the

story; corroborating the details of the story with primary and secondary sources;

reading critically; being aware of the reader's positionality; and using historical

evidence to build an imaginative picture of the life described (Apol *et al*., 2003; Crocco,

2005; Seixas & Peck, 2004).

Critical reading involves asking a number of questions of the text: Who

constructed it? Why? Can the information be corroborated in other sources? How

does the information differ from other accounts? What are the assumptions and

ideological positions that the author holds? What is the bias or perspective of the

author and characters? (Apol *et al*., 2003; Seixas & Peck, 2004). Criticality is not a

natural response by most students who have been taught to that text-to-self

connections and comprehension are the end goals of reading literature (Apol *et al.*,

2003). Teachers must counter that reluctance by wrapping the reading of the novel in

instruction and conversation if they hope to bring their students to understanding and

empathy (Keen, 2007). Research on critical reading surprisingly shows that even some

teachers (in this case, pre-service teachers) resist critical reading of a novel and ignore

historical inaccuracies if they feel that the students will respond emotionally to the

novel's happy endings (Apol *et al.*, 2003).

The positive effects of reading historical fiction on students' development of

understanding and empathy are documented in a number of research studies (Argo *et*

al., 2008; Coplan, 2004; Gosse, 2003; Harold, 2003; Keen, 2007; Mar *et al.*, 2009; Mills,

1995). Most of the effects are related to the human aspects of history. Students

develop an understanding of the human condition in the past and that all humanity is

connected. Novels provoke readers to think, feel, and imagine participation in the past

vicariously. Students also get a better sense of chronology and how human history has

progressed over time. They learn to recognize bias and multiple perspectives.

Coplan finds that students tend to adopt the perspective of the protagonist and

thus display empathetic perspective taking, but cautions that students must maintain

their own sense of self and a self-other separation. Students who hold on to their

separate identities can imagine the emotions of the character, but recognize that they

are having experiences in the real world that are different from the character's

(Coplan, 2004). The real world within a novel is important as well. Students who are

highly prone to empathize prefer fiction that is low on the fictional qualities (more

real) than highly fictionalized narrations. Interestingly, students who are low

empathizers have no preference between low- and high-fiction novels (Argo *et al.*,

2008).

The positive effects of historical fiction are not automatic. Teachers need to be

aware of the potentially negative effects of using fiction as a part of history instruction.

Novels seem true whether or not they are accurate (Levstik, 1989). In fact, Barton and

Levstik find that even teachers are swayed by fictional text, with one teacher in their

study equating credibility with readability and interest. This teacher found *April*

Morning by Howard Fast more credible than other sources ". . . because it was the

'most fun'. . . . It has vivid details, and it's full of emotion" (Barton & Levstik, 2004, p.

247).

Teacher mediation is necessary to move students beyond some of their

responses to literature that contradict historical understanding. For example, students

react emotionally rather than look for historical meaning (Levstik, 1989). Students

form inaccurate pictures of the past by stereotyping a whole group of people based on

characteristics described in a novel, by reducing their view of history to the small

portion portrayed (called reductionism), and by universalizing from one story to an

entire time period or location (called essentialism) (Apol *et al.*, 2003; Crocco, 2005).

Teachers also need to monitor and scaffold their students' development of

empathy to ensure that they are empathizing, not sympathizing (caring <u>for</u> another,

but not sharing an understanding of the other's experience), engaging in "emotional

contagion" (catching the emotions of another without thinking or imagining the

perspective of the other), or "in-his-shoes imagining (putting own values and beliefs into character's head) (Coplan, 2004). Coplan establishes careful limits on the construct of empathy that emerges from historical fiction – readers respond emotionally, but maintain the self-other separation; readers have more information than the characters and observe the characters' actions from that omniscient lens; and readers may hold different hopes for the outcome from the characters (Coplan, 2004).

The use of historical fiction in teaching history has many advantages, but clearly must be managed well by the teachers to engender its positive effects. Teachers must be careful, however, not to emphasize narrative over historical inquiry and argumentation. I agree with Karras (1999) that teachers should offer both narration and argumentation, but that argumentation must take first priority. Students learn to analyze, synthesize, evaluate evidence, and develop a line of argument during inquiry; those skills must not be overshadowed by the lure of a good story.

CONNECTIONS BETWEEN PRIMARY SOURCES AND HISTORICAL EMPATHY

Researchers have identified an arc of instruction, a loosely structured beginning-to-end sequence, that has proven to be effective for teaching with primary sources. A comparison of Stripling Inquiry Model with the skills and sequences proposed by J.K. Lee (2002) for primary sources, Yeager and Foster (2001) and Foster (2001) for historical empathy, and Portal (1987a) for historical empathy (see Table 5) shows great consonance in the arc of teaching, whatever the focus. The similarities lead one to conclude that the instructional design for using primary sources is congruent with the design for teaching historical empathy. This alignment supports

the researcher's expectation that teaching with primary sources may result in heightened historical empathy whether or not the teachers are focusing on empathy.

Two points should be noted about these instructional sequence arts. The first is that the need for background knowledge is a baseline for any inquiry. It is widely accepted by researchers and educators that students cannot investigate deeply or display empathy without that knowledge base. Second, two of the arcs (J.K. Lee for primary sources and Portal for historical empathy) have not identified the necessary thinking during the Construct phase, when students draw conclusions, form opinions, and develop their line of argument. This thinking step is perhaps assumed in the history field. In the library field, it is often omitted which results in copied "reports."

HISTORICAL INQUIRY	PRIMARY SOURCES	HISTORICAL EMPATHY	HISTORICAL EMPATHY
Stripling Model of Inquiry (2003)	*Lee, J.K. (2002)*	*Yeager and Foster (2001) Foster (2001)*	*Portal (1987a)*

Connect:
  Connection to topic
  Background context
  Prior knowledge
	Focusing instruction	Introduction to puzzling, paradoxical historical situation
		
		Background knowledge of historical context and timeline
			Students connect – project own ideas and feelings
			
			Presentation of paradox

Wonder: Questions		Frame around "why" question	Student generation of questions
Investigate: Finding, evaluating, interpreting and using information to answer questions	Guiding inquiry into historical problems	Investigation through analysis of various forms of evidence and interpretations – multiple perspectives Critical questioning of wide range of primary and secondary sources	Investigation through variety of sources ⇩ Introduction of particular person or situation for in-depth and detailed investigation

Construct:
  Finding patterns
  Forming opinions
  Drawing conclusions
  Developing line of
		Construction of narrative framework to reach conclusions with evidence	

HISTORICAL INQUIRY	PRIMARY SOURCES	HISTORICAL EMPATHY	HISTORICAL EMPATHY
argument		Framework = explanation of past action based on interpretation of historical evidence	
Express: Creating and communicating product to express new understandings	Student construction of own historical narratives		Student production of two-sided narrative
Reflect: Reflection on product and process of learning Asking new questions	Assessing student learning	Understanding that history never final account	

Table 5: The Arc of Teaching And Learning: Historical Inquiry, Primary Sources, and Empathy

An in-depth look at classrooms and the school library during the teaching of an historical inquiry unit may show the clear connections between the use of primary sources and the historical fiction during historical inquiry and the development of historical empathy.

The research questions guiding this study were focused on several important constructs: collaboration between classroom teachers and school librarians; historical inquiry; teaching with historical novels and primary sources; and historical empathy.

- *How do classroom teachers and school librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels and primary sources?*

- *What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and primary sources on the development of historical empathy?*

This research was designed as a case study of a history/English humanities block and school library during the teaching of an historical inquiry unit in which the teachers use primary sources and a related historical novel. The study was focused on the day-to-day classroom and library experiences of an approximately three-week unit. These decisions, and the teachers' reasons for making them, form the heart of

teaching and learning in the classroom and library (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Cunningham, 2007). The teachers were aware that I was documenting the use of primary sources and historical fiction to teach historical inquiry; they were not aware that I was also looking for connections to the development of empathy. The teachers had not committed to the explicit teaching of empathy, nor were they experts on the research literature about historical empathy. The research was, therefore, designed to look deeply at how history and English teachers and the librarian focus on generating historical understanding through the use of primary sources and historical fiction to see if there was a resultant impact on the development of historical empathy.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

FRAMING THE STUDY

The goal of this research was to build a robust explanation of how classroom teachers and librarians use primary sources and historical fiction to teach historical inquiry and to probe the impact on the development of historical empathy in students. The research took place in the natural environment of an urban high school. This setting and research focus provided a framework for the methodology to be used. In this section, I lay out my personal biases about education, inquiry, librarianship, and teaching with primary sources and then describe the research design: rationale for conducting qualitative research and a case study approach; selection of the case study site; my research questions, hypothesis, and propositions; unit of analysis; data collection process; interpretation and analysis of the data; and discussion of validity and reliability.

PERSONAL BIASES

I have been an educator, school librarian, and library administrator for over thirty years. In that time, I have developed definite biases about the role of the school librarian in producing thoughtful, information-literate students who are able to inquire on their own, draw conclusions to form new understandings, and apply their learning to new situations. I believe that inquiry is the backbone of active learning across the curriculum and that a librarian should collaborate with classroom teachers to integrate inquiry learning into the curriculum, not just to provide resources. I see the librarian

as a central connector of teaching and learning in a school and a major influence on

developing a school-wide continuum of the learning skills that every student must

develop.

I have focused my professional work in the last ten years on developing and

elaborating on an inquiry model. This model is explained in some detail in the

literature review, but it is important to understand that this model forms a lens for my

interpretation of classroom and library activity. The inquiry process outlined in the

model is not lock-step; it is a recursive and fluid process for both the

teachers/librarians and the students. The arc of inquiry, however, matches a learning

process, and the learning experiences observed during this research were viewed from

that process perspective.

I also have very definite views about the role of the school librarian and the

imperative to change the role due to pressures from educational accountability and

the emerging tools and resources of the digital environment. I suspect that my

expectations for change surpass the reality of a school librarian's opportunities for

change because of the challenges of the educational environment, particularly in a

large, urban district. The research methodology included a look at those challenges as

well as the strategies and tools that were already in place in a "typical" situation.

Throughout my research design, data collection, and analysis, I maintained an

awareness of my personal biases and implemented strategies for ensuring that they

did not invalidate my research findings. The primary strategy was that I would be a

nonparticipant observer and would not offer my opinions to the participants. In

addition, I have been transparent about the criteria used during analysis and interpretation of the data. Further discussion will be offered in later sections of this chapter.

RESEARCH DESIGN

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

A qualitative research design was chosen for this study from the social constructivist philosophical perspective (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research most closely matched my goals and the research context for several reasons. First, the research was conducted in the complex, natural environment of a New York City secondary school (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2009). The research was designed around a case study of teaching with primary sources by two history teachers and the librarian (Creswell, 2007). Teaching in any school at any level is a complex matrix of decisions, challenges, successes, conversations, and interactions, but in an inner-city school environment with a very diverse student population, those attributes are intensified. Trying to understand the teaching and learning by controlling the environment is not only unnatural, but also impossible. The best way to understand the impact of teaching with primary sources is to enter the school with an open mind and to observe and listen with careful detail. Qualitative research is a way to understand how participants make sense of this world (Merriam, 1988).

The second reason that a qualitative approach was a good fit for this research is that I was trying to form a complex understanding of the issues impacting history

classrooms and libraries, rather than narrowing the results to numbers or probabilities.

I documented the cultural/educational setting of the school in order to provide a

context for interpreting classroom and library experiences. The strength of this

research is in the robustness of the picture described, not in the predictive or

generalizable qualities (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2009).

This qualitative perspective was appropriate for a third reason – my own

worldview. Qualitative research recognizes that the researcher is the main instrument

for data collection (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Merriam, 1988). As an educator with

many years of experience, I recognize that every child and teacher is different and

each interaction is unique. Decisions are made daily by teachers and they are never

the result of just one reason or one expected outcome. The only way to get an

authentic view of the decision making and motivations of the teachers involved in the

study was to ask open-ended questions and allow the answers to guide the

interpretations (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006).

Collaboration is another aspect of this study that could not be adequately

probed in a more structured research design – the role definition and negotiation

interactions that occur between the school librarian and the classroom teachers. The

intent was not to arrive at general principles of collaboration and a generic role

definition for a school librarian. The goal of this study was to offer an in-depth look at

the way that two teachers and one librarian have figured out how to work together

and what each contributed to the learning experiences of the students.

Finally, a qualitative research perspective matched the constructs being studied – the development of historical perspective and empathy. Just as students are expected to understand alternative viewpoints based on the historical context, so I tried to understand the viewpoints of the three teachers based on the social, educational, personal, and cultural context of the school, classrooms, and library.

CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY

The case-study methodology was chosen because it provided the closest match to the criteria for case studies outlined by a number of researchers (Gerring, 2007; Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Merriam, 1988; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009). First, the research question was a "how" question that was focused on finding out how teachers and the librarian use primary sources and historical novels in teaching historical inquiry. The study was designed to elicit the qualities of the situation, not to count or predict their behavior.

The second reason to use a case-study approach was that I needed to study the phenomenon in a real-life context. In education, phenomena and context do not exist as separate entities (Yin, 2009). Looking at the reality of teaching and librarianship, rather than an idealized vision, leads to insights and in-depth understanding of the use and impact of resources in a typical learning situation. Indeed, resources, whether they are in-hand or virtual, have little value outside of their use.

Finally, I chose the case-study methodology because I, as a researcher, could not control learning experiences in a classroom or library. I had to observe and analyze what actually happened, because interpretations based on a falsely controlled,

experimental environment have limited value for understanding the day-to-day experiences of teachers, librarians, and students. In case-study research, I encountered numerous variables that influenced the actions and conversations. If I had limited data collection to one type of data (e.g., interviews), I would not have been able to see the complex variables that surrounded teaching and learning. I needed, therefore, to build triangulation of data into the design so that I could collect multiple sources of evidence and validate my data.

SELECTION OF CASE-STUDY SITE

Site selection was based on nonprobability sampling, using criteria suggested by Merriam (1988) that were drawn from purposeful sampling (Patton, 1980, as cited in Merriam, 1988) and criterion-based sampling (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984, as cited in Merriam, 1988). Among the myriad choices of type of case, I decided that a "typical" case would most closely align with my research goal to get an in-depth understanding of the usual situation of teaching with primary sources and historical novels. For a typical case, the researcher decides the criteria that exist in an average case and then seeks a site that matches those criteria (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984, as cited in Merriam, 1988).   The criteria for my selection are detailed in Table 6.

Criteria for Site Selection	Rationale
Secondary school	Although primary sources are used at the elementary level, the use is much higher and more sophisticated, involving multiple formats, at the secondary-school level.
Presence of school library and certified librarian	The presence of a school library with a certified librarian should be a given. In the large urban district of the study,

Criteria for Site Selection	Rationale
	however, not all secondary schools are served by a certified librarian, or even by a school library.
Interest in teaching with primary sources in history	Because the focus of this study is on teaching with primary sources, the history teacher and librarian have to exhibit definite interest in and understanding of that mode of teaching (Bailey, 2007; Rabinow, 2007). Participation in a summer institute on teaching with primary sources by at least one of the educators in the school was used as the filter for site selection on this criterion.
Willingness of the educators at the school to accommodate my research (principal, librarian, classroom teachers)	Although the researcher is entering as a nonparticipant observer, the educators who will be affected must be willing to welcome the researcher to do observations, interviews, and analysis of documentation (both teacher and student work). The educators must have enough self-confidence that they will continue to teach in a "typical" way when the researcher is present.
Accessible location	The researcher is conducting research while working full-time. The site location must be close enough to the researcher's job site to allow access during the school day for a concentrated period of time (estimated three weeks).

Table 6: Criteria and Rationale for Site Selection

Based on the above criteria, a site was selected for the research that was conducted in the fall of 2010. The teacher/librarian teams in the Teaching with Primary Sources Institute held in June, 2010, were invited to express interest in participating in a research study. Through conversation, one site was determined to fit the criteria most closely. A conversation with the librarian, who continued to express interest, led to a visit to the school site and a conversation with the principal. The

principal was enthusiastic about her school's participation and indicated that the

school is often a site for educational research, so the students and teachers would

accept an observer without altering their typical behavior.

The principal suggested a specific history teacher as one who regularly uses

primary sources. That suggestion led to an interesting adaptation of the research,

because the history teacher is part of an English/history humanities block. The

teachers align the reading of historical fiction with each historical unit. The addition of

historical fiction as a resource was especially appropriate for my analysis of the effect

of resources on the development of empathy, because research has shown the

connection between narrative and empathy (see the Literature Review chapter for the

research base). The case study design was adapted to accommodate this new

opportunity.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND PROPOSITIONS

The specific research questions being investigated were: *How do classroom*

teachers and school librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels

and primary sources? What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and

primary sources on the development of historical empathy? I developed an hypothesis

of what I expected to find in my study about the relationship between teaching with

primary sources and historical fiction and the development of empathy (Merriam,

1988; Yin, 2009).

- Hypothesis: *The case study will show that teaching with primary sources and historical novels during historical inquiry enhances students' development of cognitive and emotive empathy.*

A number of propositions underlay my research hypothesis. These propositions drove the data collection and analysis (Yin, 2009). I felt that if the data supported the propositions, then the propositions would help frame the themes of the research results. The propositions were organized under five general categories (see Table 7). Data were collected to test each proposition; the collected data provided a picture of the nature of the category when the data were analyzed.

PROPOSITIONS	
Proposition	Data Collection Technique
Category: Nature of primary sources, historical fiction	
• Teachers tend to use primary sources to illustrate one point of view/perspective rather than to represent multiple perspectives. • The historical novel chosen to accompany the unit coheres narratively around the perspective of the main point of view.	• Analysis of documents (unit and lesson plans, primary sources, historical novel) • Classroom and library observation and analysis of transcripts
Category: Integration of primary sources and historical fiction into instruction	
• Different types of primary sources are used at different phases of inquiry. • Primary sources are used as individual pieces of information, but teachers rarely ask students to construct broader understanding or a line of argument with primary sources as evidence.	• Analysis of documents (unit and lesson plans, primary sources, historical novel) • Classroom and library observation and analysis of transcripts • Analysis of student work
Category: Analysis and processing of primary sources and historical fiction	
• Teachers and librarians rarely teach the skills of analysis and critical thinking that students need to interpret primary sources beyond	• Analysis of documents (lesson plans) • Classroom and library observation and analysis of transcripts

PROPOSITIONS	
Proposition	Data Collection Technique
simply comprehending the "text." • Conversation enables students to gain insights into the meaning of primary sources and historical novels and to develop empathy.	
Roles of librarian, English teacher, history teacher and evidence of collaboration	
• Librarians are relegated to the resource-provider (and perhaps resource-organizer) role when teachers are using primary sources because the large number of primary sources available digitally is overwhelming to teachers and teachers believe that content expertise is necessary for the use of primary sources in instruction. • Collaboration between classroom teachers and the librarian is difficult if the teachers and librarian are operating from different paradigms about history and the use of primary sources. • Librarians have little to no role in the use of historical fiction.	• Analysis of lesson plans • Library observation and analysis of field notes and transcripts • Pre- and post-interviews with history teacher, English teacher, and librarian
Effect of the use of primary sources and historical fiction	
• Primary sources are more likely to evoke historical empathy than secondary sources. • Students are prone to develop emotional sympathy but not cognitive or emotive empathy from reading historical novels.	• Classroom and library observation and analysis of transcripts • Analysis of student work

Table 7: Propositions

Although by establishing an hypothesis and propositions, I was setting up a

deductive research paradigm, I did not regard the propositions as the exclusive

framework for my research. The value of a case study is in finding what actually exists.

I expected to see teaching and teacher/student interactions around primary sources

and historical fiction that I did not foresee through my propositions. The initial

framework that the propositions provided informed my data collection, but I expected

to see other patterns and priorities emerge from the data analysis (Merriam, 1988; Yin

2009).

UNIT OF ANALYSIS

An important aspect of clarifying a research design for a case study is defining

the unit of analysis, or what Yin defines as "what the 'case' is" (Yin, 2009, p. 29). The

unit of analysis is the main idea represented in the research questions; the researcher

reports results in terms of the unit of analysis. My unit of analysis was a phenomenon

which I have labeled "Teaching with Primary Sources and Historical Novels during

Historical Inquiry." My case had three embedded units of analysis – Teaching in the

History Classroom, Teaching in the English Classroom, and Teaching in the Library.

Data were collected around the embedded units of analysis, but the overall

analysis and interpretation of results encompassed the interpretations from the three

embedded units (Yin, 2009). Results are reported related to the main unit of analysis,

drawing examples and evidence from the embedded units. The unit of analysis is an

important component of research design for case studies, because researchers are in

danger of collecting data from one level (e.g., individuals) and trying to report results

related to another level (e.g., organization) (Yin, 2009).

The unit of analysis is also important to the concept of generalizability. Results

from a case study can be generalized to a theory, but not to a population. Researchers

must ensure that their research design is crafted to collect data around the unit of

analysis that is tied to the theory and research questions that are driving the research. Without that definitive link, the researcher will not be able to generalize results (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2009).

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

In order to collect data that can be regarded as trustworthy, case-study researchers must collect multiple sources of evidence in order to find converging lines of inquiry. Yin (2009) describes a process for case studies that is very different from a linear approach in which each type of evidence is analyzed and interpreted separately. Instead, all types of data collection (e.g., documents, archives, interviews, observations, and documents) are analyzed around the same emerging themes and constructs to find areas where the evidence comes together and is corroborated. The data in my case study were even more robust and varied because I looked at three embedded units of analysis – teaching in the history classroom, English classroom, and library.

Data were collected from multiple sources throughout the life of the unit (seventeen school days). Each type of data offered a lens onto the research questions; however, each type of data also carried disadvantages. The decisions that I made about data collection and the rationale for those decisions are outlined in Table 8.

Data Collection Method	Rationale	Outcomes	Advantages and Disadvantages
Semi-structured, pre-observation	These interviews set the context for the study and the researcher's role and	Dynamics between researcher and participants were set and	Advantages: Established personal communication between participants and

Data Collection Method	Rationale	Outcomes	Advantages and Disadvantages
interviews with history teacher, English teacher, and librarian	ethical responsibilities. Interviewees were asked about their goals, preferred roles in collaboration and teaching, and perceptions of student knowledge.	ethical dimensions of research were ensured. The context for the classroom observations was elaborated. Triangulation about the context was possible because of the teachers' and librarian's different perspectives.	researcher. Provided background context that the researcher would have difficulty eliciting from another source. Provided a lens for interpretation of teacher decisions. Disadvantages: Was difficult to schedule because of teachers' limited time. For the same reason, the interviews had to be rather short, so that they could be accomplished during one planning period.
Informal interviews with history teacher, English teacher, and librarian	Informal conversations were held immediately before and after class with quick follow-up questions.	These informal interviews enabled the researcher to get feedback on emerging themes and issues as the research was progressing.	Advantages: The questions could be asked at the point they arise – the teachers did not need to be reminded of the context. Disadvantages: Care had to be taken that the teachers did not feel pursued or overwhelmed. The researcher's priorities were not the teachers' priorities.
Direct observations in history classroom, English classroom, and library with field notes	Nonparticipatory observations were made in each classroom and in the library whenever the students were working there. These observations and the transcripts and field notes provided the bulk of the data. The researcher was able to see the translation of unit and lesson plans into the reality of day-to-day teaching. The researcher was able to	The transcripts of the classroom activities were a rich data set for later analysis. The observations enabled the researcher to capture the spontaneity and fluidity of the teaching process. The researcher was able to see and hear students as they were processing primary sources and the historical novel. Both whole-group and small-	Advantages: These observations and field notes provided the richness of the data. The researcher was able to see as well as hear the interactions among the teachers and students. The researcher was able to use the field notes to track the ongoing development of theories and themes. Disadvantages: This was the most time-consuming

Data Collection Method	Rationale	Outcomes	Advantages and Disadvantages
	witness first-hand the students' reactions to primary sources and the historical novel. The researcher was able to hear small-group dialogue when that was part of the instructional activities.	group conversations were available. The researcher filled out the verbal interchanges with observations of behavior, context, and body language. These deepened the interpretation possible.	aspect of the research, not only in making the observations, but in preparing the transcripts.
Post-observation interviews with history teacher, English teacher, and librarian	These interviews were used to introduce the idea of empathy in order to check teachers' perceptions about their students' development of empathy and to corroborate the researcher's preliminary interpretations. The interviews also re-visited the unit goals and asked for teachers' evaluations of student learning. The educators were asked about their use of primary sources and the historical novel, their satisfaction, and their perceived success. This interview also probed the educators' perceptions of the roles of classroom teacher and librarian.	The interview provided direct evidence of the teachers' and librarian's thoughts at the end of the unit. The teachers and librarian had the opportunity to engage in reflective practice and their new insights informed the interpretation of the evidence.	Advantages: The interviews provided teachers with an opportunity to reflect on their practice and their successes and challenges. The teachers provided direct feedback to the idea of the development of empathy in their students, and the researcher was able to corroborate her own interpretations. Disadvantages: The researcher had to be careful to maintain an objective stance, so that the researcher's interpretations were not swayed unduly by the teachers' perceptions rather than the evidence collected.
Teacher and librarian documents	The lesson and unit plans collected from the teachers and librarian enabled the researcher to see the design of instruction, the intended integration of primary sources and historical fiction, the intended activities, and the student assignments.	The plans outlined in the documents could be compared to the reality of the classroom. This interface of planning with reality provided a richer picture of the use of primary sources and historical fiction than would have emerged just by looking at the classroom interactions or	Advantages: These documents were not time-sensitive. They could be analyzed after the observations. The documents were static, but they could be used to analyze the fluid context of the unit as it was actually taught.

Data Collection Method	Rationale	Outcomes	Advantages and Disadvantages
		looking at the plans. It was important to know the teachers' expectations as well as the teachers' day-to-day realities.	Disadvantages: Teachers did not write up daily lesson plans. The documents that they provided may not be comprehensive.
Student creation of slave narratives	At the end of the unit, the teachers asked the students to create a slave narrative. Student products enabled the researcher to gauge the types of empathetic thinking expressed by students.	Students regarded this assignment as a regular part of their work and thus provided a nonbiased picture of their thinking. Students did not know that the researcher was collecting copies of the responses for analyzing historical empathy.	Advantages: Student products could be compared to student interactions during class to corroborate the development of empathetic thinking. Disadvantages: Although the researcher used a rubric to evaluate student work, the evaluation involved interpretation that is out of context. The researcher had no knowledge of individual students, their backgrounds, or capacities.
Primary sources	A surface analysis of the primary sources used during the unit enabled the researcher to understand the formats and content of sources used at different points of the inquiry-based teaching process and for different purposes. The primary sources were evidence of the teachers' focus on one or multiple perspectives.	Analyzing the types of primary sources and their relation to secondary sources generated interesting information about separate primary sources versus those embedded in secondary sources. The analysis of the use combined with the types and perspectives of the sources provided a rich picture of how primary sources were actually used during historical inquiry.	Advantages: This analysis could be performed at any time during or following the unit. Disadvantages: The researcher was aware that sometimes the decision about which resources to use was dependent on convenience and availability, rather than pedagogical fit. This possibility had to be considered in the interpretation of results.

Table 8: Data Collection and Rationale

The primary data collection methods are described in more detail below.

Pre-Observation Interviews

I conducted a semi-structured interview with the three teachers before the first observation (See Appendix A). The interview protocol focused on the following constructs: demographic information (e.g., experience, education, age); philosophical framework/goals (teacher – content or story; disciplinary thinking; social action; librarian – resource provider; teacher of skills; authentic research); perceptions of roles of teacher and librarian and attitudes toward collaboration; attitude toward and experience with historical inquiry; attitude toward and experience with primary sources; perceptions of student knowledge and skills and desired student outcomes; and perceived challenges to teaching historical inquiry with primary sources and historical fiction.

History and English Classroom Observations

I negotiated with the teachers to set up observations during the teaching of an historical inquiry unit in which the teachers used primary sources and historical fiction (see Appendix C). The class periods were audio taped and later transcribed. I took notes during the observations and later wrote up field notes (Bailey, 2007). The notes captured the basic outline of the class (a short description of the activity, content, assessment, skills either taught or scaffolded, and resources) and an abbreviated running record of conversation highlights, behaviors, body language and other aspects that put the transcribed conversation in context. The actual observation form outlined in Appendix C was not used, but the criteria listed above were captured in a free-form running record of each class.

When students were working in small groups, I circulated among the groups and recorded the conversations among students as they were working.

Copies of teacher-generated documents were collected (unit plans, lesson plans, lists of resources) when they were available and appropriate.

Library Observations

I observed the librarian teaching in the computer lab on one day; the students did not work in the library during the three weeks of the unit. The same teacher-observation protocol (see Appendix C) was used during the observation of the librarian's instruction in the computer lab. I circulated among the students to observe and record small-group conversations when appropriate.

Post-Observation Interviews with Classroom Teachers and Librarian

I conducted a semi-structured interview with the two classroom teachers and the librarian after the last observation (see Appendix B). The interview protocol focused on the goals for student knowledge and skills at the end of the unit, perceptions about the effects of using primary and secondary sources, definitions and insights about inquiry and inquiry-based teaching, reflections on the use of technology, the educators' definition of historical empathy, and teachers' and the librarian's perceptions about student development of empathy (related to the characteristics defined by Barton and Levstik, 2004).

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The analysis and interpretation of data began at the moment the first data were collected; collection and analysis became a simultaneous process (Merriam,

1988). Data analysis was an iterative process of making sense out of the data, starting with small sections of text and building to patterns and themes.

The suggested steps in the analysis of data are very consistent across different researchers (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 1988; Saldana, 2009). My first step, begun when I completed the pre-observation interviews, was to take a portion of one interview and field notes as a pilot and identify small units of information (usually a sentence or two) that suggested possible codes. Although I did not impose codes from my propositions, I was on the alert to recognize related concepts when they occurred. Once a number of codes were tentatively determined, I reflected on the codes by using the questions offered by Saldana (2009, p. 50-51) that he adapted from Flick (2002, p. 216):

- Does the coding match the study's theoretical framework?

- Will the coding help you find answers to your Research Questions?

- Do you understand and feel comfortable with the codes you have developed?

- Do the codes match the data? Can everything that seems important to your study be coded with this set of codes?

- Will the codes coalesce into categories that will lead to analysis and interpretation?

The next step was to apply the codes to all the data that had been collected to this point. It was important to maintain flexibility in the codes and openness to new insights and discoveries throughout the data collection and analysis process; however, openness and flexibility were especially vital at the early stages of research when new

or unique ideas could have been lost because they were not captured by the coding.

The recursive process of data collection and coding continued throughout the days of

observation.

This initial coding generally involved several types of codes, as described by

Saldana (2009) – *in vivo* (the actual language of the participants that captures

significant expressions/concepts); descriptive (what the text is about, the topic);

emotion (the expression of an emotion); values (expressions of values, attitudes, or

beliefs); and evaluation (indications of judgment or evaluating worth).

Simultaneous with the assignment of initial codes, I analyzed the codes for

recurrent patterns or themes. Codes were then clustered into categories that

indicated the patterns or themes (Creswell, 2009; Saldana, 2009). The coding and

theme formation was also an iterative process that continued throughout data

collection and analysis called the constant comparative method. As new themes were

developed, they were tried out with the data, revised, and tried again.

Three analysis techniques for the categorized data suggested by Yin (2009)

were used in my analysis. First, I used a pattern-matching logic. If the data matched

the propositions of my study, they strengthened the internal validity and provided

more trustworthy results.

The second technique that was helpful in my data analysis was explanation

building (Yin, 2009). Creswell suggests that this is the stage of interrelating the themes

and descriptions that have emerged from the categorization of the data (Creswell,

2009). Because this was an explanatory case study in which I was trying to explain

how teacher and librarians used primary sources, the explanation-building strategy was an essential logical and iterative process for my research. This strategy involved forming an early explanation of how primary sources were used, comparing the explanation to an initial set of data, revising the explanation or proposition to coincide more fully with the data, comparing with a larger set of data, and so forth until a logical explanation was built from all the available data. Yin (2009, p. 144) warns that researchers using this approach to analysis must guard against losing the focus and original purpose of the research.

After I built an explanation that was suggested by my data, I used an additional analysis technique, a logic model, to test my explanation and interpretations against my propositions (Yin, 2009). The propositions were based on my literature review and experience, and they provided a predictive model for the use of primary sources and the development of historical empathy. By waiting until I had constructed a logical explanation that emerged from the data before comparing the results with my propositions, I maintained an inductive stance and remained open to new insights and patterns. In those areas where my results coincided with the propositions, the findings are that much more trustworthy.

The final stage of data analysis defined by Creswell (2009) is the interpretation of the themes, explanations, and descriptions derived from the data analysis process. At this point in a case study, the researcher must evaluate the quality of the data and analysis and decide the level of generalizability that is possible. Yin (2009) proposes four criteria for judging the quality in case-study analysis. The interpretation must

incorporate all the evidence, address all rival explanations, focus on the most significant aspect of the study, and integrate the expert knowledge of the researcher (Yin, 2009). Strong and definitive findings would enable me to generalize about the connection between the use of primary sources and historical fiction and the development of historical empathy.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY / TRUSTWORTHINESS

Validity and reliability are important criteria for determining the value and credibility of research findings (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Gerring, 2007; Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2009). Although the terms are generally applied to quantitative research, their essential qualities are necessary for qualitative research as well. Indeed, qualitative researchers sometimes name the whole phenomenon of validity and reliability simply "trustworthiness." Validity for qualitative research is generally characterized by three types: construct, internal and external. Construct validity is maintained when the data that are collected measure the concepts that the researcher intends to measure and claims to have measured in the findings. In my case study, I built construct validity by using multiple sources of evidence so that I approached the key ideas from several perspectives. In addition, I strengthened construct validity by maintaining a chain of evidence, so that any interpretation can be traced back to the evidence supporting it. Finally, member checking is a strategy that raises the level of construct validity. I checked my interpretations with the teachers and librarian who I was observing and revised my interpretations whenever I missed the main ideas.

Internal validity refers the internal consistency of the data and whether one thing leads to another in a logical line of evidence. Yin (2009) suggests four techniques that I built in to my data analysis strategy to maintain internal validity: pattern matching, explanation building, addressing rival explanations, and using logic models. By following these strategies carefully, I was able to guard against making inferences in my interpretations that were not supported by the data. Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) are uncomfortable using the same terminology for internal validity in qualitative research as is used for quantitative research, so they propose use of the term "justifiability." They accept as a given that analysis of qualitative data includes subjectivity. The subjective interpretations are considered justifiable (or internally valid) if they are transparent (clear steps from data to interpretations), communicable (the interpretations make sense to others), and coherent (the theoretical ideas fit together to tell a coherent story) (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 84-5). Maintaining a clear chain of evidence is important to the internal validity of a study.

External validity refers to the generalizability of the findings. Case-study research is externally valid if generalizations that are supported by the evidence are made to a theory, not to a population of people. Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) describe two levels of generalizability, which they call transferability (or the appropriateness for a theory to be transferred to another cultural setting). They say that abstract theories can be applied to new situations and contexts, while themes and patterns of ideas can only be applied as evidence within the same cultural context (p. 86-7). To check external validity or transferability, I had conversations with colleagues

about the themes I was developing in order to be sure that they resonated. In addition, I double checked that my themes matched the research literature.

Reliability is an indicator of the replicability of a study. No case study researcher would claim that a case study can be conducted again to yield the identical results, because the context and conditions will never be identical. On the other hand, it was my responsibility as a researcher to establish and use a strict protocol for collecting and analyzing data as well as to maintain records and an audit trail that can be accessed by other researchers (with identifications anonymized) in order to heighten the reliability of my study. Merriam suggests that Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288, as cited in Merriam, 1988) offer better terms to describe the reliability of the results in qualitative research -- "dependability" or "consistency."

PROCEDURES – THE RESEARCHER'S ROLE

As a researcher, I was an observer, not a participant observer, in the classrooms and libraries. Conversations and interviews were conducted with an unbiased tone; open-ended questions were asked to elicit responses from participants without leading in specific directions. Although I am Director of Library Services for the New York City Schools, I have no direct supervisory responsibilities over any school librarian. I presented myself as a colleague, not an administrator, and approached the research as a learner, not an expert.

The students were not singled out for observation or interviews. They were observed as a normal part of their classroom activities. The summative assessment assignment to create a slave narrative was given to all students as a normal aspect of

their learning experience. The teachers submitted the final products and a sampling of in-class assignments to the researcher. Because all responses were submitted to me as the researcher, the work selected for analysis was not revealed to the teachers or librarians.

Permission was sought from administrators, teachers, and librarians assuring confidentiality and the right to discontinue participation at any time. Students were notified that a researcher would be joining their class periodically, but that the researcher would not be interviewing any student outside of the normal course of their classroom activities. I interacted with students in response to greetings (for example, "Hi. How are you?"), but I held no substantive conversations with students, nor did I participate as a librarian or a teacher.

I submitted for IRB approval from the Department of Education (DOE) and Syracuse before research commenced. A permission letter was also sent to the parents with a stamped, self-addressed envelope for return to the researcher.

The interviews were semi-structured and piloted (and revised) beforehand with other teachers and librarians. I conducted all interviews and analysis of the interviews (see Appendices A and B).

The classrooms and library were observed following an Observation Protocol (Appendix C). Criteria for empathetic conversation/understandings from the research were used to evaluate the transcripts and field notes of classroom and library observations (see Appendix D).

MATERIALS

The teachers and librarian selected the primary and secondary sources to be used during the unit. A record of all materials and the point in the unit in which they were used was kept by the teachers and librarian. All students had copies of the major texts used during the unit: *The Trials of Phillis Wheatley, The Classic Slave Narratives,* and *A Different Mirror.*

Digital primary sources used in the classroom were visually projected in the classroom or made available for online access in the computer lab. Students who found their own resources online made their own choice whether to use the materials digitally or print them out.

SUMMARY OF METHODS

In this chapter, I have outlined my research methods for conducting a qualitative case study of an historical inquiry unit taught by eleventh-grade social studies and English teachers and the school librarian in a New York City high school. The case study was designed to investigate the teachers' use of primary sources and historical fiction and the impact on the development of historical empathy. I hypothesized that teaching with primary sources and historical fiction would enhance students' development of empathy.

Underlying the hypothesis were propositions about what I expected to find in several areas, including the nature of the resources used, how the sources were analyzed and integrated into instruction, the effect of the resources on the

development of historical empathy, and the roles of the librarian and classroom

teachers. Data from classroom observations, interviews with the educators, and

student work were collected and analyzed, and the results were compared with the

hypothesis and propositions in my interpretation of results. The next chapter details

the data collection and analysis process and presents the analysis and interpretation of

the results.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

In this chapter, I present the data collection and analysis process and the results of my case-study research. The results include both my interpretations based on my original propositions of what I expected to find and my general conclusions about the themes that were revealed by the data in answer to my research questions.

A case study, by definition, is qualitative research designed to capture the intricacies and essence of a particular situation. The case is bounded by time, environment, and participants; the researcher probes to both uncover and discover the characteristics of that unique case. Results of a case study cannot be generalized to the whole population of similar situations, although the insights gained will contribute to knowledge in the field and may have implications for changes in practice and further research.

This chapter is the story of a high school English teacher, social studies teacher, and librarian who taught a unit on Slave Narratives to a diverse group of eleventh graders in New York City using primary and secondary sources and historical fiction. It is also the story of the development of historical empathy as a result of that instruction. It is a snapshot of three weeks in the learning and teaching lives of the participants, told through the lens of a researcher with over thirty years of experience as an educator and school librarian. This is a human narrative for which I have a great deal of empathy; however, as a researcher, I have framed my interpretations to maintain validity and integrity. I do not present the results as "imagination restrained

by the evidence" (Davis' definition of empathy in Davis *et al.*, 2001, p. 72), but rather as "researcher perceptions and interpretations restrained by the evidence."

In this chapter, I will lay out the research design and process, as well as the results and interpretations of the results. The chapter moves from an overview of my research questions, research design, and case study process to a description of the participants and environment of the "case" to specific details about data collection and data analysis. The results and interpretations of those results will be organized and presented by themes created by me as the researcher to express the trends captured in the data and data analysis. Conclusions from this case study are offered at the end of this chapter; implications of the research will be described in Chapter Five.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND THEMATIC FRAMEWORK

My case-study research was framed around two research questions:

- *How do classroom teachers and school librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels and primary sources?*

- *What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and primary sources on the development of historical empathy?*

I predicted that, by looking at the way that classroom teachers and school librarians use sources in their teaching (primary, secondary, and historical fiction) and by characterizing classroom discourse and student products in terms of historical empathy, I would be able to see relationships between sources and the development of empathy. I undertook the research with the following hypothesis about those relationships:

- Hypothesis: *The case study will show that teaching with primary sources and historical novels during historical inquiry enhances students' development of cognitive and emotive empathy.*

For my research proposal, I developed a number of propositions as sub-hypotheses under my research hypothesis. These propositions were used to frame the data collection. These categories (slightly revised) are used later in this chapter as the thematic structure for presentation of the results and interpretations. The revised theme categories are listed below (see Table 9):

THEMATIC CATEGORIES FOR PROPOSITIONS
Nature of primary sources, secondary sources, and historical fiction
Integration of resources into instruction
Teaching strategies and student skill development with primary sources, secondary sources, and historical fiction
Development of historical empathy
Roles and challenges of librarian, English teacher, history teacher and evidence of collaboration

Table 9: Thematic Categories for Propositions

In the results section of this chapter, the propositions under each theme will be detailed and the results will be compared with them, along with additional results that deepen the interpretation and understanding of the themes.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was designed as a case study to collect data as a non-participant observer in a social studies and English classroom and the school library during one, approximately three-week, instructional unit. The types of data collected were aligned with the research questions and propositions in order to gather evidence to respond to the research questions. At no time did I, as the researcher, explicitly influence the

design or implementation of the instructional unit, although my presence, since I am Director of Library Services for the school district, may have implicitly raised awareness around issues such as collaboration between the librarian and classroom teachers.

The instructional unit being observed was a Slave Narrative unit that was taught in a coordinated fashion by an English and a social studies teacher to one humanities-block class of students. The unit lasted for 17 days, although the English teacher had begun the reading of slave narrative texts several weeks earlier.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SITE AND PARTICIPANTS

The story starts here – with a description of the teachers, librarian and students as well as the environment of the school, classrooms, and library. A description of my first impressions may communicate the character of the student experience in this school. I have changed the name of the school and all participants, but have identified the location as New York City, the largest school system in the country, with over 1600 schools and 1.1 million students.

Jones High School is one of six schools on a campus of high schools. The campus retains the name of the former comprehensive high school, but it has now been broken up into six schools of about 500 students each. Each school operates as an independent school with its own principal, faculty, and student body. The campus building is six stories and schools are generally housed on separate floors, with a common auditorium, library, and cafeteria. Each small school in the campus has been created within the past ten years and developed around a theme. The theme for Jones is science, but it also has a strong academic focus on the humanities. Jones has

454 students enrolled in grades 9-12. They come from mostly poor (the poverty rate at Jones is 64.6%) and ethnically diverse families (20.9% Black; 41.2% Hispanic; 25.6% Asian; 11.7% White). Girls outnumber the boys, with 54.4% females and 45.6% males. The students are served by 26 faculty members, 96.7% of whom are fully licensed and permanently assigned to this school. Jones is located on the 5th floor of the campus building.

Jones seeks students who have not excelled academically in their previous school years, but who have expressed an interest in pursuing science in an early college high school. Every student in the school takes a college preparatory curriculum and all students have the opportunity to take dual high school/college credit courses while at the high school and to enroll in undergraduate classes in college during their senior year. The academic expectations for Jones students are high; special emphasis is placed on the scientific method, problem posing and solving, creative thinking and self-directed learning (information extracted from the 2009-10 School Comprehensive Education Plan for "Jones" High School).

The campus library was created two years ago from a former warren of offices on the ground floor after the large library for the comprehensive high school had been closed for two or more years. The library space is slightly larger than a single classroom in size, with three smaller conference rooms to the side. One serves as the librarian's office, one as a conference room that is never used because there is no supervision and the room cannot be seen from the library itself, and one small room as the fiction reading room with shelves along the wall and space for two semi-

comfortable chairs. A large square pillar (two feet on a side) is planted in the middle of the only space in the library that can possibly accommodate a class for instruction, so the librarian has angled the tables to flow around the pillar while still maintaining sight lines to the Smart Board mounted on one wall. The library has a small area with four computers for student use, a copier, a circulation counter, and a stacks area for the very limited book collection that was left after the out-of-date and poor quality materials from the former library were discarded.

The librarian (identified as Ms. Lib for this research) is a 26-year old certified librarian. Ms. Lib is a fairly new librarian, having been in another school for one and a half years and in this one for one and a half. She initially thought she wanted to go into public librarianship, but has grown to love working in a school library and wants to build the library program.

On my first day of observation, I checked in to the school by about 8:30 a.m. I had to put my briefcase and purse through the security system and the guard wanded me. Then I had to check in with my DOE identification at the security guard desk. She asked me where I was going, but remembered me from visiting the library previously, so she wrote me a name badge and gave me permission to go to Jones High School. Going through the barriers of security systems, wanding, security guards, and an unwelcoming front hall was somewhat intimidating, but the students in New York City are used to such measures and they do not seem to expect different treatment from their school.

I went up in the elevator to the 5th floor. The class I would be observing meets in the social studies classroom on Mondays. I located the classroom across from the school office, but the classroom door was locked. When I knocked, the social studies teacher (called Ms. SS) let me in and welcomed me. She was busy setting up for class – putting booklets of maps and handouts of maps to be used in class on the tables. She said I could sit anywhere I wished. I set up a table/desk in the back of the room near an electrical outlet for my recorder.

The social studies classroom is arranged with groups of table desks together – 5-6 table desks in each group, four groups of table desks in the classroom. Students are therefore facing each other, not the front of the classroom. Cabinets and bookshelves on the wall opposite the door house copies of books that Ms. SS will distribute to the students for different units during the year. The front of the room is somewhat cluttered with a small teacher desk, a small table with the teacher's desktop computer and printer, a cabinet for the teacher to store her coat and personal belongings, and a cart with an overhead projector. On the back bulletin board are displayed a few artifacts from the previous unit. The room is not unpleasant, but it is devoid of personal touches like baskets, plants, personal photos, or artwork.

Ms. SS is a fairly young black woman (probably in her thirties). She is very definite in her motions and matter-of-fact in her speech. She does not waste time on idle chatter. As it approached the time for the bell to ring, students entered the classroom. They sat at the table desks, but did not seem to have assigned seats. I heard one student say that she was all by herself at the front grouping, so she was

encouraging someone to join her. As they sat, they got out their notebooks and talked among themselves. They were not loud or boisterous, but they did seem to enjoy each other because they were all talking and most were smiling.

The twenty eleventh graders in the class are from diverse backgrounds: two non-immigrant whites, two immigrant whites, six Hispanic, three Middle Eastern, five Black, and two Asian. The class is two-thirds female and one-third male. Most of the students speak English well as they chatter together, although a few have detectable accents.   The students are obviously motivated to do well, because they have chosen to attend this high school that emphasizes rigorous learning and offers the opportunity to take college courses during their senior year. They are expected to wear "uniforms" in this school, which mainly consists of wearing a white shirt. Their definitions of "wearing" and "white" are as varied as their backgrounds, with white gauzy shirts draped over their shoulders, on top of sweatshirts, tucked in, pulled out, buttoned and unbuttoned. They seem to push the line of conformity as far as they can without stepping over it.

Ms. SS did not really greet the students or start class by talking to them. Instead she wrote on the overhead projector transparency a "Do now."

Do now:

1. *Take out LGT*

2. *Take out reading*

3. *Take out notes*

4. *Take out pen/notebook*

5. BE SILENT

As class was ready to start, Ms. SS chided a couple of students to get into their assigned groups, so I found out that they did, indeed, have assigned seats. The two students scampered to their assigned groups. Ms. SS was spooning soup or something from a mug as the students settled in. Ms. SS had to ask someone to read #5 and asked what that meant. The girl said, "Be quiet." Ms. SS asked students to follow that direction.

Ms. SS started the class by putting directions on the overhead. "Take out maps. Look at the map of 1790. Turn to page 43 in the book" (students had to share the map books placed on the tables because there were only two copies per group) "and fill out the map, listing states, cities, waterways and transportation, other features of US in 1790." Then students were expected to do the same thing with the map on the flip side of the handout – the U.S. in 1820.

As the students were doing their work, Ms. SS went to each table to check students' homework to see that it was done. Some students did not do their work, which Ms. SS noted in the gradebook. Later in the period, Ms. SS put several student names on the board to see her after class. These were students who were falling behind in their work.

The second day was the English block. I entered the classroom of Mr. Eng shortly after 8:30 am. He had loud music playing from a portable radio on the counter. He was working at a desktop computer, but already had a laptop and projector set up and projecting the poem that will be read in class, "Lakota Instructions for Living."

Mr. Eng is a 44-year-old African-American man who has an easy-going manner and ready smile. He dresses somewhat casually, with knit tops and nice jeans, looking very much in the fashion of the day but not dressed down or student-like. He obviously likes music and always has it playing between classes.

The room is larger than the social studies room. Seven large rectangular tables are arranged in a pseudo semi-circle, two rows, revolving around the center front where the computer and projector are on a portable cart and projecting on a screen against the front wall. Each table has about three chairs. The teacher's desk is at an angle in the front right corner. It is covered with papers and books, like it's a rich reservoir of relevant materials but not a place to work. Indeed, Mr. Eng offers for me to sit at his desk since he never sits there. I opted to sit in a chair at the side of the classroom instead. I didn't have a desk, so I set the recorder on the counter and wrote in the notebook on my lap. The chair was just about two feet from the radio blasting away, which was very distracting. The music was modern with a lively beat, but not rap.

Mr. Eng said he would just be in the room until Friday when he would be exchanging classrooms with another teacher. He has been in this classroom on the main hall of Jones HS for three years; the other teacher is new and young and she feels too isolated in her room separated from all the other rooms around the corner. Mr. Eng intimated that he suggested they switch rooms. He seemed fine with the switch. Before class starts, the other teacher came in to confer with Mr. Eng about the room

switch. She did look tentative and a little stressed out. Eng put her at ease about the switch.

The classroom seems set up for efficient work. There is a computer and printer in the front left corner which Mr. Eng uses but he also lets students use during lunch and before and after class. There is a white board to the side of the screen in the front of the room that is covered with names (student first names), dates, notes, etc. – it seems like an organized graffiti board with information to be noted, not with full messages. On the back wall are three folder pouches containing multiple copies of various graphic organizers that Mr. Eng apparently uses often.

The students filed in as the period was about to start. All found their seats with no hassle. They seemed to be relaxed and enjoying themselves, talking and smiling. The bell rang and class started at 8:52. Mr. Eng started class with two announcements – sign up for Regents prep and sign up for working at a soup kitchen in the Bronx.

Mr. Eng distributed copies of the poem and called their attention to it, telling them that their task was to relate the poem to what they've been studying in the Slave Narratives. He asked one student to read the poem out loud, then asked students to annotate the poem, looking for paradoxes. As students worked on the poem, Mr. Eng circulated around the classroom and checked homework. Mostly he was checking that students had read a certain amount of the Mary Prince text in the Slave Narratives. He encountered two girls who had not read and could not even produce a copy of the book. He sent them out of the classroom, not with anger but definitiveness. The girls gathered up their stuff and left without a word. [One of the girls came back after class

and explained that she hadn't gotten a copy of the book yet. Mr. Eng explained that she was digging a big hole for herself – she was already 140 pages behind. He said that she should have used the class time today to catch up on her reading.] I'm not sure where the girls went – perhaps to the office or the library.

There are 16 students in the class today – 4 male and 12 female, all ethnicities. Twenty students are actually enrolled in the class, but there was never a time in the three weeks of observation when all 20 were in attendance. The gender and ethnic makeup of the class very closely reflects the diversity of the school as a whole.

This diversity provided an ideal setting for an in-depth exploration of slavery and oppression. The English teacher (called Mr. Eng) reflected about the powerful connection between a diverse student population and understanding the feelings of oppression: "When you have the demographics of the classroom where it's 40% [male], 60% girls in the classroom and they're wearing hijabs and their parents left to escape that kind of persecution, then it [a unit on oppression] speaks to them" (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview).

DATA COLLECTION

The primary avenue of data collection was classroom and library observation during the Slave Narrative unit taught by Mr. Eng and Ms. SS. Mr. Eng had started the unit in mid- or early November when students started reading the primary source texts in *The Classic Slave Narratives*, edited by Henry Louis Gates, Jr. The students read, during the two months until the unit was completed in the third week of December, the following texts:

- *The History of Mary Prince, a West Indian Slave* by Mary Prince, published in 1831 in London. In *The Classic Slave Narratives.*

- *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass, An African Slave* by Frederick Douglass, with a preface by Wm. Lloyd Garrison, published in 1845 in Boston. In *The Classic Slave Narratives.*

- *Incidents in the Life of a Slave Girl* by Harriet Jacobs writing as Linda Brent, edited by L. Maria Child, published in 1861 in Boston. In *The Classic Slave Narratives.*

- *The Trials of Phillis Wheatley*, by Henry Louis Gates, Jr., published in 2003 by Basic *Civitas* Books in New York.

During this unit, the students also saw portions of two videos as a part of their English class: "Roots" in six episodes, shown to students who voluntarily came after school (with pizza ordered by the teachers) and "Unchained Memories" (a documentary video produced by HBO in 2003 in association with the Library of Congress) with readings from slave narratives by prominent black actors and actresses and a heavy infusion of primary source photographs and music from the time.

In social studies, students read secondary-source packets (for example, "Antebellum Society: The South," an excerpt from *Who Built America?*) and relevant sections from a secondary source text (*A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America* by Ronald Takaki) in which about half of the content is actually embedded primary source quotes. A special section of social studies students who met Fridays during lunch for in-depth exploration of the themes and issues read sections of *A*

People's History of the United States by Howard Zinn, another secondary source with wide embedding of primary source quotes.

Prior to my first observation, the students in this class had started reading, in their English class, the slave-narrative primary sources used by both teachers. In the humanities-block configuration, the class was scheduled for two back-to-back periods in social studies on Monday and Wednesday, two back-to-back periods in English on Tuesday and Thursday, and one period of each on Friday. The total number of recorded and transcribed hours of English and history instruction was approximately 34, with 17 hours in each class. The classes did not visit the library during this unit, although the librarian did meet the English class in the computer lab for instruction on finding slave narrative resources on the Library of Congress website.

Field notes from all observations were taken to build a record of my thoughts on the environment, instruction, and student reactions that would not be captured by the audio recorder. As I observed, I used field notes to highlight the moments or ideas of greatest emphasis (for example, those times when every student seemed to tune in with interest). I referred to the field notes during data analysis to validate the importance of certain facets of my interpretation.

Only three library observations were made during the course of the unit. First, the librarian went to the computer lab to show the English class how to access the Library of Congress website, and more specifically the slave narratives. Students found the information most useful to them, including photographs, timelines, and audio recordings of slaves remembering their experiences. The other two library

observations were of special programs offered in the library, not related to the Slave

Narrative unit. The first was a presentation in the school auditorium by an Hiroshima

survivor, called the Hibakusha Stories. Attending the survivor's presentation were

classes from every school on the campus, including one of Mr. Eng's classes (although

not the class that was being observed). The second special program was a visit by a

young adult author who spoke to an English class from another school on the campus.

Although this special program is indicative of the efforts of the librarian to broaden the

impact of the library to all subject areas and all schools on the campus, the author-visit

observation was not included in the research analysis because it was totally unrelated

to the unit of study.

I also conducted, recorded, and transcribed pre- and post-observation

interviews with the librarian, English teacher and social studies teacher. These

interviews were conducted in the classroom or library when no class of students was

present, although the interviews were regularly interrupted briefly when a student

would wander in to ask a question or turn in an assignment. Those interruptions did

not seem to destroy the flow of the educators' thinking.

Samples of student work were also collected. The most comprehensive

assignment that the students completed during the unit was writing original slave

narratives (journals, cartoons, or poetry) for their English class. I collected and

analyzed the final products from sixteen of the 20 students in the class. In social

studies, students completed note-taking on slavery in America by selecting and

annotating quotes from a primary-source slave narrative. Thirteen of these

assignments were collected and analyzed. In addition, I collected four in-class essays

analyzing the arguments presented for and against Mary Prince's freedom in *The*

History of Mary Prince, one of the primary sources read during the unit.

All handouts given to the students during the unit were collected. These

included additional readings, the unit goals and essential questions, assignments, a

unit test in social studies, and graphic organizer templates for students to complete an

assignment.

Finally, the online presence of each educator was documented and analyzed

for its instructional use. Both classroom teachers maintained a blog where they

posted assignments and provided access to additional resources. The English teacher

maintained an account with *GoodReads*, an online social tool where individuals can

post reviews and comments on books they have read. Although I joined the English

teacher's *GoodReads* community, the postings were not relevant to the slave-narrative

case study. The librarian maintained a website and set up a class page for the English

teacher's class with relevant links to slave-narrative primary sources.

DATA COLLECTION PROTOCOLS

The protocols followed in collecting the data did not vary substantially from

what was outlined in the original proposal; however, certain changes were made. The

protocols that I used are described below.

OBSERVATIONS – RECORDINGS AND FIELD NOTES

Two methods of recording observations were used. First, I used an audio

recorder with a multi-directional microphone that I placed on a stand at the side or

back of the classroom. The recorder picked up most of the classroom discourse except for mumbled comments from students. Fortunately, both teachers generally asked mumbling students to repeat their comments louder and more distinctly. Most of the classes were conducted as whole-group; therefore, a stationary microphone worked well. On the rare occasions of small group work, I simply allowed the recorder to pick up the comments of the closest group in order not to intrude on the classroom instruction. In the case of the computer lab and student work in navigating the Library of Congress, I circulated among the groups and captured conversation and observations in my field notes. All of the audio recordings were transcribed by graduate students at Syracuse University.

The second way I recorded observations was by taking field notes. Although I designed an observation protocol template for capturing my field notes before I began my observations, I did not have to use the template while observing. I was familiar enough with the characteristics of empathy that I did not need to refer to them while taking notes. I kept my running records in a notebook to capture the day-by-day flow of the discourse and the points of emphasis. During analysis of the observation transcripts and field notes, I used the characteristics of empathy as part of my framework to code the conversation and activity.

I used the field notes both as a lens to highlight the important ideas of the discourse and as a check on my validity. During the analysis of the observation transcripts, I referred to the field notes to validate my perceptions about the factors that "popped" as evidence of attitudes, perceptions, patterns, and questions.

<u>INTERVIEWS</u>

I conducted and recorded pre- and post-observation interviews with the librarian, the English teacher, and the social studies teacher. The questions were essentially the same for all three interviewees, although they were modified slightly as appropriate for the different role of the librarian. The interviews were semi-structured, which means that I loosely followed the topics I had identified beforehand but I also asked unscripted follow-up questions when appropriate.

The pre- and post- questions were developed before I began the research. The pre-observation questions were focused on the major strands of the research study: primary sources, secondary sources, and historical fiction (attitudes toward, challenges in using, experience with); teaching goals; perceptions of the roles of classroom teachers and the librarian and collaboration; and historical inquiry (experience with, attitudes toward, challenges). No questions about historical empathy were asked in the pre-observation interviews, because I did not want to alert the interviewees that that's what I was studying, in order to keep from biasing the results. All three were aware that I was studying the use of primary sources and historical fiction.

Audio recording malfunctioned during two of the pre-observation interviews (or, more precisely, the researcher malfunctioned), but I had taken extensive notes during the interviews and recorded, on paper, much of the conversation word-for-word. These notes/transcript were used in analysis of the pre-observation interviews.

The post-observation interview questions were designed to be responsive to the situation observed during the three weeks. My first draft of the topic areas,

completed before I had begun my observations, included: satisfaction with achieving unit goals and evaluation of the level of student learning; effect of the use of primary and secondary sources and historical fiction; reflection on the challenges faced; historical empathy (perceptions about student development of empathy, skills needed, connections to primary sources and historical fiction); preferred roles of classroom teachers and librarian.

The pre-interviews and observations were richer than I had anticipated. I was able to gather adequate information about evaluation of learning, challenges, and collaboration. I decided, therefore, that I could pare down the post-interview questions to focus on the five main areas that needed more in-depth study, based on what I had learned during my three weeks: unit goals, resources, inquiry, use of technology, and historical empathy.

The major portion of the post-interview was focused on historical empathy, because I was introducing that idea to the teachers and librarian for the first time during the interview. I asked for their definition of historical empathy and their perception of its effect on students, as well as their thoughts about the connections between types of sources and the development of empathy. I added questions on inquiry because I did not see inquiry (as I define it) during the unit. I needed to understand how the teachers and librarian define inquiry, what they think about it and the skills that students need to pursue inquiry. I added technology because I saw teachers struggle with its use in the classroom (because of outdated or malfunctioning

equipment) and yet all three use technology tools (website, blogs, GoodReads) as a part of their professional practice and to communicate with students.

The chart below (see Table 10) illustrates the revision process. The final protocol may be found in Appendix B.

Post-Observation Interview Protocol Proposed Before Observations		Post-Observation Interview Protocol Final Version After Observations	
Category	# of Questions	Category	# of Questions
Unit Goals	1	Unit Goals	2
Evaluation of Learning	1	Evaluation of Learning	[Eliminated]
Resources	3	Resources	3
Inquiry	[Not Included]	Inquiry	2
Challenges	3	Challenges	[Eliminated]
Use of Technology	3	Use of Technology	3
Historical Empathy	3	Historical Empathy	6
Roles/Collaboration	2	Roles/Collaboration	[Eliminated]

Table 10. Post-Observation Interview Protocol

LESSON PLANS

The teachers prepared a learning plan they called an LGT (Learning Goal Template) for the unit with learning goals, essential questions, and the main student assignments. They did not create daily lesson plans, although both teachers had a clear focus for each class. Because the classes were in an humanities block with double class periods, the teachers changed activities several times during each day. This was especially true in the English classroom.

The LGTs were used in the unit analysis, which enabled me to look at the teachers' goals and focus. Without lesson plans, however, I could not determine how much their daily plans changed as a result of student responses and questions.

STUDENT WORK

The student work products from the social studies classroom were in response to the students' reading of the primary source, *The History of Mary Prince*. Students were asked to find quotes that described Life in Slavery and to annotate those quotes with their own interpretations. The teacher did not assign the major final product listed in the LGT, a research paper on slavery. She may or may not assign this paper for the spring. Although she recognizes its value, she expressed concern about the amount of time between their reading of the slavery primary sources and their continued research and preparation of the paper. She also was concerned about the amount of time involved, stating that she had already spent more than the budgeted amount of time on the slavery unit.

For the English class, students were asked to prepare an original slave narrative, creating at least one character, wrapping the narrative in historical context of significant events, and portraying the life of the character through journals, cartoons, or poetry. The students took this assignment very seriously and most spent a great deal of time creating the text and then formatting it so that it looked authentic, with burned edges and stilted handwriting. The students presented excerpts of their slave narratives to the class. One group of students wrote a script and videotaped their final project. Unfortunately, the computer equipment in the English classroom did not work properly, so I did not get to see the final videotaped product.

A few papers on one other assignment were collected. The students were asked to develop an in-class essay on the arguments for and against Mary Prince's

freedom presented in the text. Their responses indicate their ability to make sense of the complex text, as well as to identify lines of argument and points of view.

All student products were evaluated by criteria for historical empathy, both cognitive and emotive (see Appendix D: Criteria for Assessing the Development of Historical Empathy).

DATA ANALYSIS

Before I began the process of analyzing my data, I purchased a qualitative analysis software package called NVivo. Although I have discovered some problems with the software (for example, PDF documents cannot be imported or coded at this time), I found that the use of the software greatly enhanced my ability to see patterns and important ideas in my classroom observation transcripts, field notes, and interview transcripts.

I followed a process of data analysis that involved three major steps: 1) Developing a coding framework; 2) Coding the text; and 3) Analyzing the coded text.

STEP ONE: DEVELOPING A CODING FRAMEWORK

I developed my initial coding framework after all my research data were collected. To ensure that the framework was focused on the major ideas of my research proposal, I reviewed my research questions, hypothesis, and propositions. I re-read my research proposal, especially the literature review chapter in order to remind myself of particular aspects of the research that I wanted to track.

The coding framework was developed as a tree with categories and subcategories. The entire tree was entered into NVivo as coding nodes and subnodes. By entering the coding framework into NVivo before I started coding, I would seem to be approaching the coding process deductively. What I found, however, is that my coding framework evolved inductively as I coded the text and discovered new ideas worth capturing.

I coded the text by coding sentences and paragraphs of the text rather than single words or phrases. I was not interested in defining specific clue words or specific responses, but rather the themes, patterns and examples of ideas that emerged from the data. Each time I encountered text for which there was not an appropriate coding category, I developed a new category or subcategory.   Coding subcategories were added in the areas of "How Resources Used by Students" and "How Resources Used by Teachers" because I discovered much more nuanced differentiation in use than I had predicted. I greatly expanded the category "Challenges for Teacher and Librarian" as a result of the pre- and post-observation interviews, especially the interviews with the librarian.

Although I added the subcategories of "Student with Student" and Teacher or Librarian with Student" to "Collaboration," I found that I did not code much into those categories. That non-coding actually is indicative of the culture around student collaboration (parallel learning is more fostered than collaborative learning). I added the categories of "Demographics" and "Environment" and captured some information

from observations, field notes, and interviews, but supplemented this information with official statistics from the Department of Education website.

Several categories that were added provide insight into some of the major findings of this research. These will be discussed in the Results and Interpretations section of this chapter. In the realm of instruction, categories or subcategories were added to capture the interactive and thought-provoking aspects of classroom discourse through the delivery techniques of facilitated response / discussion and interpretation / conclusion and the assessment technique of quotes from primary sources. Under the category of "Resources," I found I needed to add "How Resources Used" to code the extensive and varied use of resources in the classroom. I added the whole categories of "Student Work" and "Empathy to Action" to capture ideas and activities that I saw during the observations. Finally, I added "Challenges with Using Technology" because I saw how many technology issues the teachers had to confront, even though they were willing and enthusiastic about integrating the use of technology into their instruction.

Although I added numerous categories while I was coding, I did not go back and re-code any text because first, I did not rely on frequency analysis of my coded text to indicate the strength of a pattern and second, I started a new code as soon as I noticed an occurrence that was strong enough to warrant a new code. I, therefore, have confidence that my coding framework enabled me to capture the major ideas.

Other ideas in my coding framework received few or no hits. I coded limited or no text into these categories, indicating that the code name was inappropriate and the

idea was captured in another, more appropriately named category, or that the idea

was not present in sufficient strength to warrant coding. The inappropriately named

codes that I discovered were all located under the "How Used by Students" category:

Sources Located on Own, Sources Provided by Librarian, and Sources Provided by

Teacher. Ideas that were not present in sufficient strength to be included in Results

were Disciplinary Skills, Knowledge Needed for Empathy, Skills Needed for Empathy,

almost the entire category of Inquiry, two methods of delivery (Active Investigation

and Problem Solving), and Organization and Access to Resources by the Classroom

Teacher. See Appendix E for the full Coding Framework, with the added categories

denoted by *Italics* and categories not used denoted by [brackets].

One final consideration that I made in my coding framework decisions was to

look carefully at the text coded under "Historical Contextualization," a subcategory of

"Historical Empathy." I wondered if I had coded text into this category that referred to

historical contextualization, but had nothing to do with empathy. I found that the text

was difficult to differentiate and that contextualization is usually delivered by teachers

rather than by student responses. I found that teachers delivered such a blend of

contextualization addressing knowledge and contextualization addressing empathy

that it was not beneficial to spend time categorizing, but rather time on uncovering

the nuances and patterns underlying the categorization.

STEP TWO: CODING OF TEXT

Although lines from the text were coded into the major category they

represented, some passages were coded into more than one category, especially when

the flow of classroom discourse moved back and forth between one theme and another. Sometimes it was important to differentiate, and sometimes to combine ideas. For example, both the "how used by students" and the "how used by teachers" categories have a subcategory of drawing conclusions. I coded interactive dialogue between students and teachers that illustrated "drawing conclusions" under both teacher and student categories. During my analysis, I looked both at how teachers facilitated drawing conclusions and at how students initiated conclusions on their own. I also looked at the combination of student and teacher "drawing conclusions" to ensure a broad picture of that thinking skill in classrooms.

One area of double coding was the coding I did for type of resource used. I coded the ideas for their main category and additionally coded for primary, secondary or historical fiction text. Through that technique, I was able to compare the types of activities and thinking that were generated as a result of reading primary sources as opposed to reading secondary sources. I kept in mind two cautions, however, about the classification of sources. Some texts used by the students (particularly Takaki and Zinn) are mixtures of primary quotations and secondary explanations/interpretations. I categorized those sources as both primary and secondary. The second caution that I had to keep in mind was that it was not always easy, or even possible, to identify the source that had prompted certain responses. Sometimes the teacher would ask where the student had found the information, but usually it was left unsaid. The effect of using sources is cumulative. By the end of the unit, even the students themselves

could probably not have been able to identify the source of their statement of understanding.

I noticed that, even though my coding was spread out over a number of days, I started to see certain patterns and trends. I think that my later coding was probably influenced by the constructs I was developing. That is a positive thing because coding became a process of validating and refining my constructs. That is a negative thing because I might have tended to code more readily into some constructs rather than others.

Potential validity-threatening actions in coding were overcome when I reviewed my coded text during the analysis phase of my coding process.

STEP THREE: ANALYSIS OF CODING

Although I used frequency analysis to some extent to highlight areas that were worthy of further exploration, I used great care to base my analysis and interpretation not on the number of times something occurred, but on the way in which it occurred. The frequency analysis led me to look at particular ideas in context. In so doing, I detected not only the presence of patterns but the contextual differences that made the patterns interesting.

For example, I noticed that Ms. SS used questioning as a predominant method of delivery and a framework for her teaching. If I just counted the percentage of class time in which the teacher was asking questions, I would simply verify what I already knew from observing the class. Instead, I needed to analyze the questioning to

understand how and when she used questions, what type of thinking they prompted in students, and what types of questions were associated with what type of resources.

I turned to the literature to find a model for analyzing teacher questioning. I decided not to use Bloom's Taxonomy (even the new Bloom's by Krathwohl) because I was not as interested in the level of thinking as the type of thinking generated by the questions. The type of thinking is more closely aligned with empathy and my research questions.

Several articles in the literature referred to the Gallagher and Aschner Structure of Intellect model for assessing teacher and student questioning, published in 1963. This model was designed to categorize the questioning by teachers (and students) into five types:

- Routine

- Cognitive Memory

- Convergent Thinking

- Divergent Thinking

- Evaluative Thinking

Questions are assessed under this model by their alignment with cognitive constructs. I was also concerned with the development of empathy through teacher questioning; therefore, I added to the above rubric the criteria for cognitive and emotive empathy. In addition, I looked at the context of the questions – were they in association with a primary source, a secondary source, a source that mixes primary and secondary, or historical fiction? In the Results section, I will present a chart of my

findings about questioning which shows interesting associations between types of

questions, empathy, and the types of sources used.

I performed numerous other frequency analyses as a first step in my analysis

process. I looked at student and teacher use of resources; all of the aspects of

historical empathy, both cognitive and emotive, by type of source used; and the

characteristics of historical empathy that were most predominant in the

teacher/student discourse. Every time that a frequency analysis signaled an

interesting relationship, I did a careful analysis of the coded text to determine the

strength and nature of that relationship. Furthermore, I checked my initial

interpretations against my field notes and literature review to check that they were in

line with expected results. If my evidence indicated an idea different from the

literature of the field, I re-examined it carefully and sought additional evidence in my

data to confirm or refute the finding.

The results and interpretations from my analyses are presented in the next

section of this chapter. In Chapter 3, I suggested a framework of propositions about

what I expected to find in the research. I modified the categories of the framework

slightly after I had collected my data (e.g., adding secondary sources because their use

was integral to the use of primary sources and historical fiction, and focusing on a

broader range of teaching strategies than just analysis and processing of the sources)

(see the modified framework in Table 8: Thematic Categories for Propositions earlier

in this chapter). I have analyzed and interpreted the results of my research using those

thematic categories as the organizing framework. Four of the categories in the

framework address my first research question about the use of sources in the teaching of historical empathy: nature of sources; integration of resources into instruction; teaching strategies; and roles of librarian and classroom teachers. The fifth category (development of historical empathy) directly applies to the second research question about the impact of teaching with primary sources and historical fiction on empathy.

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The story of this case study is a highly personal narrative of two classroom teachers, a school librarian, and twenty students who grappled with primary-source slave narratives, secondary-source contextualization, and historical fiction in order to understand, and ultimately develop empathy for, those who lived during a particular time in American society. Although a case study does not lend itself to generalization beyond the specific case to encompass all use of primary sources and historical fiction, all teaching focused on developing cognitive and emotive historical empathy, or all school librarianship, the results and interpretations offered here have interesting implications for reflection, further study, and future action. I will discuss these implications in Chapter 5.

The results discussed below are qualitative in nature. I used some quantitative measures like frequency counts as triggers for further analysis, but I did not assume that numbers could tell the story with the detail and integrity that these teachers and students deserve. One caution, when telling a story through a qualitative lens, is remembering that the person holding the lens has made choices about focus, perspective, importance, and meaning. I certainly made those choices; however, I

consistently checked my understanding with the literature in the field, I verified

emerging trends and patterns by searching for additional evidence and by looking for

alternative explanations, and I checked class observations against field notes and

interviews.

NATURE OF PRIMARY SOURCES, SECONDARY SOURCES, AND HISTORICAL FICTION

The results about the nature of sources used during the unit address the first

research question about the use of primary sources and historical fiction during

historical inquiry. The results include data and interpretations about the use of

secondary sources as well, because their use impacted the use of both primary sources

and historical fiction.

Results

The selection of resources for classroom instruction is a critical piece of

instructional design. Mr. Eng and Ms. SS shared their collaborative process in

determining the sources for the Slave Narrative unit and the underlying reasons for

their selections. Mr. Eng tries to achieve two types of balance – perspectives and

format. He uses both historical fiction and primary sources, and tries to pick what fits

the themes of the unit best. He never consciously chooses books because they are

primary sources, but he recognizes their value for bringing alive the historical situation:

"It's better for young people, older people even, all of us to understand what actually

happened through the eyes of the people who were actually living it or doing it" (Mr.

Eng, post-observation interview). He was less enamored of the value of historical

fiction for substantive learning about the time period: "Whereas, the novels that

these kids may have taken out, are fiction and they're fun little joy rides and you can say, 'Ooh, this is realistic, this could have happened, this could be me or this could be my friend'" (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview). Mr. Eng also is careful to choose different genres (poetry, short stories, novels, nonfiction) and formats (music, videos) to accommodate the varied learning styles in his class.

Both Mr. Eng and Ms. SS agreed that Frederick Douglass was not the only perspective on slavery that they wanted their students to encounter. As a result, they chose two additional slave narrative texts as well as *The Trials of Phillis Wheatley* by Henry Louis Gates, Jr. The Wheatley book was chosen specifically because it could be used to engender class conversation on Thomas Jefferson's views on equality.

Ms. SS chose secondary texts to accompany the primary-source texts in order to provide different points of view and "to provide a framework to better understand an experience" (Ms. SS, post-observation interview). Ms. SS expressed caution about using secondary textbooks because they have unreliable information: "Secondary texts may be easier to understand, but they are often based on myths. You can use them, but you have to help the students see the myths" (Ms. SS, pre-observation interview).

Instead of a textbook, Ms. SS chose two secondary source texts written by professors rather than generic textbook authors. The texts she chose have extensive embedding of primary sources throughout the text. One, the Ronald Takaki text entitled *A Different Mirror*, she chose because it presented a balanced perspective.

The other, *A People's History of the United States* by Howard Zinn, she selected because it provided a model for argument and debates.

Although Ms. SS did not use historical fiction in her class for this unit, she offered a powerful testimonial to the value of historical fiction to create historical understanding, using as an example a book they had previously read, *Moll Flanders*: "Students read *Moll Flanders*, and I was able to use that text to exemplify the American dream. . . .Historical fiction creates a picture in their minds – they learn better and remember better" (Ms. SS, post-observation interview).

Two additional types of primary sources were used in the social studies classroom – photographs and a political cartoon. Both led to interesting discourse in the classroom, which will be explained later in this section.

The librarian's philosophy about the value of both primary sources and secondary sources was similar to the two classroom teachers. She felt that primary sources made history "real and interesting and accessible" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview). At the same time, she acknowledged that students often need to start with secondary sources to gather contextual information: "You need the background knowledge before you understand the significance of the document you're looking at" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview).

The librarian's only involvement in selecting or suggesting resources for this unit was an opportunity to show the students the slave narratives on the Library of Congress website. The time allocated by the English teacher for this activity was very short (about half an hour), but Ms. Lib was able to demonstrate how to access specific

areas of the Library of Congress collection through the links provided on the class page she had set up on the school library website, and the students had time to investigate the links and listen to a portion of a recorded slave narrative.

Ms. Lib chose the Library of Congress collections strategically because so many collections were already assembled, especially on slave narratives. Even though she knew that finding additional primary-source information was not a big part of the unit, she wanted to supplement the unit with "some examples so that they could have some inspiration to go into what they were doing" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview). Additionally, she chose to feature digital resources because she recognized that students were not inclined to use books: "Books are sometimes a hard sell when they're doing a project. They want what's easy and right in front of them" (Ms. Lib Post-Interview).

An analysis of the resources that students cited in their slave narrative project bibliographies shows that students followed Ms. Lib's predictions about limited use of books and high use of the digital environment precisely. Of the 48 resources cited, 35 were digital and the remaining 13 were books, packets, and the "Roots" video assigned by the teachers as a part of classroom instruction (for example, *The Classic Slave Narratives*). A further examination of the digital citations shows a mix of authoritative sites (e.g., Library of Congress and PBS) and commercial sites (e.g., a site advertising vacations in Virginia).

Interpretation

I made two propositions about the nature of resources selected by teachers, both of which revolved around perspective:

- Teachers tend to use primary sources to illustrate one point of view/perspective rather than to represent multiple perspectives.

- The historical novel chosen to accompany the unit coheres narratively around the perspective of the main point of view.

The data show that, although both propositions are confirmed for this unit, they are too simplistic to capture the actual use of primary and secondary sources. The slave narratives were, indeed, written entirely from the slave point of view; however, Ms. SS expressly chose her secondary texts to surround the primary texts with multiple perspectives. Even the use of primary sources was more nuanced as a result, because the Takaki text used quotations from Thomas Jefferson's many correspondences to show the conflicts in point of view within Jefferson himself.

The historical novel, "Roots," was viewed rather than read, but it did present the situation from Kunta Kinte's perspective. That one-sided perspective, however, was actively balanced in the social studies classroom through instruction and conversation about multiple perspectives. Even in the English classroom, historical contextualization was heavily emphasized.

The teachers do not take their selection of resources lightly. Although they can easily cite the positive reasons for using primary sources, they recognize that primary sources are difficult to read and that they are not comprehensible without historical

context. Therefore, the librarian may not be answering the teachers' real needs if she

provides access to primary sources without any historical context.

Access issues abound in the setting of Jones High School. Students had limited

access to the computer lab and very limited time to go to the school library. Their

search time for digital resources was probably severely limited (either because of

limited access or limited interest). Most students did not take advantage of the links

provided on the library website, perhaps because the Library of Congress seemed to

be marginalized in importance by the small amount of time given to students to

explore it and by the lack of follow-up by the classroom teacher or librarian. Perhaps

the students' passive resistance demonstrates that providing <u>access</u> to resources

without <u>integration</u> into classroom instruction has a haphazard effect at best.

Questions are raised about the effectiveness of a library that is simply a portal

or marketplace of resources as opposed to a library that is a learning center, integral to

classroom learning. Questions are also raised about the necessity for the librarian to

shift from resource provider to curriculum planner and teacher of both teachers and

students.

INTEGRATION OF RESOURCES INTO INSTRUCTION

Analysis and interpretation of data about the integration of resources into

instruction during this case study address the first research question about the use of

primary sources and historical fiction. As in the previous category on the nature of

resources, the analysis and interpretation in this section include data about the

integration of secondary sources.

Results

For the slave narrative unit, primary sources formed the backbone of instruction in the English classroom. Mr. Eng assigned the students ten pages a night and they progressed through the text steadily. At least a part of almost every class was dedicated to discourse about the primary source being read at the time. Students were expected to demonstrate their progress by showing their margin notes and annotations and participating in deconstructing and analyzing the meaning in class. Although the "Roots" video was shown outside of class, Mr. Eng devoted about half of one class period to the video *Unchained Memories*, a documentary with historical photographs of slaves and their situations and video of actual slaves recounting their experiences. The decision about when to use this additional primary source did not seem to be governed by a particular instructional arc, but rather by Mr. Eng's desire to appeal to all types of learners and provide a mixture of experiences.

The backbone of the social studies classroom was a blend of primary and secondary sources. On some days, students responded to their reading of one of the primary-source texts; on other days, the period was spent digesting the facts and background information from a secondary-source packet handed out by Ms. SS. Many of the days involved discussing the blended primary and secondary source, *A Different Mirror*.

Ms. SS used a definite organizational scheme for the presentation of information – chronological order. On a few occasions, Ms. SS stopped the chronological progression to discuss a particular theme (e.g., women's rights), but

generally the context was chronological. This organization was very useful to

demonstrate to students how the situation and people changed over time. For

example, during the class's analysis of Thomas Jefferson's philosophy toward race and

attitude toward slavery, Ms. SS noticed that students were ignoring the dates of the

various quotes that were used. By cautioning students to look at the dates, she led

them to understand how Jefferson's views about slavery changed from moral

opposition to more pragmatic acceptance, as can be seen in the following excerpt

from class on December 8, 2010:

> *Ms. SS: We're looking at time and as America expands, Jefferson's views on slavery are changing. What does he believe at the beginning of the 1780's and then what does he believe by the time of the Louisiana Purchase?*
> *Student: In the beginning, I think he felt guilty about slavery even though he owned them, but towards the end he thought it [slavery] was important to develop the nation and make it virtuous.*
> *Ms. SS: Exactly. Are you guys clear why you have to look at dates? Because you need to understand why his views were changing and what he believed about expansion. And how it was going to make America a better nation.*

 Under Ms. SS's guidance, the students looked again at the Jefferson quotations

in the Takaki text and assigned dates to each. Once students understood the

chronological sequence of Jefferson's statements, Ms. SS then provided economic and

social context for Jefferson's changed and "conflicted" heart.

Each teacher recognized the importance of historical contextualizaton for

analysis and comprehension of primary sources. In the English classroom, Mr. Eng

often cautioned students to integrate the effect of historical events on the characters

they were developing for their slave narrative projects. Secondary sources were not

used in the English classroom, and students were expected to bring their knowledge of

historical context from social studies class to English. In the social studies classroom,

Ms. SS took primary responsibility for building the historical-contextualization

knowledge of the students, but she did not sequence her instruction rigidly in a

secondary-to-primary order. Aided by the mix of primary and secondary text in Takaki,

Ms. SS led the students through a chronological trajectory with the following recursive

pattern: contextualization of facts, issues, and events through lecture and secondary

source readings; deeper probing of attitudes and impacts by analyzing primary source

quotations (or occasionally visual formats); formation of conclusions through guided

discussion.

In the social studies classroom, primary sources were always used within an

historical context to deepen understanding. Although both the librarian and Ms. SS

mentioned the value of starting a unit with a primary source to provoke shock or

surprise, this was not a practice that was followed. On one occasion, Ms. SS

distributed photographs of artifacts from slavery days for the students to analyze. On

their surface, the photos provided an authentic glimpse of life on a plantation.

Through Ms. SS's carefully structured questioning, however, students were led to form

conclusions about the lives of slaves and slave owners and the "peculiar institution" of

slavery. One example of Ms. SS's line of questioning about the photograph of a tea

caddy is particularly illuminating. She asks a student to describe the photograph and

read the description on the back. Then she uses a series of questions to lead to a

conclusion about the reason for people to own slaves (student responses have been

omitted) (Social Studies, December 6, 2010):

Ms. SS: If a family owned that product, what would you say about that family?

Ms. SS: What impact would you say that slaves had on their lives or what roles did slaves have on their family?

Ms. SS: What types of people owned slaves?

Ms. SS: In order to be a plantation owner, you had to be something else as well.

Ms. SS: You had to be really rich. But what does rich mean?

Ms. SS: So then, what was the relationship for those people and their slaves? Did slaves add to the status or did they take away from the status?

Ms. SS: So in order to be a rich family and have status, you had to basically not only have these accoutrements, you had to have slaves as well. So what I'm trying to get you guys to see is that slaves are integral to not only farming your crops but elevating your status and are used as status symbols in this time period as well.

The two teachers and the librarian identified challenges in using primary

sources during their interviews. Those challenges are outlined in Table 11:

Challenges in Using Primary Sources		
Librarian	Social Studies Teacher	English Teacher
Student Difficulties: • Students do not know what a document is • Students do not see any significance to primary sources • Students do not have the context needed to understand primary sources	**Student Difficulties:** • Students struggle with the language and vocabulary of primary sources • Students have difficulty reading primary sources for meaning • Students who are struggling readers cannot make meaning from primary sources • Students do not have historical context	**Student Difficulties:** • Students have difficulty with the language and vocabulary of primary sources • Students have a lack of historical context • Students have difficulty reading primary sources for meaning • Struggling readers have difficulty with primary sources
Librarian Difficulties: • Librarian does not know how teachers find and select primary sources • Librarian does not get	**Teacher Difficulties:** • Teacher has difficulty selecting appropriate primary sources and finding small excerpts that convey the	**Teacher Difficulties:** • Teacher does not have the time necessary to teach with primary sources

Challenges in Using Primary Sources		
Librarian	**Social Studies Teacher**	**English Teacher**
to teach the finding and use of primary sources • Librarian has to slip in access to primary sources by showing teachers the ones she has discovered and hoping they share with students	meaning • Primary sources are not available for all eras • Primary sources take time to analyze and there is a lack of time	

Table 11. Challenges in Using Primary Sources

Many of the challenges, especially the student difficulties, are addressed by the teaching strategies employed in both the social studies and English classrooms. Those strategies are described in detail later in this chapter.

Historical fiction during this unit, the "Roots" video, was not integral to the daily instruction in either social studies or English, but its value for providing human context to slavery, especially for certain types of learners, was recognized by Mr. Eng. He also stressed to the students that they must build real historical context into their narratives. He shared his reasoning about the balance of historical context through primary sources and historical fiction in his post-observation interview:

> *Researcher: Do your kids tend to draw more from a* "Roots" *approach or from the slave narratives, or is it both?*
> *Mr. Eng: Well, that goes to the different types of learners. You'll find that the visual learners, obviously, they took 95% from* "Roots." *That's why I forced them to put historical context in there.*
> *But you can't just say the Haitian revolution. Because it's like, when did it affect your character? It would be like the daughter [of a white slave owner] runs to the father and says, "Oh, this girl stole the newspaper." They had just been talking about the Haitian revolution. This nine-year-old girl is trying to get her servants in trouble and so she goes to her mother and father and says, "The paper you had on the floor, on the table just a minute ago, so and so stole it."*

To bring to the one slave who knows how to read, so they can be educated in what was going on.

Interpretation

The propositions with which I began my research in this category about the integration of resources were:

- Different types of primary sources are used at different phases of inquiry.

- Primary sources are used as individual pieces of information, but teachers rarely ask students to construct broader understanding or a line of argument with primary sources as evidence.

On its face, this unit seems to have no relationship to the different phases of inquiry mentioned in Proposition 1. Students were not pursuing inquiry investigations independently, and an inquiry process was not evident in class discussions. Ms. SS organized her curriculum chronologically, while Mr. Eng organized his by resource, moving through analysis of the three slave narratives section by section as the students read them. The librarian had limited contact with the teachers and students and only a brief opportunity to show the Library of Congress slave-narrative resources, with no opportunity to teach inquiry skills.

Upon closer examination, however, the unit takes on the characteristics of heavily scaffolded inquiry at its most vibrant and recursive. The teachers, especially Ms. SS, drove their class discussions through questioning. Students were led through the process of building conceptual and specific knowledge to answer the questions. More importantly, they were prompted to form conclusions based on the evidence they discovered, often in the form of quotations from historical figures. Students and

teachers shared the responsibility for expressing their conclusions and reflecting on the implications for current-day American society. The inquiry cycle was completed in mini-cycles throughout the unit embedded in Ms. SS's chronological approach.

With that understanding of multiple inquiry cycles embedded in the curriculum of the social studies classroom, then the use of primary sources at certain phases of inquiry can be examined. In social studies, generally, the first two phases of inquiry, Connect and Wonder, were handled by the teacher.   Background information was provided in didactic instructional moments by the teacher or through the reading of secondary sources; questions to drive the learning were formed by the teacher. Primary sources were used throughout the unit, but particularly during the Investigate and Construct phases of inquiry, when students were expected to gather and analyze specific quotations to use as evidence in drawing conclusions. The type of primary source used did not depend on the phase of inquiry, but on the type of discussion to be engendered. For example, quotations were particularly valuable for defining specific attitudes and perspectives of individual people. Photographs were used to provoke a discussion beyond specific instances to broader ideas and themes.

My prediction that primary sources were used as individual pieces of evidence rather than windows into broader understanding was not confirmed in this slave narrative unit.   Primary sources were always used in historical context to push the level of understanding about the human side of history. The strong connection between primary sources and the development of historical empathy will be discussed later in this chapter.

Because the effective use of primary sources is so dependent on historical context and because inquiry is recursively and tightly controlled by the classroom teacher, the limited use of the library and digital resources provided by the library makes sense from the classroom teacher's perspective. Ms. SS and Mr. Eng were always conscious of limited time; they simply had no time for students to do independent investigations. The teachers needed primary sources at their fingertips at the point of need (usually in the middle of a class period). The interruption in thinking and teaching caused by a period-long trip to the library was not worth enough in terms of student learning for the teachers to arrange it. The teachers' perspective provides important implications for developing library instruction and services, as well as virtual access to resources.

TEACHING STRATEGIES AND STUDENT SKILL DEVELOPMENT WITH PRIMARY SOURCES, SECONDARY SOURCES, AND HISTORICAL FICTION

Data about the teaching strategies used by the teachers and librarian in this case study provide further evidence about the first research question on use of different types of resources. In addition, however, the data offer confirmation of the relationship between use of resources and historical empathy. Fuller analysis of that relationship is included in the historical empathy section following this section.

Results

The teaching strategies that the classroom teachers used during the slave

narrative unit were largely formed by the sources that they used. The English teacher

and the social studies teacher approached the task of helping students to find meaning

in the complex primary-source text in very different fashion. Mr. Eng followed a

process of starting with the text, deconstructing the text with the students to figure

out the meaning, and then talking about the historical context that the text provided.

Ms. SS followed a process of providing historical context and using that context in an

analysis process with students to find the historical meaning.

Two examples will illustrate their opposite approaches. In English, at one point

in their discussion of *The Life of Frederick Douglass*, Mr. Eng calls the students'

attention to the rhetoric as a way of understanding the meaning of the text (English,

December 9, 2010):

> *Mr. Eng: It has to do with critical reading. You've got to comprehend.*
> *That goes back to our understanding how rhetoric is used in action. So what I'd*
> *like to do, ladies and gentlemen, is look at the word "fortunate" and see to who*
> *is Garrison attributing this word "fortunate." Because it's not to Douglass. He's*
> *not saying that Douglass is fortunate. So let's re-read that paragraph and*
> *address that.*

Ms. SS turns to what the students know about the historical context to help

them understand a quotation from Thomas Jefferson about slavery: "The whole

commerce between master and slave is a perpetual exercise of the most boisterous

passions, the most unremitting despotism on the one part, and degrading submissions

on the other" (Tataki, 2008, p. 63). She conducts a guided discussion on Thomas

Jefferson's views on the institution of slavery by interpreting the words of the text

based on historical context (Social Studies, December 8, 2010):

> *Ms. SS: I want to go back to the first line in this quote. There are some key words that we need to define. What does he mean by passions? Does he mean like someone yelling out or exclaiming? Or is he talking about something in particular? And I ask you guys, a clue to this is what we learned about in Mary Prince about how slavery degrades both owner and slave. Because what does it turn owners into? Savages, right? So the passions they're referring to as the acts of violence that are committed against slaves, right?*

Vocabulary was seen as a significant challenge for students in reading primary

sources, but Mr. Eng and Ms. SS turned "vocabulary conversations" into strong

moments of analysis and interpretation. They used vocabulary as a springboard for

the skills of critical reading, deconstruction of text, questioning the text, selection of

main ideas, and finding hidden or ironic meanings. Ms. SS uses vocabulary analysis to

provide a bridge to empathetic thinking, as is demonstrated later in the same lesson

cited above (Social Studies, December 8, 2010):

> *Ms. SS: Degrading. What about degrading?*
> *Student: When you put somebody down.*
> *Student: Like when you make somebody feel like an object.*
> *Ms. SS: Yeah, ok. What does this mean? What are some of the unintended consequences that they're teaching the children?*
> *Student: How to be savages.*
> *Student: Slavery is ok and should be passed on.*
> *Student: They're learning violence.*
> *Ms. SS: They're learning how to just give vent to their rage. Like whatever they're feeling, they're learning how to take it out on anyone. And you have the right and the power because this is your property. And the idea of chattel slavery degrades human beings. Because you're no longer human, right? You're property.*

One of the most effective teaching strategies employed by Ms. SS was

questioning. Most of her lessons were driven by questions, and she stated to her

students that she was not so interested that they learn the "what," but that they

understood the "why" of history. In order to analyze her questioning techniques, I

turned to the literature to find a research-based rubric or framework. Edwards and

Bowman (1996) used the Structure of Intellect Model developed by Gallagher and

Aschner in 1963 to design a framework for categorizing cognitive questions. All but

the first of these categories were appropriate for classifying the types of cognitive

questions asked by Ms. SS. The categories and descriptions are taken directly from

Edwards and Bowman (1996, p. 13-14):

- Routine: class management, communication of attitude, humor

- Cognitive Memory: simple recall, recognition of facts

- Convergent Thinking: analysis, integration of data

- Divergent Thinking: elaboration, implication, synthesis

- Evaluative Thinking: matters of judgment, value, agreement

Questions asked by Ms. SS were analyzed by type and by the type of source

being used at that point in the instruction. The table below (see Table 12) provides a

glimpse into the use of questioning by Ms. SS and how her questions differed by type

of source. The column labeled "Prim/Sec" refers to the Takaki and Zinn sources that

are a balance of primary and secondary within one source.

Analysis of Teacher Questioning					
Type of Question	% of Total Questions	% of Type Related to Primary	% of Type Related to Secondary	% of Type Related to Prim/Sec	% of Type Related to Hist. Fiction
Cognitive Memory	16%	13%	83%	4%	4%
Convergent	60%	15%	37%	47%	13%
Divergent	13%	47%	26%	26%	16%
Evaluative	11%	41%	24%	29%	6%

Table 12. Analysis of Teacher Questioning

This analysis confirms my observation that Ms. SS used questioning mainly for convergent thinking, to help students analyze the historical evidence they found in both primary and secondary sources and come to an in-depth understanding of the trends and patterns that they saw. Occasionally, students were asked to remember specific facts, to think about the implications, or to evaluate or assign value. The analysis also confirms my speculation that secondary sources are highly aligned with cognitive memory activities, while primary sources are most closely aligned with divergent and evaluative thinking. Convergent thinking seems to be most closely related to the use of secondary sources, until an assessment of the context of the questions within each class period shows that the preponderance of questions asked about the Takaki and Zinn readings (the column labeled Prim/Sec) were related to the primary sources within those texts. Later in this chapter, I will extend this question analysis to show the relationship between types of questions, types of sources, and cognitive and emotive empathy.

Many of the skills taught by Ms. SS and Mr. Eng were literacy-related because both teachers focused on making meaning from complex text. Both teachers also

focused, however, on the critical thinking/inquiry skills of analyzing perspective and point-of-view, sourcing, and drawing conclusions. The teaching of these skills was embedded in the classroom discussion when students were expected to perform the skill with guidance. At no time during the three weeks of the slave narrative unit were these three skills and their underlying processes explicitly taught.

Just as primary-source texts enabled the teachers to deepen understanding of content through vocabulary exploration and critical reading, so did primary sources lead to development of critical thinking skills. Ms. SS employed a process of asking students to select quotes that represented the main ideas from a particular section of a primary source text and then guiding the students beyond comprehension of the literal meaning to conclusions about the deeper meaning. The results of that teaching technique can be seen in this example from class discussion about *The History of Mary Prince* on December 1, 2010:

> *Ms. SS: What is the nature of slavery in the West Indies?*
> *Student: We have a quote on page 26 that says, "Stones and timber were the best things in it: they weren't so hard as the hearts of the owners." And that quote basically captures the mindsets of the owners and their cruelty toward the slaves. And it shows us that the slaves weren't living in the best of conditions, where it was like that doing their work and the things that they had to work with were better than the people that they were around (the owners).*
> *Ms. SS: So can we just draw a conclusion from what our two friends were saying earlier? Slavery is cruel. The perpetual exercise of slavery, meaning, holding someone in bondage and weakening their will, creates an environment where, can someone finish that?*
> *Student: That's full of fear.*
> *Ms. SS: Full of fear.*
> *Student: I was going to say also that slavery was a form of bestialization, where it was like, they – the owners – often related their slaves to cattle or animals that needed to be trained.*

Another important skill that was fostered and reinforced almost daily in both

classrooms was recognition of multiple perspectives and point of view. Mr. Eng stated,

in his post-observation interview, that he wanted his students to understand that

humanity is diverse, complex, and sometimes conflicted and that even an issue like

slavery had multiple perspectives (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview):

> *I wanted them to understand the diverse definitions of humanity. How people saw humanity and how conflicted some of the people that were making the policy, creating the documents, creating this country, how they were confused or conflicted between knowing what was right and either political gains or personal gains.*

> *I also wanted them to understand both sides, that there was African or Black complicity in the whole slave trade. It wasn't just a one-way street. And also there were benevolent whites.*

Ms. SS tied her focus on teaching multiple perspectives to the development of

empathy, which is explained more fully in the following section (Ms. SS, post-

observation interview):

> *I really wanted them to understand the differences between a male slave's life, a female slave's life, the different types of work they would find on different plantations. Ultimately I wanted them to realize that there are many different experiences that slaves had.*

> *But then again, I also wanted them to really understand slave owners. And to understand the contradictions the slave owners felt, but that the economic motive far outweighed the moral motives. I wanted them to empathize with the slave owners, too, because it's so easy to empathize with the slaves.*

In addition to the critical thinking skills of drawing conclusions and analyzing

multiple perspectives, the teachers emphasized the skill of sourcing. In his research on

the difference between historians and history students, Sam Wineburg noted that

students are quite different from historians in the important area of considering the

source of the information in the analysis process. Wineburg found that historians start with the author and interpret the text from that perspective, so that what is said cannot be separated from who said it (Wineburg, 2001, p. 76-77). Students, on the other hand, start with the text and find the authority of the words through the text, rather than through the author (p. 76).

Both Mr. Eng and Ms. SS taught students to analyze primary-source text by looking at the words first and then inferring the characteristics of the author, confirming the research of Wineburg. When students were reading and making sense of Wm Lloyd Garrison's Preface to *Narrative of the Life of Frederick Douglass*, Mr. Eng asked the students, "What kind of person can we surmise that William Garrison is? The man who's writing this, the man who's writing the preface. What can we surmise from this? What can we infer about all these words he's using for white, black, green or yellow?" (English, December 7, 2010). Ms. SS spent the entire social studies block on December 8, 2010, helping the class to analyze quotes from Thomas Jefferson to determine his character, political philosophy, and moral and pragmatic stance on slavery. By the conflicting nature of the quotes, Ms. SS was able to demonstrate the conflicted nature of Jefferson's mind in his attitude toward slavery.

Interpretation

I started my research with two propositions about the teaching of teachers and librarians during historical inquiry:

- Teachers and librarians rarely teach the skills of analysis and critical thinking that students need to interpret primary sources beyond simply "comprehending" the text.

- Conversation enables students to gain insights into the meaning of primary sources and historical novels and to develop empathy.

The results from my research did not support my first proposition. Although the librarian was totally left out of the teaching picture of the slave narrative unit, the two classroom teachers spent most of their instructional time facilitating the development of analysis and critical thinking skills. This focus was greatly enhanced by the fact that the main texts for the unit were primary sources. The development of every skill, from decoding vocabulary words to drawing conclusions, benefited from the complexity of the text and the in-depth analyses required to make meaning from the text. Although the two teachers approached the text from different starting points (Mr. Eng from a rhetorical stance; Ms. SS from an historical contextualization stance), both enabled students to develop deep understandings of the issues and perspectives surrounding slavery in America.

My second proposition, about the enabling power of classroom conversation, was confirmed every day in the classroom. Both teachers used an interactive methodology and their expectations for the level of student response were high. Students were engaged and were able to make connections from one class to another, as well as from former readings to the current texts. The conversation tended to be a dialogue between teacher and students, rather than a true conversation in which

students were responding to each other. Perhaps the sophistication of primary-source texts resulted in a tentativeness on the part of students, so that they actively sought affirmation from the teacher after a response and they were generally unwilling to disagree with one another.

The most powerful interaction that I saw between types of texts and teaching strategies was in the realm of questioning. It was obvious from my first day in the classroom that Ms. SS used questions to drive student thinking. It also seemed obvious that most of the questions that Ms. SS asked required thinking beyond simple recall of facts. This was certainly confirmed by the question analysis. What was not obvious from the observations, although I suspected it, was the close alignment of the types of questions with the type of source. From my observations and analysis, I can say that primary sources are more likely than secondary sources to support critical thinking and conceptual understanding. That level of student thinking, however, cannot be achieved unless the primary sources are surrounded by historical context, so that the conclusions and implications drawn from the text are in consonance with the context of the times.

In addition, a high level of student thinking cannot be reached without careful scaffolding by the teacher. That scaffolding may be careful dissection of the text in English class or questioning and historical contextualization in social studies class, but the strategic, sustained focus on interpreting the texts with integrity and context is essential.

DEVELOPMENT OF HISTORICAL EMPATHY

Although I did not mention my second research question about the development of historical empathy to the teachers until the post-observation interviews, I heard a great deal of confluence in their definitions. I also observed countless instances of all the nuances of both cognitive and emotive empathy throughout my three weeks of observation. To Ms. SS, historical empathy is "when kids are able to put themselves into the shoes, quote, unquote, of the multiple characters whether they be defined as good characters or bad characters. And be able to make decisions about that era through that person's experience" (Ms. SS, post-observation interview).

To Mr. Eng, a person who has empathy is defined as "someone who has a greater understanding of what life was at a particular time. And that comes from, I think, all the senses. I think you have to see it, you have to hear it, you have to imagine it" (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview). The librarian offered a definition similar to those of the social studies and English teachers: "Historical empathy? I would think that it would have a lot to do with not just learning facts and dates, but really understanding the people and the events and feeling what they were feeling and being able to put yourself in their shoes" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview).

Though my interest in empathy was not revealed until the observations were complete, the social studies teacher, in fact, structured her whole slavery unit around building historical understanding through cognitive and emotive empathy, although

she certainly did not use that terminology with her students. In her introduction to

the unit on December 1, 2010, she explained the framework for the unit:

> *So we're looking at slave narratives so we can learn how to analyze and use them as a historical source. And then we're going to learn to interpret autobiographical sources and create authentic conclusions and it's gonna help us to build a foundation in the history and practice of slavery. Major themes we are going to be covering are human rights, the human condition and community organization. Now what I mean by the human condition is basically psychological, emotional, physical factors that go into being a slave master and a slave.*

Both Mr. Eng and Ms. SS expressed clear personal understanding about why it

is important to develop empathy. Mr. Eng recognized the power of empathy with

historical agents to help students understand themselves: "It goes back to empathy as

well. You can get a better perspective of who you are if you can understand who they

are" (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview). Ms. SS wanted students to understand the

human side of history and their own connection to the past: "I don't try to build an 'us

vs. them' mentality. I want students to understand how things happen, why people

choose to do what they do, how people in history have made informed choices based

on the context of their time" (Ms. SS, pre-observation interview).

In my research design, I defined two strands for historical empathy – cognitive

empathy, based on characteristics described by Barton and Levstik (2004) and emotive

empathy, based on an adaptation of Bryant and Clark (2006, p. 1044) that I developed.

The framework for cognitive empathy included five characteristics which Barton and

Levstik said were neither hierarchical nor mutually dependent. The Stripling emotive

empathy characteristics included two main attributes, but based on my classroom

observations and conversations with the teachers, I have added a third (Identification

with the roles of historical agents). The major characteristics of cognitive and emotive

empathy used in coding the classroom observations are listed below. For a fuller

description of each characteristic, see Appendix D.

Cognitive Empathy (from Barton & Levstik, 2004):

- Historical contextualization

- Multiplicity of historical perspectives

- Sense of otherness

- Shared normalcy

- Context connection to present

Emotive Empathy (Adapted from Bryant & Clark, 2006)

- Inferences about feelings based on historical evidence

- Understanding of feelings of historical agents

- Identification with roles of historical agents

The fostering of historical empathy permeated both the English and social

studies classrooms. Empathy was a regular part of almost every class. In the following

Results sections, I have included only a few examples of the myriad available in

numerous conversations and interactions that demonstrated cognitive and emotive

empathy.

Although Ms. SS said that there was no process for developing empathy, she

actually thought through and then verbalized an empathy-development process during

our post-observation interview:

- Begin looking at primary sources and understand their meaning

- Generate, create a conclusion about a particular perspective (look at the argument)

- Go back and look at the argument itself and assess whether it's a strong or weak argument and why

- Decide, if you were in that time period, why would you believe A, B, or C? Why would you support this or why wouldn't you support it?

Ms. SS incorporated the above steps throughout her teaching, so that the transition between historical knowledge and historical empathy was seamless. Students readily responded to prompts for both critical and empathetic thinking.

The following sections provide the results and interpretations of the data on cognitive empathy, emotive empathy, and the effect of teaching strategies and the use of resources on the development of empathy.

Results – Cognitive Empathy

Historical Contextualization: Ms. SS chose a non-controversial lens to contextualize the emotional issue of slavery – that of economics. Students were led to an empathetic understanding of the decisions that slave owners and politicians made to continue the institution of slavery because Ms. SS provided the contextualization that slaves were needed to make the economy, and the nation, thrive. Ms. SS explained her reasoning in the following excerpt from her post-observation interview:

> *You want to ask the kids, if you were living in this time period and you wanted to become a rich farmer, what methods would you use? How would you do so? And some of them become righteous and they say they wouldn't own slaves. And I'm just thinking, ok, what are the positives of having slaves and what are the negatives? And then, ultimately, you draw that out. Can you compete against slave labor? Can you profit as much, can you earn as much? And then*

they come to an understanding that, no, I guess you can't profit without slave labor because you'll always only just be getting by. And then that's a very important concept to understand, that slavery was an economic necessity, not only to farmers but to industrialization in the North. And when they begin to understand the impulses that drive certain decisions, I think that's when you develop historical empathy.

Ms. SS acknowledged the moral dimensions of slavery, but still enabled students to understand the context of the time, and therefore to develop cognitive empathy for those who were making decisions (Social Studies, December 8, 2010):

So in order to maintain that institution, in order to maintain slavery -- because everyone knew at the time that it was barbaric; everyone agreed that it was a heinous process and that also had a habit of tainting the master as well as the slave -- you have to create certain types of controls and belief systems in order to justify its use. And that's when it becomes the peculiar institution.

<u>Multiplicity of Historical Perspectives:</u> Multiple perspectives were actively encouraged by both Mr. Eng and Ms. SS. Mr. Eng encouraged the students to develop their slave narratives using several different voices. One student's final project included poems from a male and female slave and a journal entry from a female abolitionist. Excerpts from these pieces show the integration of historical context along with the multiple perspectives (Anonymous Student, December, 2010).

Female slave: *But the force of the whip leads us back to the field*
For us, women, we get abused and tortured
White men don't think we have pride or respect
Allowing full access to us
And how do I survive these dreadful days
Living without a soul; it's just our bodies doing the work
But our minds, our minds suffer; they suffer from reality

Male slave: *The past will never be changed*
Since only in my dreams can I re-unite once again with my
Family, my dearest mother and my brothers
Nothing but darkness; it's quiet except the cry of an innocent
A cry for help from brutal violence from the dark,

Where the master beats my fellow friend
His cry for help brought me back to the present
And yet, still dreaming of what the things may be
And how it feels to be happy and free

Female Abolitionist: Dear diary, now, at the age of fifty-one, I remember recalling how entrenched slavery was in the American society back in my early twenties. Such savage exploitation of people was all motivated by the ambition to become wealthy and successful. How can such a republic, which was founded upon the democratic principles of equality and John Locke's idea of natural rights allow such immorality and corruption???

Ms. SS also emphasized multiple perspectives and she often encouraged students to look at an issue from an alternative viewpoint. Her explanation about the whole organizing theme of the slavery unit shows her focus on multiple perspectives (Ms. SS, post-observation interview):

> The slavery unit's the first unit in which we really look at all sides of the picture and try to put ourselves in the mind of a slave owner and a mind of a plantation owner, mind of a slave catcher, mind of an abolitionist. To see how these different forces work out. And it does, after awhile, you're able, so when you get to an impending crisis, the road to the civil war, you get to an intense understanding of these, of this divided society based on who lives in which area because you know that if you're a slave owner you want these things and you need to have these things. And if you're in the North and you're an abolitionist then you want these things.

In the social studies class, students not only confronted multiple perspectives among those with different roles in society, but also within single individuals. The primary example of this conflicted perspective was Thomas Jefferson. Ms. SS spent more than a day examining with the class the many quotes of Jefferson that revealed his conflicted attitudes toward slavery. In fact, Ms. SS used Jefferson as an example of the conflict within the nation as a whole (Social Studies, December 8, 2010): "So he's torn between what he believes is the rights of man and what he believes is a sense of

justice yet between his need to own slaves and to produce crops, right? And this is the most telling part, 'And it is a moral reproach to us that they should have pleaded it so long in vain.' Everyone in America knows it's a black mark against them, their society, their country, to own slaves. That's their dilemma, that this is a country based on the foundation of liberty and yet they own slaves and maintain that institution."

Sense of Otherness: The sense of otherness described by Barton and Levstik involves first, recognizing that others are different in their thoughts and feelings and second, accepting those differences without judgment. I saw the sharpest "sense of otherness" when the issues being discussed were most relevant to the students' lives today. For example, most girls recognized that the role of women (especially slave women) during the 19th century was very different from the freedom of women today and I detected a certain sense of satisfaction for the changes.

Interestingly enough, though, students seemed to use the "sense of otherness" to separate themselves from issues in today's society that made them uncomfortable, such as society's attitude toward men and women of color. Most of the students in the class are "of color" and they became very uncomfortable when Ms. SS tried to engage them in a conversation about race (Social Studies, December 8, 2010):

> *Ms. SS: Think about your society. Think about how we view black men, white women and those relationships. And how black women are viewed in the media. Ok. I know. I'm black, ok? I might not have an unbiased view to these things. But kids, these ideas formed a fabric of how we view others. I know, because you guys are like, "I don't want to offend her!" But you're not offending me. Come on, it's easy to talk about race.*
> *Student: Not really.*
> *Ms. SS: No, it's hard?*
> *Student: It's really awkward.*
> *Student: It depends who you're talking to!*

Student: It's a conscious decision between – like you say one thing but then you say another thing that contradicts the first thing you said about race.

Shared Normalcy: Mr. Eng provided a brilliant example of shared normalcy by comparing an aspect of slavery – leaving the fields to go to the great house and become a house slave – to a normal situation in which one person gloats over his own good fortune and taunts the less fortunate (English, December 21, 2010):

Slaves who are going to the great house sing, "I'm going away to the great house farm. . ." – exulting that they're moving up to a higher class of slavery.

They do that little dance. You know that little dance that your little brother does, your little sister does, when they get the last cookie? It's like, yeah? I got the cookie, I got the cookie! And they eat it right in your face? That's the song that he's talking about right here. It's like "I've got and you can't have it! Last one and you can't touch it! Here, you want a bite? Uh-uh, can't have it. Nope, can't have it. That's what the song is all about.

Ms. SS continually asked students to imagine themselves as the "other" in historical situations. Often, Ms. SS painted a verbal picture of historical agents so that the students could understand the attitudes, beliefs and personalities involved (Social Studies, December 6, 2010): "If you were a lower class white attempting to work your way up in South Carolina, that really wasn't going to happen. Because there, the social hierarchy was firmly established. Who was at the top? The elite. But it wasn't just the elite. They were royals. They really had aristocratic airs."

Context Connection to Present: Both teachers used connections to the present to help their students understand the issues better. Mr. Eng made connections to his own life as well as the lives of his students, telling the students about his own Cherokee background when they were discussing the Lakota poem and sharing his personal reactions to use of the "N" word.

Ms. SS did not share personal details about her own life, but she did make connections between the history they were studying and current aspects of society and government. She was most animated when talking about women's rights and the forms of oppression that women experience today, including the wearing of high heels.

Ms. SS elevated this aspect of cognitive empathy, making a connection to the present, to almost the highest status, when she declared that the connection to race today was the major reason for studying slavery (Ms. SS, post-observation interview):

> *When you take all of it together, I think the reason why we study slavery in depth is to understand the impact that it has on today's society. And of course, you don't really get to look at that too much until you begin to look at race in America. And that's such a touchy subject it's hard for teenagers to understand versus what adults understand.*

Empathy to Action: Ms. SS framed her teaching for the year by an essential question about what it means to be an American. She referred students to that focus throughout the slave narrative unit. Underlying that frame was a desire for students to take responsibility for changing the American system whenever they saw inequity or a violation of the American dream. She expressed this desire eloquently in her pre-observation interview:

> *I want students to understand what it means to be an American. I want them to see how American ideas came to be. I don't want them to see just one way, but to understand everything that went into the development of American ideas. Then I want kids to work for change based on their understanding.*

The librarian also contributed to the Empathy-to-Action focus by arranging for a survivor from Hiroshima to speak to representative classes from each school on the campus. Ms. Setsuko Thurlow told her personal story of survival, with vivid

descriptions of the bomb, the wind and fire, the burning, radiation poisoning, and

deaths of her schoolmates, sister, young nephew, and too many others to count. Ms.

Thurlow offered vivid details of the horrific effect on those who survived the initial

blast: "Something was moving in a slow, quiet way. And those moving objects didn't

look like human beings. But they were. They were burned, blackened and swollen.

Some were badly mutilated with parts of the body missing. And the horrible sight was,

some people had liquefied eyes and eyeballs just hanging out into their hands. . . As I

look back, I feel it was terrible, but at that time, I didn't feel the horror" (Ms. Setsuko

Thurlow, December 6, 2010). Students sat riveted throughout Ms. Thurlow's

presentation.

At the end of her talk, Ms. Thurlow exhorted the students to take action by

urging their congressional representatives to ratify the New START Treaty (Ms. Setsuko

Thurlow, December 6, 2010):

> *If you want to take action, this is a good time for you to convey your wish that this treaty be ratified so that the number of nuclear weapons can be reduced. That's an important move and that's something that you can do. You can go home and do something, some talking, some thinking and formulate your opinion and write letters to your politicians.*

Results – Emotive Empathy

Emotive empathy, or inferring and understanding the feelings of others from

historical evidence and identifying with the roles of historical agents, was carefully

scaffolded by the teachers to maintain a focus on evidence, authenticity, and

separation from the students' actually trying to feel what people in the past have felt.

The object of instruction that provokes emotive empathy is to help students

understand the feelings of others, but not to sympathize or feel sorry for those people.

Ms. SS noticed that students naturally migrate to emotive empathy when they

try to understand the human experience in history: "I just want to remind you guys

that when you were talking about the nature of slavery, you began to talk about the

human condition and the psychological impact and the psychological process people

are going through while becoming involved in slavery. You guys understand that? You

understand you were doing that?" (Social Studies, December 1, 2010).

Inferences about Feelings Based on Historical Evidence: The social studies

classes were peppered with questions that asked students to draw upon inferences

about how historical personages felt given the context of the time. Ms. SS rarely asked

students to understand an historical event without also expecting them to pay

attention to the effect on humans and their probable response. Even her explanation

of a movement like the Second Great Awakening moved quickly from an explanation

of the political impact to an exploration of the feelings of the public (Social Studies,

December 20, 2010):

> *Now this isn't just a movement that happened on the frontier. Of course it spread to all across society. And the larger impact that this is going to have on society is it's gonna revive the "City Upon the Hill." Bring the people together by making it a unique American experience. Most importantly, it's gonna make each person feel, each individual feel, that they need to combat sin. And the sins of the day were dueling, drinking, prostitution, and ultimately slavery.*

Understanding of Feelings of Historical Agents: Students expressed their

understanding of the feelings of slaves and the oppressed on numerous occasions,

usually prompted by the questions that Ms. SS or Mr. Eng asked that specifically called

for them to think about feelings as well as actions.

Students transferred that feeling/action combination easily in their response to

a painting of the Trail of Tears, when they attributed to the painting both the action of

moving one's whole life and the emotional response such a move would evoke (Social

Studies, December 15, 2010):

> *Ms. SS: And this is a painting that aptly describes the Trail of Tears.*
> *Why would I say that it aptly describes the Trail of Tears? What about it*
> *conveys a message of what this event really means? What symbols or elements*
> *do you see?*
> *Student: Dark.*
> *Ms. SS: Dark, gray sky, right.*
> *Student: They're probably depressed and their heads are kind of down*
> *and they have a carriage filled with all of their stuff, so it's like they're moving*
> *their whole life to a different place.*

Through their creative slave-narrative projects for English class, many students

demonstrated that they understood the feelings of those involved in slavery, from the

slaves to slave owners and abolitionists. One student's poem, entitled "To Be Free"

expressed a number of feelings that were rooted in the authentic historical context

that she had learned in her social studies class (Anonymous Student, English,

December 9, 2010):

> *To be free from these chains*
> *Is all that we want in this world,*
> *In this life it would be nice.*
> *Change needs no reason*
> *It comes with the season*
> *And all we need is something to believe in*
> *To run wild or fly*
> *Through the seas we call the sky*
> *Free from wrong, free from hurt*
> *Control and selfish lies*

Free from being oppressed
And the chains that bind our chest
Change, no need
No need reason
It comes with the seasons
All we need is something to believe in.

<u>Identification with the Roles of Historical Agents:</u> In social studies class, students explored the conflicts, attitudes, and actions of specific figures in history (e.g., Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, Frederick Douglass). Ms. SS also expressed the desire for students to learn about categories of people (slaves, slave owners, abolitionists, property owners). She walked a fine line here, distinguishing between understanding the general differences for slaves among rice, cotton, and tobacco plantations and generalizing that "all" slaves on a tobacco plantation had a certain type of life. She wanted students to be able to verbalize the perspectives and role of slave owners, for example, while still realizing that some slave owners were harsh and hateful, while others were somewhat hands-off and benign. At the same time that she expressed the desire for students not to generalize (Ms. SS, post-observation interview), she asked them to generalize about the conflicted state of the nation from the specific example of the conflicts within Thomas Jefferson.

Students had their best opportunity to express their understanding of the roles of historical agents through their slave-narrative projects. Students most often identified with the role of the oppressed. Of the 22 major characters that the students created for their projects, 16 were slaves, 2 were slave owners, and one each were the son and daughter of a slave owner, the mistress, and an abolitionist.

Sympathy and Imagination: Just as the slave-narrative projects enabled students to express their empathy, so these projects posed the lure of moving from empathy to sympathy and from historical fiction to fantasy fiction. Ms. SS defined sympathy as "feeling pity" in her post-observation interview. She recognized that students naturally felt pity for slaves, but she used primary sources, historical context, and context connections to the present to lift students beyond sympathy to empathy: "I think they have to be provided that situation – have you ever felt like you were forced to do things, that you don't have control over your life, and that you were subject to someone else's whims and you had no freedom, have you ever felt like that?" (Ms. SS, post-observation interview).

Mr. Eng constantly reminded students to restrain their imaginations by putting historical context into their narratives and clearly incorporating the effect of historical events on the characters. His vision for students' slave narratives was closely aligned with Portal's definition of empathy – that empathy involves a balance of "imaginative speculation" and "methodological investigation" (Portal, 1987a).

Results – Effect of Teaching Strategies and the Use of Resources on the Development of Empathy

Previously in this chapter, I analyzed the types of questions asked by the social studies teacher to provoke thinking. I discovered a relationship between the types of questions and the types of sources that were being used when the questions were asked. I continued the analysis of Ms. SS's questions to classify them according to their relatedness to empathetic thinking. I found that 96% of her questions, 145 out of

a total of 151, related to empathy. Of those questions, around two-thirds led the

students to cognitive empathy considerations, particularly in the two areas of

historical contextualization and multiplicity of perspectives, and one-third led to

emotive empathy responses.

I found a relationship between the types of sources used and the type of

empathetic questions asked. Cognitive empathy questions tended to be asked when

the class was analyzing secondary or mixed primary/secondary sources. Emotive

empathy questions were much more likely to be asked around primary or mixed

primary/secondary sources than those that were only secondary. Table 13 illustrates

those relationships in cognitive and empathetic questioning.

Cognitive and Empathetic Questioning					
	% of Total Questions	% of Type Related to Primary	% of Type Related to Secondary	% of Type Related to Prim/Sec	% of Type Related to Hist. Fiction
Cognitive Questioning					
Cognitive Memory	16%	13%	83%	4%	4%
Convergent	60%	15%	37%	47%	13%
Divergent	13%	47%	26%	26%	16%
Evaluative	11%	41%	24%	29%	6%
Empathetic Questioning					
Cognitive Empathy	64%	22%	34%	43%	13%
Emotive Empathy	36%	40%	6%	52%	13%

Table 13: Cognitive and Empathetic Questioning

Both teachers and the librarian recognized that primary sources are

fundamental to the development of empathy. Mr. Eng found that primary sources

were especially important in opening students up to empathizing with the real people

of history (Mr. Eng, post-observation interview):

Reading in a textbook, [there is] nothing that connects them to it. But when they see the person's handwriting or they see the person, this hundred-year-old man, like we were doing [in] the slavery [unit] and they were listening to them talk about when they were a slave and how they didn't even know when their birthday was and how old they were. It makes it feel real to them.

When they read historical primary sources, most of them open up that much quicker, going "This person really lived, these are his words!" And then that opens the door for empathy as well. It's like, if this person really lived, I can feel for this person that much quicker.

Ms. SS not only recognized the empathetic effects of reading primary sources, but also noted that students struggle with overcoming their own perspectives (called "positionality" by history researchers) (Ms. SS, post-observation interview):

I think that primary sources are a fundamental aspect in developing a historical perspective and in developing empathy and being able to put yourself in the mind and the role and the shoes of that person for that time period. And it's very hard for the kids to be able to do that because they always look at it from their perspective, today.

Students expressed empathetic thinking most often when they were analyzing primary sources, as they "translated" the words of the text into their impressions of the effect that the situations had on the people involved. On December 1 in the social studies class, for example, one student read a quote about a slave who was ordered to beat other slaves by his master. The slave was praying for others to forgive him. The student first summed up the passage, "The masters were so cruel that they would even send some of their slaves to beat their families." In response to Ms. SS's question about the impact on the slaves themselves, this student responded with her own empathetic thinking: "They had to try to beg for forgiveness and say that they didn't mean it, because they didn't mean it. They saw the heart in it because they had a heart" (Anonymous Student, Social Studies, December 1, 2010).

Students also tended to make original connections and interpretations most often when they were responding to primary-source text. One student even made a connection between Jefferson's idea to export slave children to Africa and Machiavelli (Social Studies, December 8, 2010):

> Student: [Reading Jefferson quote] "The separation of infants from mothers would produce some scruples of humanity, but this would be straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel."
> Ms. SS: Ok. Straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel. Meaning, get rid of the huge problem by just a small insignificant detail. Yes, it's inhumane to take a newborn child away from its mother, but, hey, in the end we'll solve our problem. Right?
> Student: That's like a Machiavellian idea.
> Ms. SS: It is. The ends justify the means.

The use of secondary sources was most often associated with building historical contextualization. Students drew upon that historical knowledge to make their interpretations of the primary sources. On the days when secondary sources with no embedded primary sources were being discussed, Ms. SS sometimes supplemented the lecture/discussion with a primary source (e.g., a political cartoon about the Second Bank of the US, a painting of Andrew Jackson astride his horse).

Students drew from their reading of primary and secondary sources, as well as their viewing of the historical novel "Roots," to offer examples and draw conclusions in class. I did not see that they discriminated among the sources in terms of their veracity or authenticity. The following example illustrates two different student points of view about the formation of communities among slaves. One student drew her point of view from a primary source; the other from "Roots." The teacher did not respond by talking to the students about evaluating the source, nor did she express an

opinion about which student's interpretation was closer to the truth (Social Studies,

December 6, 2010).

> *Student: I would say that they didn't have a community because even though slaves did go to different houses, maybe sometimes they were treated well, sometimes they were not. But most of the time they were separated from friends, family. All over the place, like they didn't know where they were going.*

> *Student: I would say they did have a community because the people they worked with, they would be close to each other and all, like in the movie "Roots," like they have each other's backs and all that.*

Interpretation

My propositions in this area of my research centered around the use of primary

and secondary sources and historical fiction.

- Primary sources are more likely to evoke historical empathy than secondary

  sources.

- Students are prone to develop emotional sympathy but not cognitive or

  emotive empathy from reading historical novels.

I have integrated a response to these propositions in my interpretations

below, but the results do confirm that students are more likely to exhibit historical

empathy after reading primary sources than secondary sources and that students need

a teacher's mediating influence to lift them from a sympathetic to an empathetic

response to historical fiction.

The data support the importance of both cognitive and emotive empathy in the

development of historical understanding. Although Yeager and Foster (2001) and

Downey (1995) downplay or deny the relevance of the affective realm of empathy in

the study of history, my research shows that teachers push students to consider

feelings along with the thoughts and actions of historical agents. Teachers regularly combine attention to cognitive and emotive empathy, sometimes within the same question.

An assessment of the differences between cognitive and emotive empathy, however, leads me to conclude that students must develop cognitive empathy first, before emotive. Two aspects of cognitive empathy surfaced as the primary ones to be developed first – historical contextualization and multiplicity of historical perspectives. Taken together, these two aspects comprise the major thinking involved in cognitive empathy formation.

Students must understand the historical context in order to empathize with and refrain from judging historical actions. Ms. SS used an economic-necessity and nation-building context to help students develop empathy for slave owners and politicians. As I watched students build contextual knowledge about the economic impact of slavery, I saw them gradually be able to express their understanding about why it was so hard for historical people, even someone as respected and influential as Thomas Jefferson, to give up their slaves.

The data support the idea that one key to the development of empathy about emotional or moral issues is placing them within a non-emotional historical context (like economics). Students may not have reached the same level of empathetic understanding if the social studies teacher had emphasized the emotional arguments for and against slavery.

In this case study, multiplicity of historical perspectives was stressed almost as much as historical context. Many accounts of history, especially those offered in textbooks to students in school, present a limited number of historical perspectives. The bias with which most textbooks are written is usually not overt, but in many textbooks it colors the interpretations with the view of the majority. The history teacher was very conscious of the need to provide multiple perspectives in her selection of the Takaki and Zinn texts, and she carefully balanced the slave perspective gained through the slave narratives with instruction and class discussion about the slave owner perspective.

The data show that students develop a fuller picture of the human side of history when they combine emotive with cognitive empathy. Emotive empathy cannot stand alone; without cognitive empathy, it is likely to result in sympathy rather than empathy for historical agents. Students in the case-study classrooms needed to balance inferences and understanding about feelings with knowledge of the context and perspectives that affected those feelings.

One clear finding of this research is that the mediating influence of the teacher is essential to the development of empathy and historical understanding. The teachers actively balanced students' natural migration to the one perspective with which they most agree with attention to other perspectives. They also countered students' inclination to respond solely with emotive empathy.

Several mediating techniques were especially effective: 1) the use of convergent and divergent questioning to provoke critical thinking; 2) the use of

questioning to lead to cognitive and emotive empathy; 3) the strategic use of primary

sources within a unit to deepen the level of conversation and connect students to the

human side of history; 4) teaching students to analyze and comprehend the text of

primary sources as a springboard for deeper understanding of the historical context; 5)

the insistence upon historical contextualization as a backdrop for drawing conclusions

and creating original products; 6) the balancing of primary and secondary sources and

the selection of secondary texts that embed many primary source excerpts with both

context and interpretations; and 7) the scaffolded use of historical fiction to provide a

contextual glimpse into life for the time period of study. A mediating technique that

was needed but not used was teaching the students to evaluate their sources and

temper the information gleaned from each source by its author or creator.

Several issues about the effect of empathy arose from this study. First, the

"sense of otherness" seems to be employed by students to remove themselves from

issues or behaviors with which they disagree. I wonder if that aspect of empathy, as

defined by Barton and Levstik (2004), actually works at cross purposes to the

formation of empathy. If students remove an issue that personally affects them and

attach it to the "other," perhaps they do not try to understand and instead distance

themselves, relegating the issue to some strange "other" person.

Generalization of an empathetic understanding was problematic to the social

studies teacher because she wanted students to understand the differences among

the experiences of individuals in history. At the same time, however, Ms. SS wanted

her students to be able to generalize from an individual to a role (e.g., the experience

of being a slave in the big house) and even from an individual to a nation (e.g., Thomas Jefferson's internal conflicts as representative of the conflicts within America).

Multiple perspectives were constantly part of the conversation in both the English and the social studies classrooms; however, students did not actively seek multiple perspectives. Students seemed, and I have no hard evidence to back this up, to want one clear story of history without the confusion of multiple viewpoints.

Although it was an expressed purpose for Ms. SS's history instruction to move her students to action on what they see should be changed in America, I saw no evidence that students were moved by their studies to take action. I did not have follow-up with the classes that attended the Hiroshima survivor presentation, but I doubt whether even that powerful presentation moved students to take action. The empathy-to-action strand of empathetic development has not taken hold.

COLLABORATION AND ROLES

Observations for this case study were conducted in social studies and English classrooms; therefore, much of the data in the previous results sections related to the roles of the classroom teachers. This section presents the data analysis and interpretation about the role of the school librarian.

Results

The slave narrative unit was a powerful learning experience for two teachers and a class of twenty high-achieving high school juniors. The historical understandings and creative student products that resulted from the unit have been previously documented in the Results sections of this chapter. Although my research was

designed to look at the collaboration and roles of an English teacher, a social studies

teacher, and the school librarian, the librarian was only peripherally involved in the

slave narrative unit. Rather than showing results of a collaborative effort, this section

will examine the role of the librarian in a campus of schools, the challenges faced and

the creative ways that she has chosen to address those issues. The Interpretation

section will examine potential connections between Ms. Lib's campus-wide efforts and

the needs expressed by the two classroom teachers during the course of this research.

Ms. Lib has been the single librarian in a campus of six high schools with

approximately 3,000 students for a year and a half. The first half-year, from January to

June, was spent creating a library from boxes of books and mismatched shelves that

had been moved from a library space that had been closed for several years. Through

Ms. Lib's diligence, the current library space is well-ordered and attractive, although

the size of the space and the selection of books is very limited. The understaffing and

under-resourcing of the library has presented unique challenges to Ms. Lib as she tries

to build a library program.

Ms. Lib's goal is to build a program that serves all the schools on the campus

and operates as a common learning space (Ms. Lib, pre-observation interview):

> *I really want to build this program into being something bigger than it is and to really actually integrate it into all of the schools. Because it's been a little bit slow going with a few of them, getting the teachers on board with that. So for now, my goal is to actually make this be a community center for the school.*

For the teachers, Ms. Lib considers that her main responsibility is to make their lives

easier. She recognizes that they are under a lot of pressure and expected to do more

with less, so she reaches out to them to offer to teach the new tools to students that

the teachers do not have time to learn.

Administrative support is essential for Ms. Lib to get the buy-in from teachers.

Ms. Lib's situation is made more complex by the fact that the campus has six

independent principals, each of whom controls his own budget, guides his own

teachers, and makes policy decisions that may not work well with the other schools

(for example, scheduling in one school may conflict with the bell schedule in another

school). The implication of having six independent administrators is felt only by

campus-wide programs like the library. Ms. Lib has a vision of the way a principal

might support her efforts to build a library program that serves the whole campus (Ms.

Lib, post-observation interview):

> *The administration really needs to buy into you. When you have a principal*
> *who likes the library, it really helps. And I think some of them do. And some of*
> *them don't. But the more they promote you, and the more they say to their*
> *teachers, I want you using the library, even the teachers feeling like they have*
> *to at first, I think that eventually they'll get to a point where they'll just want to.*
> *So. That would be nice.*

For the students, Ms. Lib hopes to be a role model for reading and writing and

using technology, showing students how to use it in the right ways. Ms. Lib has a non-

threatening relationship with students because she does not grade them, "so they

come to me in a very different manner than they go to their teachers" (pre-

observation interview). She has definite goals for the students that include research

and choosing books for independent reading (Ms. Lib, pre-observation interview):

> *I want them to be able to actually do research. By the time they leave me, they*
> *should be able to create an actual research paper with a bibliography, citations*
> *that are done correctly in the correct format and find quality stuff. And know*

what they're doing. And I would like them to be able to choose their own books for independent reading. Not to rely on me to do it for them. To know how to evaluate a book. How do I find what I like. Lofty goals.

One of the biggest issues that Ms. Lib faces as a result of the campus structure is building a relationship and communicating with teachers in every school throughout the building. She noted that she does not get invited to their staff meetings and questioned how she would go to six faculty meetings anyway. Partly because she is fairly new, but mostly because of the campus structure, Ms. Lib has found that the teachers do not know who she is and she does not know a lot of the teachers "because they're really isolated on their own floors" (pre-observation interview).

Communication with teachers is a serious problem for Ms. Lib. She does not want to clog their e-mail boxes with information from the library, and she does not have everyone's e-mail address anyway. She has put flyers in the teachers' mailboxes when she has new resources or technology that might interest them. She sometimes sends messages to the principals for their teachers, but does not have any indication of whether or not those messages are passed on.

Ms. Lib uses new resources to generate excitement about the library and visits from teachers to find out about the new technology or materials. She received a couple of grants to build her college-bound resources and was rewarded by an invitation by one principal (the principal of Jones High School) to present to the whole faculty. The teachers came down to the library to check out the new DVD's and audio books. That presentation to the whole faculty is one of the main ways she has been

able to start building connections with the teachers at that school. In fact, her first collaboration with Mr. Eng started as a result of this connection.

Ms. Lib is moving more toward digital resources and considers it a part of her responsibility to find the best websites for students and teachers to use, like primary source collections in the Library of Congress, the New York Public Library, or the historical society, digital galleries from museums, and links to other sites with valuable and sometimes interactive resources, like PBS and the New York Times. She organizes class pages on the library website with links to appropriate resources for specific teachers whose classes are doing research. Her goal is to offer "something that was easily accessible and organized really well" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview). The class page for the slave narrative unit linked to 10 resources at the Library of Congress and one additional site. She actively maintains the website, "although I'm not sure that anybody actually uses my website" (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview).

When asked how she moved from resources to teaching, Ms. Lib responded that she asked Mr. Eng what he was working on and he responded with his frustration that students did not know how to search beyond Google or find the best websites. Ms. Lib developed what Mr. Eng calls a "safe search" lesson and she has been teaching for all of his classes since. Mr. Eng, in fact, found the lesson so useful that he encouraged all of the humanities teachers at Jones to take advantage of it.

Ms. Lib also has generated interest in her teaching by detecting a problem that students or teachers have and offering to teach a solution. One of the more effective examples of this solution-framed instruction was when Ms. Lib noticed that students

were trying to work on a collaborative essay on Ancient Greece, but the students were continually frustrated by team members who forgot to bring their flash drive or did not save correctly. She offered to teach Google Docs and was able to teach the tool to the entire humanities department at Jones. That was the professional development, in fact, that Ms. SS mentioned as beneficial when she talked about the role of the librarian in the school.

Ms. Lib is not involved in unit planning at any of the schools on the campus. Teachers invite her to teach individual lessons, but she has never had the opportunity to influence (or even participate in) the planning of the unit surrounding the lesson. She does not get an opportunity to see the students' work beyond the finding that they do in the library, so she has no context to determine the level of success that students have attained at using sources and information effectively. She is disappointed in the skills she is asked to teach, because they fall within the parameters of traditional librarianship – search engines, searching, bibliographies, and citations. Ms. Lib would like to grow as a teacher, learning from her teacher colleagues about how to integrate library instruction into classroom units (Ms. Lib, pre-observation interview):

> *I think that they have a lot to teach me as far as planning units and integrating our skills, the things that librarians teach in terms of technology and research, into a regular classroom unit. That's something that I wish I knew more about.*

Ms. Lib recognizes that the limited time for in-depth units and the campus structure probably will prevent her from reaching her goal of increased and more inquiry-based teaching (Ms. Lib, post-observation interview):

I would like to be able to teach more and to get into different kinds of concepts. I would like to have more things that require inquiry and those kinds of questions. But I think I won't really get to, just based on what the teachers need and their limited time. Because, you know, it's not just about when I can schedule, it's, you know, we have two weeks to do this unit and this is the only day I have.

While Ms. Lib has been frustrated by her inability to expand her teaching of skills, she has been successful at developing a robust reading guidance program. She considers herself a role model for independent reading, "A lot of kids won't read a book unless I tell them I've read it first" (Ms. Lib, pre-observation interview). She actively teaches students to assess their own reading preferences and evaluate books so that they can build independence in selecting books to read on their own. Ms. Lib has not been recognized by the teachers as an expert on the reading preferences of students and they have never consulted her about books to read in the classroom as a part of the curriculum. She expressed the wish that teachers would consult her more in this area of her expertise.

A major area of contribution by Ms. Lib to the campus culture is the special programs that she brings into the school. During the three weeks of my observations, the librarian brought both the Hiroshima survivor, who spoke to around 200 students in the auditorium, and a young adult author, who spoke to one class of students in the library. Both programs were received well by the students and would not have been available without Ms. Lib's willingness to take on this extra responsibility.

Interpretation

My research design included several propositions about the role of the librarian in collaborating with classroom teachers during historical inquiry.

- Librarians are relegated to the resource-provider (and perhaps resource-organizer) role when teachers are using primary sources because the large number of primary sources available digitally is overwhelming to teachers and teachers believe that content expertise is necessary for the use of primary sources in instruction.

- Collaboration between classroom teachers and the librarian is difficult if the teachers and librarian are operating from different paradigms about history and the use of primary sources.

- Librarians have little to no role in the use of historical fiction.

Generally, my predictions were supported by my research at Jones High School, although the reasons for the limited librarian role in this situation are slightly different from those suggested in the propositions. Ms. Lib was relegated to the resource-provider role, but the primary sources used in the unit were, unusually, print-based. Instead of scrambling to access appropriate digital primary sources from the overwhelming amount available, the teachers made a joint decision to choose a text with the main primary sources to be read bound into one book. Providing organized access to websites or related primary-source documents is a role that librarians can continue to endorse; however, in this case study, when the unit was primary-source centric, the classroom teachers took the lead.

One other consideration for librarians is how to ensure that their selection and organization of digital resources is integrated into the classroom experience. In this case, both teachers forgot about the class page with links posted on the library

website and only 3 citations to Library of Congress were included in the students'

slave-narrative bibliographies.

Collaboration between classroom teachers and the librarian is difficult at this

campus. Part of the issue is the size of the campus and student body (1 librarian for

3000 students is merely lip service in terms of supporting effective library services).

Part of the issue is that the schools on the campus are fairly new, as is the library and

librarian. There is no existing culture of inquiry or library usage upon which to build

the library program.

A third factor that limited collaboration was the nature of instruction in the

English and social studies classrooms and the way that those teachers translate inquiry

into day-to-day learning. Both classroom teachers mentioned that they should

collaborate more with the librarian and should take classes to the library. My

assessment of their teaching paradigm, however, is that they operate in a fluid manner

and rarely spend an entire period on any activity. Inquiry, as I explained in an earlier

section, does not form the framework for the entire unit, so that it is easy to identify

the points at which library usage and instruction would be beneficial. Instead, the

teachers conduct mini-inquiry bursts within the larger chronological framework of the

social studies classroom and resource-based framework of the English classroom. In

this unit, and I suspect in every social studies unit taught by Ms. SS, primary and

secondary sources are integrated seamlessly, not separated into primary vs. secondary

and not sequenced in a manner that a trip to the library to gather one or the other

would reap any benefits.

The implications of this alternative approach to inquiry and the use of primary sources deserve further exploration and will be discussed in the final chapter.

It is true that Ms. Lib had no role in the use of historical fiction in the classroom. In fact, Ms. Lib herself identified her non-involvement in selecting resources for the classroom to be problematic, especially considering her expertise in literature selection. Ms. Lib may be correct that it is a control issue, that teachers do not want to give up responsibility for selecting the resources they will use in their instruction. A more collaborative environment would probably help to ameliorate the situation, but the ultimate decision will always rest with the classroom teacher.

Given the environment surrounding the campus library, the newness of the library to this campus, and the relative inexperience of the librarian, Ms. Lib has made real progress in building collaborative relationships throughout the building. She has established very positive relationships with the students who regularly visit the library and is continually thinking of ways to convince teachers that integrating the library into their classroom experiences offers great benefit to them and their students.

CONCLUSIONS

This research was framed around two research questions:

- *How do classroom teachers and school librarians design and teach historical inquiry using historical novels and primary sources?*

- *What is the impact of teaching with historical novels and primary sources on the development of historical empathy?*

My case-study research design gave me answers to those questions for two teachers, a librarian, and a group of eleventh-grade students at one high school in New York City. Although generalizations cannot be drawn to all uses of primary sources, all high schools, or all historical inquiry situations, the case study did lead to conclusions in five main theme areas. The themes of inquiry-based teaching, the use of sources, and the librarian's role relate most strongly to the first research question about the use of primary sources and historical fiction during historical inquiry. Under the two themes about historical empathy (connections between primary sources and historical empathy and empathy as a catalyst), I offer conclusions that relate to the second research question.

INQUIRY-BASED TEACHING

Conclusion: The classroom teachers framed their instruction around Inquiry-based teaching, quite different from a librarian's traditional focus on inquiry-based learning.

The traditional school-librarian definition of inquiry-based learning includes the assumption that the instructional unit is framed around an arc of inquiry. Students move, somewhat recursively, through the process of asking questions, finding information to answer their questions, drawing their own conclusions, and creating products to express their new understandings.   Typically, librarians find many opportunities to integrate resources and the teaching of information skills as students move through the inquiry process.

This research highlighted the differences between the librarian paradigm of inquiry-based learning and the classroom-teacher paradigm of inquiry-based teaching. The slave-narrative instructional unit I observed was planned and conducted by classroom teachers. Although in many ways the unit could be called inquiry-based, the students did not move through one line of inquiry for the whole unit and the students did not conduct the inquiry. Instead, the teachers managed the progression and used short bursts of inquiry, with mini-cycles that lasted from half an hour to two hours. In each mini-cycle, teachers followed an inquiry process by calling upon the reading that students had done the night before, asking questions to drive student thinking, leading students to find evidence in the text to answer the questions, and drawing conclusions with the class that were usually developed by the teacher. Interspersed throughout were opportunities for reflection about the impact of slavery on society today. The next class period, the cycle started again.

Rather than being student-driven, the "inquiry" was structured very carefully by the teacher. The goals for each class were very clear and the class moved inexorably through the daily goals. The pattern of discourse was largely question / response / question / response, with limited interactive discussion and rare questioning generated by the students. The skills of inquiry, like evaluating perspectives or developing a line of argument, were modeled and scaffolded, but not taught explicitly.

The model of inquiry-based teaching used by the classroom teachers does not lend itself easily to library research or collaboration with the librarian. Instead of

observing a collaboratively designed historical inquiry unit, I discovered that the very

nature of inquiry was perceived differently by the classroom teachers and the

librarian.

USE OF PRIMARY SOURCES, SECONDARY SOURCES, AND HISTORICAL FICTION

Conclusion: The classroom teachers determined the selection of primary sources,

with essentially no consultation with the librarian.

Primary sources were at the heart of the slave narrative unit; therefore, I had

many opportunities to observe and draw conclusions about how primary sources are

used during historical inquiry. A primary consideration of classroom teachers in the

use of primary sources is the actual selection of the sources. Teachers want to ensure

that the sources match their goals. In this case, the selection of primary sources was a

first and very important step in the collaborative process used by the classroom

teachers to develop the unit. Notably, their selection process did not include

consulting with one person in the building who is an expert at resource selection, the

librarian.

Conclusion: Primary sources must be surrounded by context to be useful to students

in their learning.

The most startling conclusion about use of primary sources is that they must be

surrounded by context for students to draw meaning from them. This importance of

context had relevance to visual primary sources as well as textual ones. Context, in

this case historical context, enabled students to read the text critically, compare it with

the background knowledge they had acquired, and draw conclusions. Without

context, visual representations become illustrations and text passages become "the truth."

Conclusion: Unless primary sources are totally embedded in the classroom instruction and not just included on a library website, students and teachers do not use them.

Another important conclusion revolves around the access that libraries provide to primary sources. This librarian, and indeed many librarians, provided links to thematically grouped websites and collections of primary sources. Those links often lead students to particular primary sources within collections. Ms. Lib was very upfront by stating that her job is to make the lives of the teachers easier. She, therefore, searches in databases and on the Internet to find the best digital resources for specific units and then build class pages on her website with relevant links.

For the two classroom teachers in this case study, primary sources are not accessed that way. Their use is embedded in their mini-inquiry bursts, and the flow between secondary and primary sources is almost seamless. Although on some days, the focus in the classroom was entirely on primary sources (because primary sources were the major texts for the unit), the interpretation of those sources was not divorced from the flow of the regular classroom instruction, albeit rhetoric-based in the English classroom and historical context-based in the social studies classroom. The one instance when external primary sources were accessed (half an hour of Library of Congress slave narratives) made limited impression on students and only three used the Library of Congress as a source for their own slave narratives.

The conclusion is that access to primary sources through the library has little effect on student learning unless it is completely integrated into the daily classroom instruction and the sources are surrounded by contextual information to aid in interpretation. Teachers did not "interrupt" instruction to pursue access to additional resources, even digital ones that had been organized by theme by the librarian.

Conclusion: Secondary sources were necessary for background information and context.

Most of the secondary sources used by the social studies teacher offered a rich blend of background information, primary-source excerpts, and interpretation. It was a conscious decision by Ms. SS to use scholarly sources that included valid perspectives and interpretations rather than generic texts written by anonymous authors with hidden biases. Both teachers expressed a conscious effort to offer multiple perspectives on slavery. No secondary sources were included on the list of links provided on the library web page, perhaps because the librarian knew that the teachers had already gathered the resources they thought they needed.

Conclusion: Historical fiction is valuable for social context, but its use must be scaffolded so that it is not accepted blindly as historical fact.

Historical fiction seemed to be a valuable resource both to the English teacher and the history teacher. Both teachers recognized the historical context that students gain from fiction about the era under study. The English teacher worried, however, that students would simply copy the characters of "Roots" rather than using the characters for background information only. He countered that natural propensity of

students by stressing the importance of historical context. The social studies teacher

did not include an historical novel for this unit, but she did refer to context that

students gained from their reading of *Moll Flanders* in the previous unit. The

conclusion is that teachers consider historical fiction valuable for providing social

context, but monitor its use and supplement it with valid historical context.

THE LIBRARIAN'S ROLE

Conclusion: A librarian is marginalized by fulfilling only a resource-provider role. A librarian's contributions must be integral to the instruction in the classroom to be effective.

Organizing access to resources is one of the foundational roles for librarians;

however, librarians who make resource provision their primary focus may find that

neither students nor teachers use the resources provided, even when the access is

digital and organized thematically. If the teachers use the inquiry-based teaching

model and never put the students in charge of conducting their own inquiries, then

librarians have to find ways to connect to the classroom instruction by providing

resources at the moment of need and by explicitly teaching the skills that are not being

taught in the classroom. Additionally, library instruction on skills such as critical

reading, multiple perspectives, and drawing conclusions from evidence may have to be

delivered in the classroom in mini-lessons to integrate with and support the mini-

bursts-of-inquiry approach of the teachers.

The teachers in this case study felt positively about the potential role of the

library and librarian, but they did not know what the librarian could do beyond provide

resources and teach some basic technology tools and strategies. They had no expectation that the librarian could teach critical thinking and information skills, nor did they recognize the value of explicit instruction on such skills as evaluating websites based on bias and point of view or drawing conclusions from evidence gathered through research.

CONNECTION BETWEEN PRIMARY SOURCES AND HISTORICAL EMPATHY

Conclusion: Primary sources have a strong impact on the development of historical empathy.

Primary sources definitely had a greater impact on the development of historical empathy than secondary sources. Through primary sources, students saw the humans behind the situations and issues; students were able to state an understanding of the actions of historical agents based on the context of the time (even those agents with whom they disagreed).

Understandably, students were able to draw an empathetic and in-depth perspective about slave life from reading primary-source, whole slave narratives. They were also able to develop an understanding of human behavior and emotions from primary source excerpts embedded in secondary sources because the quotes from primary sources were presented in context (e.g., multiple perspectives -- presented through quotes that showed Jefferson's conflicted mindset). Students drew most of their empathetic observations and conclusions from the primary-source quotes, not from the surrounding secondary text.

Conclusion: In order to have an impact, primary sources must be mediated by a teacher or librarian.

Without the mediating influence of the classroom teacher or librarian, students cannot derive optimum meaning from primary sources. Mediating influences include scaffolding the strategies for critical reading, offering background information and context, focusing on analyzing and interpreting primary-source text, and providing multiple perspectives.

Questioning was the mediation technique most widely used by the social studies teacher. When discussing primary sources, the social studies teacher tended to go beyond cognitive memory questions (the prevalent type of questioning used with secondary sources) to ask convergent, divergent and evaluative questions. Almost as many questions called on either cognitive or emotive empathy as those that drew knowledge or facts from the students.

EMPATHY AS CATALYST

Conclusion: Empathy is the catalyst that transforms knowledge into understanding.

Many educational standards lay out a smorgasbord of information that students are expected to learn, but experience has shown that these standards have little impact unless students have the opportunity to make sense of the information and connect it to prior learning rather than memorize it, or, in other words, to convert information to knowledge. Knowledge is sometimes seen as the ultimate achievement, but the teachers in this study had higher expectations. They asked students to be able to apply what they had learned to new situations; they wanted

their students to go beyond knowledge to <u>understanding</u>. When they pushed students to the level of understanding, their questions asked for empathetic responses as a part of their conclusion-drawing process.

On the basis of this research about the development of historical understanding and empathy, I suggest that the deepening of knowledge to the level of understanding occurs through the lens of empathy.   Empathy becomes a catalyst for transforming knowledge into understanding.

Knowledge   ⟹   ***EMPATHY***   ⟹   ***Understanding***
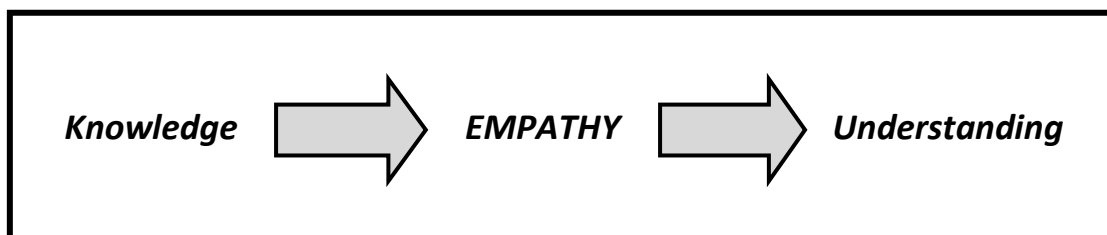
Conclusion: Both cognitive and emotive empathy are important in the formation of understanding; however, cognitive empathy must be developed before emotive.

Cognitive empathy (according to Barton and Levstik, 2004) involves historical contextualization, multiplicity of perspectives, a sense of otherness, shared normalcy, and/or context connection to the present. This research showed that the primary characteristic of cognitive empathy developed by students was historical contextualization, and in fact, that characteristic was the linchpin for all the others. All other attributes of empathy were formed on a base of historical contextualization.

Emotive empathy involves inferences about and understanding of feelings of agents in the past. The teachers and librarian added the ability to "walk in the shoes" of historical personages, which I have translated into an additional characteristic –

identification with the roles of historical agents. The teachers expected the students

to be able to think and feel like slave owners, farmers, presidents, and slaves -- not to

feel the identical feelings, but to understand generally the feelings of the people in

those roles.

Although the teachers may have prompted students to think about cognitive

and emotive empathy at the same time during class discussion, the teachers always

stressed historical contextualization. Students were not asked to develop emotive

empathy without the cognitive aspect, because the result would have been sympathy

or pity. The teachers were very clear that their goal was to help students understand

multiple perspectives in context, to understand the plight of the slaves without feeling

pity for them.

I started this research with an hypothesis: teaching with primary sources and

historical novels during historical inquiry enhances students' development of cognitive

and emotive empathy. My conclusions demonstrate that the hypothesis was

supported by the research, but that the story of two teachers, a librarian, and a class

of twenty students is much more complex and nuanced than can be captured by an

hypothesis that looks simply at the relationship between sources and the development

of historical empathy.

In Chapter Five, I will explore the possible implications of this case study, as

well as limitations of the current study. I will go on to discuss broader themes about

information and empathy that extend to the world beyond K-12 education. Finally, I

will suggest possible future research to build on the findings from this study.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

I started this research to find out if teachers and librarians could influence the

development of historical empathy by using primary sources and historical fiction

during historical inquiry. I decided to do a case study to ground my research in real

classrooms and libraries. My hope was that I would see history being taught as the

story of mankind, not a litany of dates, names and events, and teachers and librarians

providing a direct link to real people of the past through the use of personal

documents, photos, speeches, public records, and other documents. I thought that

empathy would be more likely to develop as a result of students' "seeing" historical

people through these authentic primary resources. I also thought that historical fiction

would help students visualize the context of the time.

I conducted observations and interviews at a high school in New York City. As a

case study, this research cannot be generalized beyond this specific school, but at the

same time, the results suggest intriguing ideas for further investigation. What I found

was a much richer picture of the use of primary and secondary sources and historical

fiction than a simple connection between primary sources and empathy. I did find a

definite relationship; primary sources do have a positive impact on the development of

empathy. I also, however, discovered other aspects of teaching historical inquiry with

primary sources that have implications for further reflection and research: a

difference in the definition and approach to inquiry between classroom teachers and

librarians; the need for primary sources to be contextualized in order to have value for interpretation (and secondary sources are important for providing that context); the importance of mediating influence by a teacher or librarian in the use of primary sources and the development of empathy; the indication that cognitive empathy must be developed before emotive empathy; the need for librarians to expand their role beyond that of resource provider; and the evidence that empathy is a catalyst that transforms knowledge into understanding.

My research was a study in one school. I viewed the situation through my lens as a lifelong educator and school librarian. The results cannot be generalized or declared the "truth" for all similar situations, but the findings raise some interesting implications in the realms of education, librarianship, inquiry, and the world of information seeking.

The following sections address the implications of the conclusions from this case study in the areas of inquiry-based teaching and learning, the use of primary sources, the development of empathy, and empathy as a catalyst for understanding. The librarian role is integrated into each section rather than being treated separately, because that is the way a librarian operates in a school – not as a separate entity, but as integral to the teaching and learning across the school.

Implications for Inquiry-Based Teaching and Learning

Inquiry is a powerful process of independent learning that is increasingly being recognized as valuable for developing deep understandings. In a constructivist learning environment, in which students are empowered to construct their own

understandings rather than be handed knowledge by teachers, the process of inquiry

is integral to teaching and learning. Neither inquiry nor the process of inquiry were

even mentioned to the students I observed at Jones High School, nor were any inquiry

skills explicitly taught. The teachers implicitly followed a loosely structured line of

inquiry in their daily teaching, but they did not share an inquiry model with the

students, nor did they relinquish any control over the path of learning to the students.

The lack of an explicit inquiry process coincides with what I found in the research

literature from the field of history education. In that literature, specific skills were

identified as important to teach, but researchers did not identify the steps to an

inquiry process, nor did they suggest that instruction be framed around such a model.

If students are not being taught an inquiry process or skills, then they are not

acquiring the necessary framework to be independent learners. Students who have

experienced expert questioning by a teacher cannot necessarily develop those

questions themselves without instruction and practice. Students who do not recognize

that questioning should drive the process of seeking information, or that they need to

think about the information they have gathered to construct their own meaning, will

be subject to the whims of the information marketplace. Independent learning has

been named an essential capacity for college and career readiness (Common Core,

2010). We are doing a serious disservice to our students by ignoring the importance of

empowering our students to learn on their own through inquiry.

Comments by the teachers and librarian hint that student-led inquiry is

restrained by the tyranny of the test and an overly full curriculum; teachers simply

have no time to turn the learning over to the students if they are going to cover the curriculum and prepare students for the end-of-course state exam.

School librarians have an opportunity to change this paradigm and to build a constructivist, inquiry-based learning environment for the school. Inquiry skills form the foundation and framework of the library instructional program. Through the teaching of inquiry skills, librarians enable students to become autonomous and reflective learners. Librarians can also enable teachers who have had no experience with an inquiry-process model (like the teachers in my case study) to design effective instructional units around an inquiry process. The understanding of inquiry-based learning from the student perspective, a school-wide perspective on the coherent development of inquiry skills, and the desire to integrate the teaching of inquiry skills with content-based units are the value-adds that school librarians bring to the collaborative table. The synergy created by the expertise of the librarian added to the expertise of the classroom teachers will produce instructional units that help students develop both essential content knowledge and the ability to learn on their own.

Because of the pressures of time and testing, librarians will have to implement a strategic and phased approach to integrating inquiry-based learning throughout the school. Librarians can start by developing a curriculum map that integrates the essential inquiry skills into content-area units over time (spread across grades, subject areas, and months), so that students develop the skills of inquiry in a continual progression across all subject areas and grade levels. Strong collaboration between the librarian and classroom teachers will mean that, over the course of a student's life

in a school, he or she will have had instruction in the essential skills of inquiry-based learning as an integral part of learning in every curriculum area.

This quest for implementing inquiry-based learning has strong support from the new Common Core State Standards, issued in 2010 by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and the Council of Chief State School Officers, and adopted by over forty states (Common Core, 2010). The skills of inquiry are integral to these standards; indeed, the standards contain a strand called "Research to Build and Present Knowledge" in the Writing standard for all grades. If teaching to the Common Core becomes standard practice, then inquiry-based learning and teaching should become more widespread and infused into daily teaching and learning in school classrooms and libraries. The opportunity exists for librarians to take a leadership role in creating an inquiry-based environment that motivates students to question, discover, and create.

Implications for the Use of Primary Sources

The good news is that access to facsimiles of primary sources is exploding as organizations, libraries, archives, and museums accelerate their pace of digitizing their collections. The bad news is that access to digitized primary sources is proliferating so quickly that teachers and librarians find the abundance confusing and not a little overwhelming. Information seekers tend to manage the explosion of information by narrowing their searches to the top few results on Google, without checking for authenticity, validity or value for their research. Teachers and librarians are not immune to that self-preservation instinct. Classroom teachers may revert to pre-

packaged texts that may or may not incorporate primary sources if they get too overwhelmed.

This research showed that primary-source information must be contextualized in order to be interpreted meaningfully. Digitized primary resources are often presented as facsimiles of individual artifacts. Sometimes the individual documents are accompanied by short descriptions, but often they are presented without background information, interpretations, and contrasting perspectives.

These two factors about primary sources – that the increasing number of digitized primary sources does not necessarily lead to better access and that primary sources must be presented contextually – have great implications for organizations that are digitizing their resources and for librarians providing access to them. Organizations and librarians must organize the resources around conceptual themes and perhaps provide the opportunity for participatory tagging and social-tool responses, rather than present them as millions of individual sources with non-interactive access through a library-type controlled vocabulary. Primary sources must be wrapped in contextual information, with easy links to extend learning in the area. Scaffolding and context built into websites providing access to digital archives of primary sources will become increasingly important.

School librarians have a vital role to help teachers with selection, organization, and use of primary sources, but they must step up to claim this role. Collection development must be redefined in the age of digital access to include organizing access to online resources (including primary sources) that match the goals and needs

of classroom teachers and students. The resources must be embedded in the classroom instruction for them to be used by teachers and students. The important role of both school librarians and classroom teachers, then, is to collaborate in creating an effective approach to selecting, organizing, and using primary sources.

Implications for the Development of Empathy

The teachers in this case study clearly envisioned that their students would develop empathy for slaves, slave owners, politicians, abolitionists and others during that era in American history. As a result, they mediated the use of primary sources and fostered the development of both cognitive and emotive empathy in their students. The most powerful mediating technique they used was questioning because they could lead the students to interpret, question, draw conclusions and empathize with the historical agents. Empathetic questioning was tied very closely to the analysis of primary sources, either whole primary sources or excerpted quotes from historical people embedded in secondary sources.

Obviously, not all learning situations have teachers who are focused on the use of primary sources and the development of empathy. Sometimes, students will be in classrooms with teachers who know nothing about empathy or do not value it, who use mainly secondary sources with few embedded primary sources, or who have a primarily didactic way of teaching. Students in those and other situations increasingly turn to the web so that they can find any information they need on their own and at their fingertips.

Since a mediating influence has been shown to be important for meaningful

use of primary sources and primary sources have been shown to impact the

development of empathy and ultimately understanding, the question arises about how

to mediate the use of primary sources any time they are encountered, both within and

outside of the facilitative classroom, in order to foster the development of empathy.

School librarians should accept this mandate for mediating the use of primary

sources and the development of empathy as part of their role. Several aspects of

library services will be involved. Most simply, librarians must provide virtual access to

primary sources, organize them to fit the themes of the classrooms, and surround

them with high-quality contextual information from multiple perspectives. Librarians

can identify the information skills necessary for analyzing primary sources and

developing empathy and then collaborate with teachers to integrate access to primary

sources and the teaching of information skills into instructional units.

In order to have an impact on the use of primary sources across the school, the

library collection development policy must be aligned with curriculum needs and the

library instructional program must be robust, focus on the essential skills of inquiry,

and be delivered within the context of classroom units. Furthermore, librarians must

continue their efforts to develop virtual scaffolding and interaction with students and

teachers through social tools, so that their services are available 24/7 at any computer.

Implications of Empathy as a Catalyst for Understanding

Empathy was shown to be a catalyst for understanding in the history and

English classrooms through the use of primary sources and historical fiction. In the

educational setting, there may be implications for developing empathy through the sciences, arts, and all other areas of the curriculum. The characteristics used in this study to define both cognitive and emotive empathy were appropriate for historical empathy, but translations of those characteristics to more general ones might define the face of empathy across the curriculum. For example, in the history classroom, historical contextualization was shown to be essential in the development of empathy. Contextualization is probably a generalizable characteristic necessary to develop empathy for the people involved in any situation, from current events to scientific exploration to the creation of artistic works and even to the study of health and disease.

The importance of empathy has typically been ignored by the educational system. Textbooks, by their very nature, often limit the perspectives presented in order to "cover" the essential content. History textbooks, for example, present history as a unified story that moves in a straight path through time. No points are scored by students on their state tests for understanding the conflicts within Thomas Jefferson about the institution of slavery or the reasons why slave holders held slaves.

Teachers and librarians who help students develop empathy are preparing those students for a global society of multiple perspectives, conflicting views, and messy social and political processes. Worldwide conflicts accentuate the need for empathy. The changing nature of communication and information provides the opportunity for librarians and teachers to bring the world into the school and prepare students to go into the world with the skills to learn independently and with empathy.

LIMITATIONS

By design, this study was limited to a case involving an English teacher, a social studies teacher, a school librarian, and twenty eleventh-grade students during a three-week instructional unit on slave narratives.   The results and interpretations of this study have been explored in detail, but it is worth noting the limitations of the study in order to contextualize the results. The limitations represent ideas not fully explored, whether they were intentionally omitted by the research design or whether they emerged as intriguing ideas during the process of research. The areas listed as limitations of the study probably deserve future exploration.

I went into the school with an understanding of how inquiry-based learning is implemented through the library. Through my observations and interviews, I shifted my perspective and saw inquiry from the teachers' point of view. With a three-week observation period, I could not see how teachers integrate inquiry into their classrooms over the long term. If the social studies teacher decided later in the school year to do a research project with the students (such a project was included on her Learning Goals Template for the slavery unit, but was not done), then it would be worthwhile to see the effects – on the classroom instruction, the use of an inquiry process as a framework for student investigations, and the integration of the library. It would also be valuable to see if the model of inquiry-based teaching were adapted to become inquiry-based learning.

The mediating influences used by teachers could have been explored more fully. The social studies teacher's use of questioning was analyzed because

questioning dominated her instruction; however, a full picture of both the social

studies and the English teachers' mediating techniques could not be seen in three

weeks. For example, Ms. SS told me in the post-observation interview (conducted

after she had been teaching the next unit for a couple of weeks) that she had set up a

mock Congressional debate where the students drew from primary source

documentation of the first time that Congress had openly debated the issues of slavery

to debate the merits of slavery and the merits of a free society. Certainly, it would

have been worthwhile to study the effects of such a different mediating technique on

the students' development of understanding and empathy.

Other mediating techniques should also be studied, especially those that could

be used by the librarian. The question arises whether the mediating influence must

always be in person, or whether the librarian can structure virtual environments that

support and provoke students to develop understanding and empathy. Certainly,

providing scaffolded access to multiple perspectives and context may have an effect,

even if they are only provided through a virtual venue like the library webpage.

Empathy development in association with current issues and other subject

areas was intentionally eliminated from consideration in the research design. To get a

full understanding of the development and impact of empathy, it would be important

to see empathy in a number of different contexts. One interesting aspect that

emerged as a hint of the importance of looking at empathy in different contexts came

from a class discussion in social studies on race in today's society. Most of the

students belong to "minority" ethnic groups, so they have personal experience with

society's attitudes about race.   When Ms. SS invited them to talk about race in today's

society, however, the students removed the issues from their personal perspectives to

talk about "others" who were portrayed in the media. They seemed not to be able to

talk about their own positionality (VanSledright, 2001), or, in other words, their

personal perspectives about race. The students admitted they were uncomfortable

talking about race; they seemed incapable of empathizing with their own emotions

and feelings. Instead, they seemed to forget the strategies of contextualization and

multiple perspectives that they had used to look at slave society, and they called only

upon the "sense of otherness."

Empathy development was not explored in other subject areas either.   The

research literature read for this study clearly ties empathy with the development of

historical understanding, but there may be a body of literature that describes the

impact of empathy on scientific or literary understanding as well. Although insights

about empathy were gained from this study, they are limited in context to the study of

history.

The effect of the digital environment on the use of primary sources and the

development of empathy was probably the largest area eliminated during the research

design. It is also the area that will grow most in importance as the digitization of

primary sources accelerates and students become more attuned to getting their

academic information digitally. I gained hints about the importance of surrounding

digital primary sources with contextual information, the necessity for organizing digital

resources thematically, and the imperative to connect digital platforms and links to the

daily instruction in the classroom. The area of digital access and inquiry was left largely unexplored by my case study, and it presents intriguing opportunities for further research.

Finally, the role of the school librarian was limited in this case study because of the parameters of the situation – a campus library, one librarian for 3,000 students, teachers who planned together without the librarian, and the lack of a focus on students' doing independent inquiry investigations. This case may be a typical case for many teachers and librarians, but the situations with full involvement of the librarian should also be studied to understand the role of librarians in instruction and the selection and use of primary sources to develop empathy.

Along with the many content parameters I imposed on my research were research-design limitations. I have explained why I chose to conduct a case study. The research, however, could have been designed in other ways, and each design would have yielded different perspectives and data on the research questions. A multi-site case study design would have provided different lenses on the situation of teaching with primary sources and historical fiction, yielding more generalizable results. By looking at themes across multiple sites, a researcher could look for cross-cutting themes and issues, without the danger of reporting results based on a one-sided perspective.

If the focus were on attitudes and perceptions, rather than actual practice, a questionnaire might have been the best research design. A questionnaire can be distributed to a large population that is chosen carefully to produce the possibility of

statistical significance in the findings. Questionnaires can be piloted to refine them carefully, they offer each participant exactly the same questions in the same order, and the researcher can reach high inter-rater reliability on the coding of the answers, even with a few open-ended questions.

Related to a questionnaire is interviewing as a research method. Although I did use interviews as part of my research design, I gathered most of my data from classroom observations. By interviewing a broader number of participants, including students and teachers from other schools, I would have gathered data from multiple perspectives. The student responses would be particularly valuable for the researcher who is trying to understand the students' point of view about primary sources, inquiry, and empathy. It would be illuminative to ask students to reflect on what would move them from empathy to action.

Some research literature in the field of history and primary sources has described research conducted by a participant observer. In other words, the researcher takes an active design role in the classroom, interacting with the students, planning activities, delivering assessments, structuring the access to primary sources, and advising the teacher. This type of research would have been most beneficial to me if I were testing a model or theory. With such a design, I would have been able to explore the effects of framing the instruction around an inquiry model.

Finally, I could have chosen to do a quasi-experiment. Although that level of control over the environment is difficult to achieve in the educational setting, this type of research design would have enabled me to compare classrooms where students

read primary sources, those where students read only secondary sources, and those that used texts that blended the two. I would have been able to differentiate the effects of primary versus secondary versus mixed sources on the development of empathy.

I recognize the limitations on my findings that result from my use of a case study. I still believe, however, that the case study was the best design for a rich view of actual classroom practice. I did not predict everything I found; in fact, I was surprised by some of the data. If I had chosen a design that I controlled more tightly, then I might have missed those surprises.

THEMES

Three big-idea themes emerge from this research, and they present opportunities for rethinking the role of libraries and examining the potential impact of empathy on the world of information seeking:

- Libraries as community centers / learning commons

- Libraries as participatory culture

- Empathy as a call to action

Libraries as Community Centers / Learning Commons

Libraries serve a vital function for the communities they serve – they provide equitable access to knowledge-based resources and the tools to create new knowledge. More importantly, however, libraries must foster and nurture the learning lives of their communities.

The typical library approach is to build a library program and then convince constituents that they need to avail themselves of the services that are offered. An empathetic approach to library services would flip the old paradigm to transform the library into a learning commons where the needs and strengths of the constituents drive the formation of the library program.

The challenge for the librarian in a learning-commons library is to create an environment where all participants feel that their ideas and assets are respected, their needs are met, and they have the chance to contribute their expertise and interests to others. Underlying the success of such a community center is strong, shared leadership and clear goals – this is not a "Wild West" approach, but a strategic blending of services to meet diverse needs and assets.

Libraries as Participatory Culture

Related to the idea of a library as a learning commons is the theme of libraries as participatory culture, in which libraries "allow the concept of community center to be extended to the Web (Lankes *et al.*, 2007c, unp.). In participatory libraries, as described by Lankes and his colleagues, libraries do not just add Web 2.0 tools to existing services. Instead, libraries foster conversations among their users by inserting interactive tools at the point of conversation by, for example, enabling users to post questions in the catalog when they are unable to find something and allowing those questions to be answered by a later user. The trail of contributed knowledge becomes a part of the catalog and the shared learning of the community; the catalog itself becomes a knowledge-building conversation (Lankes *et al.*, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c).

The dilemma for the librarian at Jones High School was that, even though she took advantage of the digital environment to post links to primary-source sites on her webpage, her website was not part of the conversation of the classroom. Both teachers used blogs as tools for communication of information outside of class, but the two blogs were neither integrated into the classroom conversation nor complementary to each other and neither was connected to the library digital presence. The students had haphazard digital support at best and no continuing or interactive digital conversation about their learning.

The potential for libraries to foster community conversations is limited only by our imaginations (and, of course, our technical expertise). By combining the participatory-library digital presence with the learning commons use of the library space, librarians can transform their libraries into dynamic and interactive community centers of learning that are both real and virtual. The participatory cultures of these libraries foster empathetic thinking throughout the community.

Empathy as a Call to Action

Ms. SS stated that her goal was to build enough understanding about the American dream and how different members of society have pursued the dream that her students work toward change. She hoped that, as the students developed an empathetic understanding of those who built America, they would recognize the potential in themselves to build the next vision of America.

Ms. SS is not alone in calling for empathy to lead to action. Piotr Cywinski, director of the Auschwitz-Birkenau State Museum, is leading an initiative to

reconceptualize the exhibition at Auschwitz. He explained the reasons for the new exhibit by saying that the exhibit must move visitors, particularly young people, beyond empathy to feel a "responsibility to the present" (Kimmelman, 2011, p. A3):

> *To me the whole educational system regarding the Holocaust, which really got under way during the 1990s, served its purpose in terms of supplying facts and information. But there is another level of education, a level of awareness about the meaning of those facts. It's not enough to cry. Empathy is noble, but it's not enough.*

Empathetic thinking has the potential to move people to responsible action, but only if the parameters of empathy development are in place. Those who seek information have a responsibility to pursue multiple perspectives, to seek authoritative context, and to assess the information for accuracy and bias. These are the very skills that school librarians strive to teach. The careful consideration of multiple viewpoints and balanced background information is not generally nurtured in the quick response, Google-at-your-fingertips environment that surrounds all of us. Librarians can and must take a leadership role in strengthening support for empathy development – perhaps through a combination of the learning commons and participatory online culture.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Since this research was a case study and necessarily limited in scope, many future research studies can be generated to follow up on some of the findings. The use of primary sources and their connection to the development of empathy will not look the same in another school with different students, teachers, and librarians. Hopefully, even though the particulars of each situation will be different, the

substance of the findings will hold up in all subsequent studies. Certainly, this case study benefited from the unusual emphasis on reading whole primary sources like the slave narratives, as well as from the combination of primary, secondary, and historical fiction sources. Other studies in situations with more limited usage of primary sources may not be able to see such a clear connection between primary sources and historical empathy.

I suggested several areas for further investigation in the section on Limitations. These included research in classrooms and libraries where students are expected to conduct inquiry-based learning in order to study the use of an inquiry process, the teaching of inquiry skills, and the integration of the library into the instructional unit. Also valuable would be further research on the mediating techniques of teachers, particularly as they are applied to inquiry, the use of primary sources, and the development of empathy. Although the use of questioning was very strong during my research, it may not have the same effect when delivered by another teacher. Mediating techniques that could be employed by the librarian, including digital scaffolding, would be important to study.

One prominent area of future research is in the area of the digital environment. Access to digital primary sources will continue to expand as libraries, museums, and archives continue digitizing their collections. Students increasingly expect research to be at their fingertips, and they do not expect to have to work to find what they want. Students do not naturally seek diverse perspectives, nor do they take the time to read background information before finding specific web sites. It will be important for

researchers and librarians to study the effect of the digital world on the use of primary sources, the skills and navigation used by students, and the effect on the development of empathy.

Research about empathy should be extended into the information science domain to investigate its relevance to both information retrieval and sense-making. Research should be designed to answer questions about connections among empathy, information seeking, learning, knowledge creation, and modes of interactive communication. The following represent a few of the interesting extensions of this research into the field of information science:

- The impact of adding empathy as a criterion for retrieving information (i.e., Why is the information credible to others?)
- The relationship between inquiry and empathy
- How interactive communication tools affect the development of empathy
- The effect of noncontextualized, immediate communication modes, like tweets and instant messaging, on the level of empathy in responses
- The relationship between website design and empathy
- How empathy impacts the development of knowledge and understanding
- How new models of libraries as learning commons and participatory cultures affect empathy

Research into the role of the library and librarian in today's increasingly digital world should be extended beyond the connection to the development of empathy. The themes of learning commons, participatory culture, and empathy-to-action

suggest changes in library programming in all areas, including collection development, public catalogs, reference services, instructional programs, community programs, literacy, virtual services, and library-facilitated communication. Implementation of changes that respond to these themes in all types of libraries should be studied to assess the effects on libraries, librarians, users, and communities.

As a researcher, I have found that my case-study research has opened up a world of questions that extend beyond my initial focus on the use of primary sources and historical fiction during historical inquiry and the impact on the development of historical empathy. I am most compelled to continue research in three areas. I would like to study inquiry and the librarian's agnostic approach to an inquiry model in both face-to-face and digital environments. The importance of empathy to the processing of information and transforming knowledge to understanding must be investigated. Finally, I would like to investigate the role of libraries of all types in fostering the development of empathy.

FINAL THOUGHTS

My investigation of the impact of teaching with primary sources and historical fiction on the development of historical empathy has followed the path of inquiry. I started with a book – Sam Wineburg's *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts* – about the teaching and learning of history. My text is marked up with questions and underlining and stars that compelled me to find the next article and the next and the next. I learned that history is a human story, not the never-ending dribble of facts and dates that I had "learned." I asked questions: Who gets to tell their history? How do

we know what history to believe? How do historians interpret historical documents? What can be done in school to bring history alive? What does it mean to understand history, not just develop knowledge of it?

Gradually, I found historians and history educators who wrote about historical empathy. I learned that empathy had been debunked for many years, but in the last few years, the idea has come back even stronger than before. I saw that history educators did not talk about an inquiry process; they talked only about specific skills that were important, like sourcing. I recognized that my perspective as a school librarian added a dimension to history education that was lacking – primarily in the area of inquiry. I thought of my own passion for primary sources and wondered how primary sources, with "visible" human creators, might affect the development of empathy and thus historical understanding.

From that iterative process emerged a case study that still has me questioning and thinking and planning for the next steps in my learning process. I look forward to the challenge of future research as I continue to explore the questions that drive my passion for inquiry, learning, and librarianship.

Even as research continues, school librarians can take the lessons learned from this case study to develop library programs that add value to the learning and teaching experiences of all students and teachers, preK-12. School libraries are at a critical point right now in this age of national standards, educational accountability, and declining budgets.   The resource-provider role of the school librarian must change. Clearly, librarians must continue to select and provide access to the best resources

that match the instructional needs of the students and curriculum, but librarians must seek a new balance between print and digital resources, as the "collection" increasingly shifts to electronic links, books and databases.

In addition, as the use of digital primary sources increases, librarians should be cognizant of the finding that primary sources will most effectively contribute to students' understanding if they span multiple perspectives and are surrounded by context – in other words, if they are presented in a way that supports the development of empathy. Librarians should integrate primary resource collections and links representing diverse viewpoints with contextual information and interpretations and should mediate their interpretation and use.

Third, librarians should use interactive Web tools to support active student engagement with the resources. Digital social tools provide an unprecedented opportunity for librarians to collaborate with classroom teachers and provoke conversations and shared learning around the important ideas of the curriculum. The conversation can continue in both the library and classroom, during and outside of school, at any time.

The roles of the librarian as teacher and instructional collaborator must also change. Although national standards call for informational reading, writing, and research, classroom teachers' preparation often does not include attention to an inquiry process or the teaching of inquiry skills. School librarians should provide explicit support and instruction in these areas, both by offering professional development to teachers and by teaching inquiry skills as a part of classroom learning

experiences. Librarians must thrust their library instructional programs out of the library environment and into the classrooms, perhaps through digital scaffolding (e.g., providing targeted mini-lessons that can easily be adapted into different curriculum areas). Librarians can also facilitate the school-wide development of curriculum-based performance tasks and a coherent curriculum of the thinking and information skills necessary to complete those tasks successfully.

The future of school libraries is in the hands of school librarians and researchers. School library programs must be adapted to meet the rapidly changing environment of the schools and the digital world of information. Lessons from this research study and others provide pieces of the new vision, but the active leadership, implementation, and flexibility of school librarians will determine the path.

APPENDIX A: PRE-OBSERVATION INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Name: _____ Role: _____ Date: _____

Demographic information: (e.g., experience, education, age)
Teaching/Librarianship goals:
Perceptions of roles of teacher and librarian/Preferred roles:
Attitude toward collaboration:
Attitude toward and experience with historical inquiry:
Skills of inquiry: • Comfort with own competence • Comfort in teaching • Effect of digital environment • Decisions about what to teach, what to scaffold
Perceived challenges with historical inquiry:
Attitude toward and experience with primary sources:
Skills needed for primary sources: • Skills for drawing meaning/interpretation • Effect of digital environment
Perceived challenges with primary sources:
Attitude toward and experience with historical fiction:

Perceived challenges with historical fiction:
Unit goals:
Perceptions of student knowledge and skills:
Desired student outcomes:

APPENDIX B: POST-OBSERVATION INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Name: _____ Role: _____ Date: _____

Unit Goals
- What did you want students to <u>understand (knowledge)</u> as a result of this unit?

- What <u>skills</u> did you want them to develop as a result of this unit?

Resources
- What skills are most important to enable students to draw meaning from primary sources?

- What effects on student learning do you see with the use of primary sources?

- What effects on student learning do you see with the use of secondary sources?

Inquiry
- How do you define inquiry? Do you have an inquiry process or framework that you follow when you are teaching inquiry?

- What do you think about inquiry-based teaching? How often do you incorporate inquiry into your teaching? What effects do you see? What are the challenges of inquiry-based teaching?

Use of Technology
- How does the use of technology affect your teaching and students' learning? What technology do you like to use? Why?

- Are there particular skills that students need to learn to be able to take advantage of learning in the digital environment?

- How does the digital environment affect your use of primary sources?

Historical Empathy (Cognitive and Emotive)
- How would you define historical empathy?

- Do you think that your students develop historical empathy? How do you know?

- What are the positive and negative effects of empathy?

- What skills and knowledge do students need to acquire in order to develop empathy? How do disciplinary skills impact the development of perspective taking and historical empathy?

- What relationship do you see, if any, between the use of primary sources and the development of historical empathy?

- What relationship do you see, if any, between the use of historical fiction, poetry, video, and music and the development of historical empathy?

APPENDIX C: OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Date: _____ Teacher/Librarian: _____

Description of Activity:

Content:	Skills (**T**aught or **S**caffolded):	Resources:

Assessment:

Teaching Strategies:	Student Strategies:

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL (page 2)   Date: _____

Running Record of Classroom/Library Observation	Empathy Char.
	Sense of otherness *A recognition that others think and feel differently from ourselves* **Shared normalcy** *An acceptance of the idea that the differences that others display do not mean that others are ignorant or old-fashioned, but that their actions made sense in their context* **Historical contextualization** *Explanations of past actions in terms of the values, attitudes and beliefs of the time; the evidence had to be convincing to the people of the time, but not necessarily to people of today* **Multiplicity of historical perspectives** *An understanding that multiple perspectives, both between groups and within groups, exist at any point in time, and that conflicts may arise between those perspectives* **Context connection to present – our own perspectives come from the past** *A call to social action with a recognition that our own perspectives depend on what has come to us from history*

APPENDIX D: CRITERIA FOR ASSESSING THE DEVELOPMENT OF

HISTORICAL EMPATHY

Cognitive Empathy Characteristics (Barton & Levstik, 2004)
Sense of otherness *A recognition that others think and feel differently from ourselves* **Shared normalcy** *An acceptance of the idea that the differences that others display do not mean that others are ignorant or old-fashioned, but that their actions made sense in their context* **Historical contextualization** *Explanations of past actions in terms of the values, attitudes and beliefs of the time; the evidence had to be convincing to the people of the time, but not necessarily to people of today* **Multiplicity of historical perspectives** *An understanding that multiple perspectives, both between groups and within groups, exist at any point in time, and that conflicts may arise between those perspectives* **Context connection to present** – our own perspectives come from the past *A call to social action with a recognition that our own perspectives depend on what has come to us from history*
Emotive Empathy (Stripling, Adapted from Bryant & Clark, 2006)
Inferences about feelings based on historical evidence *Makes inferences about actions and feelings of agents in the past based on available historical evidence and careful interpretation* **Understanding of feelings of historical agents** *Seeks to understand the feelings of historical agents within the context of their situation, not to identify with the agents or share their feelings* **Identification with roles of historical agents** *Places oneself in "shoes" or roles of historical agents in order to understand what it must have been like for that person*
Sympathy
Shared feelings with agents of the past *Rests on affinity and shared feelings with historical figures*

APPENDIX E: CODING FRAMEWORK* **

* *Coding Nodes in Italics were added during the coding process.*
** [Coding Nodes in brackets were found not to be relevant to the text being coded and were not used.]

Unit Goals
- Content Knowledge (Level of Understanding)
- Information/Inquiry Skills
- *Interpretation*

Instructional Design / Teaching Strategies
- Arc of Unit
  - Conceptual Framework
  - Essential Questions
  - *Student Skill Goals*
  - *Student Understanding Goals*
- Framework for Organizing Thinking
  - Analytic Stance
  - Chronological
  - *Connected Learning*
  - Opposing Viewpoints
- Method of Delivery
  - Questioning
  - [Problem Solving]
  - [Active Investigation by Students]
  - Didactic Delivery / Lecture
  - *Facilitated Response and Discussion*
  - *Interpretation, Conclusion*
- Assessment
  - Annotations and Notes
  - Original Products / Application
  - *Quotes*
  - Response to Prompts or Questions
  - Testing

Resources
- How Resources Found
- *How Resources Used*
- Nature of Resources Selected
  - Secondary Sources
  - Primary Sources
  - Historical Fiction/Poetry/Music/Video

- o *Digital*
- Reasons for Selection and Use of Resources
  - o Secondary Sources
  - o Primary Sources
  - o Historical Fiction/Poetry/Music/Video
- Organization and access to resources
  - o Librarian
  - o [Classroom Teacher]

Analysis and Processing of Resources
- How Resources Used by Teacher
  - o Background Context
  - o *Connections to Other Texts*
  - o *Drawing Conclusions*
  - o *Evidence from Text*
  - o Facts
  - o *Feelings*
  - o *Generating Student Thinking*
  - o Interpretation
  - o *Making Meaning from Complex Text*
  - o Perspectives
  - o Skill Development
- How Resources Used by Students
  - o *Background Context*
  - o *Connections to Other Texts*
  - o *Drawing Conclusions*
  - o *Evidence from Text*
  - o *Facts*
  - o *Interpretation*
  - o *Making Meaning from Complex Text*
  - o *Perspectives*
  - o Sources provided by teacher
  - o [Sources provided by librarian]
  - o [Sources located on own]
- Skills Taught or Scaffolded
  - o [Disciplinary]
  - o *Empathy*
  - o How Make Decisions
  - o Information/Inquiry
  - o *Interpretation*

Inquiry
- [Inquiry Framework]

- o [Use of Inquiry Framework]
- o [Attitude Toward and Comfort with Inquiry]
- Alignment of Instructional Design with Inquiry
  - o [Connect]
    - ▪ [Connect Knowledge]
    - ▪ [Connect Skills]
  - o [Wonder]
    - ▪ [Wonder Knowledge]
    - ▪ [Wonder Skills]
  - o Investigate
    - ▪ [Investigate Knowledge]
    - ▪ Investigate Skills
  - o Construct
    - ▪ Construct Knowledge
    - ▪ Construct Skills
  - o [Express]
    - ▪ [Express Knowledge]
    - ▪ [Express Skills]
  - o [Reflect]
    - ▪ [Reflect Knowledge]
    - ▪ [Reflect Skills]

Student Work
- *Class Assignments*
- *Research Paper*
- *Slave Narratives*

Development of Historical Empathy
- Skills Needed
  - o [Cognitive Empathy]
  - o [Emotive Empathy]
  - o [Sympathy]
- Knowledge Needed
  - o Cognitive Empathy
    - o *Context*
  - o [Emotive Empathy]
  - o [Sympathy]
- Cognitive Empathy / Perspective Taking
  - o Sense of Otherness
  - o Shared Normalcy
  - o Historical Contextualization
  - o Multiplicity of Historical Perspectives
  - o Context Connection to Present

- Emotive Empathy / Caring
    - Understanding Feelings within Context
    - Inferences about Feelings Based on Historical Evidence
    - Combination of Cognitive and Affective
- Sympathy
    - Identification with Agents of Past
    - Shared Feelings with Agents of Past
- Hindsight
- *Empathy to Action*

Effect of Use of Resources
- Perception of Impact
    - Secondary Sources
    - Primary Sources
    - Historical Fiction/Poetry/Music/Video

Challenges for Teacher and Librarian
- *Classroom Management*
- *Collaboration*
- *Communication*
- *Historical Contextualization*
- Inquiry-Based Instruction
- *Lack of Personnel*
- *Lack of Time*
- *Literacy Skills*
- *Selection of Resources*
- *Student Engagement*
- *Support from Administration*
- Use of Historical Fiction/Poetry/Music/Video
- *Use of Library*
- Use of Primary Sources
- *Use of Secondary Sources*

Use of Technology
- Types of Technology Used
    - Videos
    - Overhead
    - Computer Projection, PPT
    - Blog
    - Websites
    - Web 2.0
- Reasons for Using Technology
    - Access to Resources

- o Communication
- o *Finding Information*
- o Instruction
- o *Presentation of Student Work*
- *Challenges with Using Technology*
- Digital Skills
- Effect on Use of Primary Sources

Roles *and Goals*
- Librarian
- English Teacher
- History Teacher

Collaboration
- *Student with Student*
- *Teacher or Librarian with Student*
- Teacher with Teacher
- Teacher with Librarian

Demographics
- *Campus*
- *English Teacher*
- *Librarian*
- *School*
- *Social Studies Teacher*
- *Students*

Environment
- *Classroom*
- *Library*

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