

**UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH AND ACADEMIC ARCHIVES:
INSTRUCTION, LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT**

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
(Information)
in The University of Michigan
2010

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my dissertation chair, Elizabeth Yakel, for her unwavering support from the moment I entered the doctoral program. Her dedication to archival education and practice and her sincere encouragement served as a constant inspiration to my progress in the program. I want to also thank Stephanie Teasley for her support and understanding as the Director of Doctoral Studies. Her assistant Sue Schuon has also been invaluable to me in completing the requirements of the program and making my life easier as a doctoral student. I am also grateful to Paul Conway for his insights about the archives profession and for his stellar professional advice. Barry Fishman was a tremendous help to me in navigating the field of the learning sciences and encouraging my exploration of learning in archival settings. I feel privileged to have worked with such a tremendous and supportive committee.

It was a great pleasure and honor to be a student at the School of Information and I feel privileged to have worked with so many talented and hard-working faculty, staff, and students. I want to especially thank Fran Blouin, Ann Zimmerman, Eric Cook, Brian Hilligoss, Cory Knobel, and Ricky Punzalan for their kindness and encouragement over the years.

This dissertation would not have been completed without the help of some wonderful educators and professional archivists. I would like to personally thank Karen Jania and Heather Briston for the time they invested in this research project. I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Michelle McClellan for her dedication to the innovative use of

primary sources in the classroom and graduate student instructors Morgan Labin and Alex Lovit for their assistance in facilitating my research. There are also hundreds of archives professionals that volunteered their time to respond to my instructional survey, agreed to be interviewed, and attend my session at the Society of American Archivists meeting, and provide useful and constructive feedback along the way. I want to also thank Doris Malkmus, Barbara Rockenbach, and Peter Wosh for their perspectives and insights on teaching undergraduates in archives and special collections.

Finally, I am grateful to my husband Andrew and son Paul for their love, support, and laughter over the years. I am also thankful to my parents for the many sacrifices they have made to see me come this far.

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CHAPTER 1

Archives and the Undergraduate Research Movement

Concerns about the quality of undergraduate education (Boyer, 1987) have inspired numerous reports with guidelines for improving higher education in the United States (Boyer Commission 1998; Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2002, 2007; National Commission on the Future of Higher Education, 2006). Of these reports, the most influential has been the one produced by the Boyer Commission on Educating Undergraduates in the Research University recommending active engagement in research at the undergraduate level and the integration of various university resources to support inquiry-based learning and discovery.

Inquiry-based learning, or engaging students in actively questioning to acquire knowledge, is a prominent teaching strategy in the sciences (Edelson, Gordon, & Pea, 1999; National Research Council 1996). Justice and his colleagues (2009) trace inquiry as a teaching method in higher education to Suchman's 1961 paper "Inquiry Training: Building Skills for Autonomous Discovery" and a 1985 article "How I Kicked the Lecture Habit: Inquiry Teaching in Psychology" (Zachary, 1985) describing the application of inquiry learning in a college classroom. The theoretical roots of this teaching strategy lie in the notion that learners actively construct their understanding. Dewey's influential works *Democracy and Education* (1916) and *Experience and*

Education (1938) point to the connection between authentic experience and learning, advocating learning as a discovery process. Research in the learning sciences supports the use of authentic methods and contexts for learning (e.g., Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Collins, 2006). Edelson, Gordon, & Pea (1999) point to three benefits of inquiry in science education: (1) learning how to pose researchable questions, (2) learning how to investigate questions using authentic practice; (3) developing a deeper understanding of science (pp. 393-394).

Engaging in authentic research is one method of applying inquiry-based learning. There is a body of research connecting undergraduate research experiences with a range of benefits, including retention in an academic program (Nagda, et al., 1998), increased likelihood of entering and successfully completing graduate school (Hathaway, Nagda, & Gregerman, 2002; Nnadozie, Ishiyama, & Chon, 2001), and student satisfaction (Volkwein & Carbone, 1994). To incorporate the benefits of inquiry-based learning and authentic research experiences in the undergraduate curriculum, the Boyer Report (1998) outlined ten steps from improving higher education featuring concrete recommendations for administrators and faculty.

Three years after the publication of the Boyer Report, the Boyer Commission sponsored a survey of research universities to investigate how receptive these institutions were to the recommendations outlined in the report (Boyer Commission, 2002). The results of the survey indicated that the majority of the universities surveyed had implemented several of the recommendations, including the establishment of administrative bodies to oversee undergraduate research and expanded research opportunities for undergraduate students (Katkin, 2003). There was a discrepancy,

however, between the amount of research students engaged in. Katkin reports that research opportunities for students in the laboratory sciences and engineering had increased dramatically since the publication of the Boyer Report (1998). However, research opportunities for students in the social sciences and humanities were significantly lower (Katkin, p. 26). This finding clearly presents a challenge for academic administrators and teaching faculty, but it may be an opportunity for librarians and archivists that provide instruction for students.

Academic librarians have taken the Boyer Report (1998) seriously by including its recommendations for creating an inquiry-based learning environment in the Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2000). Archivists, on the other hand, are just beginning to acknowledge the potential of the Boyer Report recommendations to articulate their role in undergraduate instruction.

For years, archivists have asserted their position in fostering “research laboratories” for students and scholars (Dearstyne, 1987; Pugh, 2005) and have mused over their role as educators (Osborne, 1986; Cook, 1996; Robyns, 2002; Hendry, 2007). Yet a comprehensive examination of the instructional practices of archivists in the context of undergraduate education has not been undertaken. The publication of the Boyer Report (1998) and subsequent surveys of its implementation (2002, 2006 unpublished) provide an appropriate backdrop for understanding how academic archivists might contribute to the learning experiences of undergraduate students, particularly those in the humanities and social sciences. This is the underlying research question proposed in this dissertation: can archivists make a claim to contribute to the educational mission

of the university through the instruction they provide to students and the support they provide to faculty? The research studies reported in this dissertation investigate this question through three separate, interrelated studies. Utilizing a mixed methods approach, I examine the educational role of archivists by surveying instructional practices, interviewing dedicated experts in the field, and developing a rubric for assessing archival instruction.

Conceptual Framework

The studies in this dissertation are informed by a constructivist theory of learning that assumes students build, or actively construct, knowledge based on what they already know. Constructivist learning theory is based on research on how children learn and how experts process information differently than novices. The National Research Council's *How People Learn: Brain, Mind, Experience, and School* (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000) offers a broad overview of several decades of research on human learning. Incorporating findings from various disciplines such as neuroscience, cognitive science, and anthropology, the report identifies a new science of learning that offers research-based insights about the ways in which individuals with expertise differ from novices, how knowledge can transfer to new settings, and the role of the sociocultural environment in learning. Among the numerous recommendations *How People Learn* offers for the re-shaping of school curricula and improvements in teaching, three key findings were the focus of a subsequent report on *How Students Learn* (Donovan & Bransford, 2005).

1. Students come to the classroom with preconceptions about how the world works. If their initial understanding is not engaged, they may fail to grasp the new concepts and information, or they may learn them for

purposes of a test but revert to their preconceptions outside of the classroom.

2. To develop competence in an area of inquiry, students must (a) have a deep foundation of factual knowledge, (b) understand the facts and ideas in the context of a conceptual framework, and (c) organize knowledge in ways that facilitate retrieval and application.

3. A “metacognitive” approach to instruction can help students learn to take control of their own learning by defining learning goals and monitoring their progress in achieving them (p. 14-16).

The first principle is a classic tenet of constructivist learning theory (Fosnot, 2004) because it assumes that learners do not approach any new information with a *tabulae rasae*. All learners carry bring past experiences, perceptions, opinions and what they already know about a topic to any encounter with new information. Thus new information is processed against a backdrop of pre-existing knowledge. It is important for instructors to gain an understanding of what students already know in order to tailor instruction. The second principle identified in *How People Learn* states that students need to develop a deep foundation of knowledge of a subject. The third principle of learning emphasizes the need for students and learners, in general, to play an active role in their own learning, increasing their motivation and engagement.

Active learning and cooperative learning are two pedagogical strategies often incorporated into constructivist classrooms. There is evidence that active learning techniques such as peer teaching, group work, debates, and hands-on exercises help students acquire higher-level skills such as analysis, critical thinking, and evaluation. There is also research that supports the use of these pedagogical strategies in promoting student engagement and participation in the classroom (Prince, 2004). Both active and cooperative learning were also cited as part of Chickering and Gamson’s (1987, 1999) *Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education*, a well-respected and

influential guideline for teaching college students. The studies in this dissertation explore the implementation of active and cooperative learning strategies in archival instruction.

In addition to the constructivist learning framework that underpins this research, I examined the literature of several fields. I mined the archival literature for user studies focusing on students and their use of primary sources. I also thoroughly examined the literature on using primary sources in the classroom, both from the perspectives of archivists as well as educators. I noticed several gaps in both of these bodies of literature and framed the research questions driving these studies to address those gaps.

To add context to my exploration of the educational role of archivists, I broadened my examination to include the literature on information literacy and history education. Although these studies do not directly refer to archivists, their findings shed light on the information seeking behavior of undergraduates and the mental processes involved in historical scholarship. I also turned to the field of educational psychology to shed light on how people learn and what constitutes effective instructional strategies. This led me to the literature on undergraduate research where I found no iteration of the role archivists could play in providing authentic research experiences for students in the humanities and social sciences.

The Landscape of Archival Instruction

A Brief Look at Practice

The Society of American Archivists (SAA) recently sponsored a session entitled “Collaborative Teaching and Learning in the Archives” during their 2009 annual meeting in Austin, Texas. This was not the first session focusing on teaching and instruction at a conference for archives practitioners. In fact, in the last eight years, five conference

sessions specifically targeted the role of archivists as educators. Back in 2002, a session entitled “Go Show It On the Mountain: Using Primary Sources in Teaching” focused on how archives professionals are working with teachers to give students hands-on experiences using records. Two years later, in 2004, a session entitled “Developing Primary Resource-Based Educational Programs that Work” provided examples of educational programs using primary sources for students from elementary school through college. At the 2006 SAA conference, a session entitled “Archivists are Teachers: New Ideas and Techniques for Fostering Learning in the Archives” focused on the role of archivists in educating users through programs such as History Day and online tutorials. Finally, in 2008, a session entitled “Archivists as Educators: Why Should We Teach?” examined a curriculum for archivists educating future teachers.

The numerous SAA conference sessions addressing the educational role of archivists illustrate the growing professional interest in expanding the traditional view of archivists as custodians of primary sources. This is a critical time for archivists seeking to make their profession relevant to their constituencies and to the public. Teaching is a very public form of outreach with tangible outcomes and, as these sessions demonstrate, archivists are eager to learn techniques and strategies for implementing and improving user instruction. Increasingly, most archivists work in a climate that demands evidence of successful programming in order to remain sustainable.

Archivists’ involvement in education is nothing new. Elsie Freeman (1978) pioneered the term “archival education” in the late 1970’s while writing about outreach. She advocated acknowledging the differences among archival users tailoring educational programming to meet their distinct needs. She also urged practitioners to expand their

view of “the concept of the archivist as professional to include the education archivist” (p. 151). Under her guidance, the United States National Archives and Records Administration (NARA), in 1977, launched a “teaching with documents” program designed to make reproductions of significant documents available for high school history teachers to use in their classrooms (Potter & Schamel, 2005). As part of this program, NARA continues to publish articles in journals such as *Social Education* with lesson plans and strategies for incorporating primary source documents in the classroom. NARA also hosts Primarily Teaching, a two-week educational program aimed at teachers as well as additional workshops at conferences and meetings.

In addition to this instruction, NARA offers the Digital Classroom on their website, featuring digitized documents, lesson plans, and worksheets freely available to educators. Most recently, NARA added a Learning Center to their central building on the National Mall in 2006-2007. In the Constitution in Action Learning Lab, middle school students play out the roles of archivist and researcher, learning about issues of preservation and the interpretation of documents (Potter 2007). Coupled with the Lab is the ReSource room where students, educators, and other visitors can examine facsimiles of documents, make copies of them, and learn more about NARA’s holdings. These developments suggest that NARA is seriously considering the role of archives in education and making strides in promoting the use of primary sources in the classroom for both teachers and students.

The archivists at NARA are not the only professionals developing instructional materials to support the use of primary sources in the classroom. The Library of Congress’ American Memory Project has been an important source of digitized primary

sources and lesson plans for years (Morgan, 2002; Singleton & Giese 1999). Many of the instructional resources provided by NARA and the Library of Congress are aimed at K-12 educators and students and complement efforts to improve the teaching of history in public schools. Recommendations and curriculum standards issued by such organizations as the American Historical Association (2003), the National Center for History in the Schools (1996), and the National Council for the Social Studies (1994) have encouraged the use of primary sources in the classroom to aid in the inquiry process. One tangible result of these efforts to improve history education is National History Day, an event that encourages K-12 students to actively engage in the process of doing history by using primary sources (Gorn, 1998).

Archivists in college and university archives are also beginning to incorporate instructional materials to support academic coursework and online tutorials on their websites (Yakel, Krause, & McKay, n.d.). The studies in this dissertation seek to probe the extent to which academic archives provide instruction to undergraduate students.

Scholarship on Archivists as Educators

The growing professional interest in instruction discussed above mirrors an increasing amount of scholarship on the educational role of archivists. While some of the early thinkers about the archivists' role in education (e.g., Freeman, 1978; Osborne, 1986; and Taylor, 1972) espoused a clear connection between primary sources and the classroom, this literature is still in its infancy. Yakel (2004) pointed out that until recently, little was written about what was taught to users of archives. She called for more transparency in archival user education and a shift away from the near-universal model of the one-shot archival orientation in which researchers are taught how to

complete their current project in one particular repository. Yaker's research on the concept of archival intelligence (2003) sustains that there are distinct skills and a conceptual knowledge associated more generally with conducting research in archives. Yet the orientation model, based on a physical tour and an overview of procedural rules, does not actively teach these concepts.

In the UK, a report found that archivists were reluctant to view their repositories as places of learning. In 2004, the Museums, Libraries, and Archives Council (MLA) in the United Kingdom launched an initiative entitled "Inspiring Learning for All" in order to motivate and assist cultural institutions to encourage and measure learning. A report analyzing the archival community's reaction to the initiative found a significant amount of resistance (Dodd, et al., 2005). The report's authors explored what learning meant to archives staff and the barriers to implementing the MLA initiative. In a review of the literature, the authors were disappointed to find very little published about learning and archives. Based on interviews, the authors found many barriers to implementing the learning initiative. One of the largest issues that emerged was that the majority of archives staff did not see education and learning as a critical role in their profession whereas cataloging and preservation were their main responsibilities. Furthermore, the archivists exhibited a more formal understanding of learning very much connected to schools rather than the broad, informal notion of learning that the MLA initiative recommended. In other words, the archivists had difficulty identifying and understanding how learning could take place from small, everyday interactions in an archival setting and, therefore, lacked the skills to conduct evaluations of the impact of learning on their users.

The results of the MLA study are very telling, revealing a general reluctance on the part of archivists to view themselves as educators. This is despite some archival literature that encourages archivists to consider their role in education. For example, Osborne (1986) offered concrete suggestions for archivists to become more involved in schools by participating in instruction. Cook (1997) described an experiment in Canadian public programming that connected archivists and educators. Hendry (2007) also considered opportunities for archivists to become involved in K-12 education. In her article she argued that the shift towards inquiry-based learning provides ample opportunities for archivists to educate teachers in how to ask “deep questions” about documents, the kinds of questions dealing with authenticity and context that are important to critical thinking.

In the academic archives setting, Greene (1989) describes his outreach efforts to professors while serving as the archivist of Carleton College. Robyns (2001) wrote about his experiences teaching a critical thinking workshop to undergraduates at Northern Michigan University. Dearstyne (1987) imagined the academic archives as a learning laboratory for sharpening document interpretation and historical research skills (p. 84) and exploring research methodologies commonly used in humanities scholarship. The concept of the archives as a learning laboratory for students in the humanities and social sciences evokes the recommendations of the Boyer Report (1998) for authentic research practice at the undergraduate level. College and university archives and special collections are a potentially valuable resource for undergraduate students needing practice in secondary data analysis, the interpretation of documents, and how primary sources fit into a research argument.

Given the discussion of archivists as educators in the literature and in practice, what would the role of the academic archivist be in supporting undergraduate education? The academic archivist's knowledge of the institution's history, organizational structure, functions and culture, as well as the primary sources account for an unmatched expertise on campus. The expertise of the archivist has the potential to be influential in supporting the mission of the academic institution to educate its students. However, this expertise is little understood as it applies to instruction, particularly in the context of undergraduate education.

Examining the Role of Archivists in Undergraduate Education

With the backdrop of the Boyer Report (1998) and other recommendations for reforming undergraduate education, I sought to examine the instructional activities undertaken by academic archivists in three separate, but related studies. The studies build upon one another's findings, but are intended to be stand-alone, academic papers that include a literature review, methodological description, analysis of findings, and discussion. I used a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods to investigate instructional content, strategies, and methods of assessment in my efforts to understand the work academic archivists employ to support undergraduate education.

In this dissertation the many varieties of manuscript and archival repositories on college and university campuses are simply referred to as archives. This is not meant to undermine the important differences among these types of repositories, but rather, highlights the distinction between libraries that primarily collect secondary sources and repositories that house primary source materials. Similarly, the individuals who curate

primary sources are simply called archivists or archives professionals despite the various titles that are associated with these professionals.

The first study, presented in Chapter Two, seeks to provide a baseline of information about the instructional practices of archivists in a variety of institutions. Based on a survey of over 200 practicing archivists, the study is a broad exploration of the kinds of instructional activities and resources archivists provide to various users. I present findings about the logistics, methods, and delivery of instruction as well as barriers archivists face and their approaches to assessment. The findings of this study led directly to the design and implementation of the two subsequent Chapters and have informed my thinking about how instruction fits into the professional activities of archivists.

The second study, in Chapter Three, goes beyond describing the instructional practices of archivists to isolate their pedagogical role in undergraduate education. The study, consisting of twelve semi-structured interviews, is an in-depth exploration of the role of archivists in undergraduate education. The participants reflect on their own extensive instructional experience to discuss what undergraduates need to learn about primary sources, which teaching strategies work best with this user group, and what types of assessment have been employed in improving instruction. The findings point out that there are a growing number of dedicated professionals invested in working with teaching faculty to enhance the learning experiences and research opportunities of undergraduate students. This study also reflects on the value of thinking like an archivist in teaching students how to use primary sources.

The final study, outlined in Chapter Four, introduces an assessment tool, in the form of a rubric, to measure student learning from archival instruction. The study examines what students in an undergraduate history course at a large state university learn from archival instruction through a quasi-experimental field study. Using a pre-and post document analysis exercise, I compare students who have not received this instruction with those who have. The findings also build upon previous work in the archival literature on the components of what students need to know to effectively work with archives and primary sources. The results indicate that archival instruction can make a significant difference in students' learning experiences.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to identify the kinds of educational practices archives professionals implement, to elicit how they view their role in undergraduate research and education, and to measure their impact on a group of undergraduate students. This study has implications for teaching with primary sources as it seeks to uncover the archivist's contribution to the process of instruction and learning. This research also examines the components of archival instruction and how they relate to what undergraduate students need to know in order to effectively work with primary sources. Identifying these elements is the first step in developing a curriculum for learning archival research skills at the undergraduate level.

In addition to the content of instruction, I also consider pedagogical strategies that are more effective with students and how archivists can assess their instructional services through a standard tool in the form of a rubric. This is one of the first studies to address

the topic of learning from archival instruction and seeks to understand what students can gain from their experience in the archives. Insights gained from this research have implications for understanding the needs of students as users of archives and the ways in which archivists can support the learning outcomes of teaching faculty. This focus on learning and the outcomes of archival instruction has implications for how archivists are trained in their graduate programs and how professionals conceptualize their role as educators.

Finally, this study addresses the role of academic archivists, more generally, in higher education. As part of institutions with educational missions, college and university archives and special collections contain a multitude of original resources and offer a suite of instructional services that can contribute to the learning experiences of students. With the increasing emphasis placed on undergraduate research opportunities to foster authentic and inquiry-based learning, archivists have the potential to provide research laboratories for students in the humanities and social sciences seeking to develop the skills that will serve them in their academic and professional careers

CHAPTER 2

Learning in the Archives: A Report on Instructional Practices

Archivists know surprisingly little about the content of each other's archival education classes. The time for sharing information about these different approaches to archival user education has arrived. (Yakel & Torres, 2003, p. 60)

According to the Archival Census and Education Needs Survey (A*CENSUS) conducted in 2004, education ranks among the top ten most important issues cited by archives professionals (Walch, 2006). A broad term, education encompasses the training required to become an archivist as well as the instruction provided to researchers *by* archivists to facilitate use of their collections. Osborne (1986) pointed out the critical role of archives professionals in teaching individuals how to use primary sources. Since his writing in the mid-1980s, several articles have been published in the professional literature encouraging archivists to build stronger ties to educators and describing examples of successful collaborations. What is missing, however, is a comprehensive overview of the types of instruction archivists provide to their users. Given that archivists spend the largest amount of their time engaged in reference services and access (Walch, 2006, p. 337), a better understanding of their role as educators can encourage further investigation of the teaching and learning environment provided in archives and

special collections. This chapter reports on the results of a survey of instructional practices in a variety of repositories that is designed explicitly to contextualize the level of effort expended by archivists and to build a foundation for research on how archivists engage with undergraduate learning.

Literature Review

In the published archival literature, very little is actually known about the kinds of instruction primary source repositories provide to their users. Most of the literature relates anecdotal accounts or brief case studies. Greene (1989) described his outreach activities as the archivist at Carleton College. He proactively read course catalogs and sent letters to faculty to encourage them to consider using the archives in their classes. Greene points out the importance of archivists in assisting undergraduates and argues that “[i]t is the archivist’s responsibility to make the sources in his or her archives relevant to the liberal arts curriculum” (p. 36).

Robyns (2001) wrote specifically about how archivists could teach critical thinking skills to undergraduates. Synthesizing the education and psychology literatures on critical thinking, he identified eight guidelines to help archivists focus on the particular skills that the custodians of primary sources can help foster. To illustrate how archivists can communicate these skills to an undergraduate audience, Robyns described a critical thinking workshop taught by the Northern Michigan University’s archivist. The first part of the two-day workshop consisted of an overview of primary sources, historical research and critical thinking, after which the archivist engaged the students in a research exercise with a packet of document reproductions. For the next day, the students were instructed to examine the documents, selecting the ones that supported a particular thesis,

and preparing an analysis of this process. This practical example illustrates how archivists can not only introduce undergraduates to the multitude of resources available to them on campus, but can also encourage an interest in primary sources by engaging them in a critical thinking exercise. As Robyns attests, there is a clear mandate for college and university archives to “actively assist in the creation of ‘independent thinkers’” (p. 383).

Several unpublished studies reported as Master’s theses or Doctoral dissertations have examined academic archives and their efforts to reach out to college students. Several Master’s theses from the University of North Carolina’s School of Library and Information Sciences have looked more deeply at instruction efforts. Katte (2002) investigated web-based instruction efforts to help remote users encountering finding aids and digitized resources online. She analyzed 30 archival websites using a framework developed by Tissing (1984) to guide reference interviews. Overall, she found that research guides were the most popular type of resource available through websites; however, she did not find any tutorials on archival practices in her sample and none of the repositories included all of the types of information in Tissing’s framework (1984). The most common type of information she found on archive websites identifies available resources and conveys photo duplication and reading room policies. However, an explanation of primary sources was rare (only one-third of the websites included this) and guidance on the interpretation of finding aids was the least implemented type of information in her sample. Based on her findings, Katte created a model of online archival user education consisting of 4 main categories: (1) Archival Orientation; (2) Intellectual Access; (3) Physical Access, (4) Utilization.

Gillispie (2005) used Katte's findings to conduct a content analysis of 30 archival websites to evaluate the types of instruction they offered to remote users. She found that most of the websites did offer some educational resources in the form of definitions, research guides, rules, and tutorials. The majority (24) included rules and regulations but less than half (12) offered online definitions. Overall, Gillispie found that the archival websites she surveyed offered very little instruction about using finding aids and the resources were repository-specific except at one institution. Yakel, Krause, & McKay (n.d.) took the work of Gillispie and Katte one step further by conducting a content analysis of 47 online tutorials about primary sources during the summer of 2008. Although some of the tutorials were very promising and highlighted useful technological innovations, very few were interactive and none included an evaluation strategy of the tutorial itself.

Two Master's students at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill conducted studies of archives efforts towards undergraduates. In his thesis, Dietz (2005) examined archives' outreach efforts toward the undergraduates of 23 institutions. More specifically, he analyzed mission statements and interviewed archivists about various elements of their outreach efforts. He found that only half of the repository websites included a statement about undergraduates and there was a curriculum mandate to use primary sources in only three of the schools. Thus, at a majority of the archives, reaching out to undergraduates was not formally part of their mission. Consistent with this, Dietz concluded that while most repositories have some kind of outreach activities aimed at this constituency, engagement with undergraduates is mostly informal and varies across institutions. According to Dietz, the relationship between the archivist and faculty

members is a critical factor in the prevalence of this type of outreach program. Established avenues of communication (in the form of advisory committees or liaison departmental responsibilities) exist in only five of the institutions of the Dietz study. The most successful efforts result from a proactive role on the part of the archivist, a finding that is consistent with Chute (2000) and Robyns (2001). In terms of instruction, the majority (87%) conducts in-house orientations and only two of the institutions had a formal evaluation program in place. Four of the archivists Dietz spoke with had created a tutorial while others point their users to existing tutorials online. Although Dietz does not ask archivists about the content of their instruction programs, another Master's thesis addresses this question specifically.

Allison's (2005) thesis reports on a mail survey of eighty-five university archives. She found that almost all the repositories (96%) offer some kind of classroom instruction. Furthermore, instruction is usually related to an assignment, lasts about an hour and is tailored to a smaller class. While archivists have provided instruction for a variety of disciplines, history and English are the most prominent. Allison found that frequent issues covered during the instruction include handling the documents, requesting materials, and departmental rules. These are always presented in over half of the institutions surveyed. Instruction on the use of print and electronic finding aids, on the other hand, was not as frequent. Similarly, a conceptual understanding of the sources or how to interpret them is presented much less frequently than procedural issues such as use guidelines and registration.

Although Allison's paper presents some basic findings about instruction in college and university archives, her focus is on content rather than pedagogy or

assessment, two factors that are critical in understanding instruction and learning. While content of instruction is important, delivery can be just as significant. Libraries and museums have largely adopted active learning techniques for instructing users (Allen, 1995; Drueke, 1992; Falk & Dierking, 2000; Hein, 1998). Active learning is grounded in constructivism, a theory of learning in which acquiring knowledge is based on the idea that learners construct their own meanings and understandings (Fosnot, 2004). This learner-focused approach to pedagogy assumes that individuals are not empty vessels that need to be filled with knowledge, but that they can gauge new information against what they already know and have experienced. Some of the pedagogical implications of this theory include providing learners with ways to actively engage learning through authentic experiences that mimic real-life situations, providing ways for learners to interact with their peers, and reflection about the tasks they have completed (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). Based on the literature, it is unclear whether archivists utilize active learning techniques in their instruction.

The study reported in this chapter replicates and extends Allison's (2005) survey of college and university archives' instructional practices in a number of ways. For example, this study surveys a broader sample of respondents to include representatives from archives, special collections, museums, and government agencies. This study also places more emphasis on instructional strategies, delivery, and evaluation to deepen our understanding of archival instruction. The study specifically seeks to answer the following research questions:

- (1) What kinds of instruction do archives and special collections offer?
- (2) What do instructional sessions cover?

- (3) What kinds of instructional resources do archivists make available to their users?
- (4) How do archivists support students' education?

Method

Development of Survey Instrument

This chapter reports on an internet-based survey of archivists' instructional practices. The survey instrument built upon Allison's (2005) paper-based questionnaire, but went through several iterations through the process of pre-testing. As a result, the scope and the number of questions were expanded to elicit responses from a broader variety of repositories about instruction to a wider audience of users. In the literature on survey methodology, one significant way to reduce measurement error is to evaluate survey questions for clarity, level of difficulty, and their ability to represent concepts (Groves, 2004). In developing this survey, I utilized two methods of question evaluation: expert reviews and cognitive interviews (Groves, 2004, p. 242-246). Several faculty members with experience working in archival institutions provided valuable suggestions for improvement. In addition, I pre-tested drafts of the survey in paper format with three archives and special collections professionals in April and May 2008. The three professionals were asked to engage in "concurrent think-alouds" while answering the questions (p. 246). They talked through their responses, pointing out questions that were unclear or difficult to answer and offering suggestions for improvement. Both their responses and suggestions helped to clarify and improve the questionnaire.

I designed the survey instrument according to standard guidelines for Internet surveys (Dillman, 2007). My goals were to expand Allison's scope by surveying non-

academic archives in addition to college and university repositories, deconstruct the elements of instructional sessions, and learn more about the role of archivists in providing instruction to various user groups. The four research questions guided the development of the survey instrument.

Table 2.1
Organization of Survey Instrument

Research Questions	Survey Sections
RQ1: What kinds of instruction do archives and special collections offer?	Section 1: Background information
RQ2: What do instructional sessions cover?	Section 2: Instruction in your repository
RQ3: What kinds of instructional resources do archivists make available to their users?	Section 2: Instruction in your repository
RQ4: How do archivists support students' education?	Section 3: Additional instructional resources
	Section 4: Instruction for students
	Section 5: Repository's relationship to professors/teachers

The survey instrument consists of five sections and thirty questions (see Appendix 2.1). Response categories throughout the instrument were derived from iterative pre-testing. The first section inquires about respondents' background information, such as their repository type and job title. Section two consists of questions about the instructional practices in their repository. Questions were posed about the types of users for which instruction was provided, the number and length of typical instructional sessions as well as their content, the number of staff members who teach and any barriers to instruction. The third section asks about additional resources provided, differentiating between print and online materials. Sections four and five were only available to those respondents who indicated that they provide instruction to students. Section four focuses on the ways that archivists support students' education by asking questions about the disciplines that utilize primary sources in teaching, what professionals hoped students

gain from instruction, and what kind of feedback archivists collect from students. The next section inquires about archivists' relationship to teaching faculty. Respondents were asked what role professors and/or teachers play in providing instruction to students as well as the number who have requested this service in the last year. The final section asked respondents if they were willing to provide contact information for future studies and any additional comments they would like to provide.

Sample of Participants

In conducting her survey, Allison (2005) chose to send paper surveys to the heads of repositories belonging to the Association of Research Libraries. As a result, her sample was small (n=85). In contrast, I wanted to send the survey to individuals directly engaged in instruction in their institution and I wanted to receive a higher number of responses. To achieve this, I targeted members of the Society of American Archivists' (SAA) Reference, Access, and Outreach (RAO) section. SAA is the country's largest professional association for archivists. Members can choose to participate in two of the existing 13 sections. I selected the RAO section because I assumed that the members would be more likely to participate in instruction because of their work in familiarizing researchers with their collections through reference, the creation of access systems, and various outreach programs. Also, at the time (May 2008), there were over 700 individual members of this section.

There were some risks to using the RAO section as my sample. Firstly, the self-selected members of RAO are not necessarily a representative sample of all professional archivists in the United States. Since these individuals may be more inclined to provide instruction, their responses may over-represent the actual amount of instruction that

typically takes place in archives, leading to response bias. A more representative sample would have, at minimum, included members of additional SAA sections like College and University Archives. My choice to limit the sample to members of the SAA also potentially excluded librarians and curators who teach in special collections and are members of professional organizations such as the American Library Association and the Rare Books and Manuscripts Section of the Association of College and Research Libraries.

In the process of creating the sampling frame for the survey, I obtained permission to use the section list to invite members to participate in the survey.¹ I eliminated duplicates and individuals who had pre-tested the survey. I also removed students, consultants, funding agencies, and consortia from the list because they typically do not directly engage in instruction. Finally, I researched unaffiliated individuals, removing from the list those without an institutional affiliation. In the end, a total of 370 individuals were invited to participate in the survey.

The survey instrument was administered by the online application Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com) in May 2008. During the course of the month in which the survey was open (June 2008), I sent two reminders in addition to the initial invitation. Several professionals contacted me to request being removed from the list because they did not actively engage in instruction. Several individuals had invalid email addresses or had previously opted out of taking Survey Monkey questionnaires. This dropped the total sample down to 348.

¹ The Society of American Archivists made the names of the Reference, Access, and Outreach section members available to me with the caveat that I respect the privacy of the individuals and destroy their contact information once the invitations had been sent. I have agreed to abide by the requirements.

Results

Background Information

I received a total of 208 responses to the survey. The overall response rate was just under 60%.² More than half of the respondents (54%) work in academic archives, special collections, or both (Q1³). The other respondents work for government (9%) religious (6%), or corporate archives (6%), museums (6%), public libraries (3%), and historical societies (5%). Among the other repositories described are private research libraries, secondary schools, non-profit agencies, and hospital archives (see Figure 2.1).

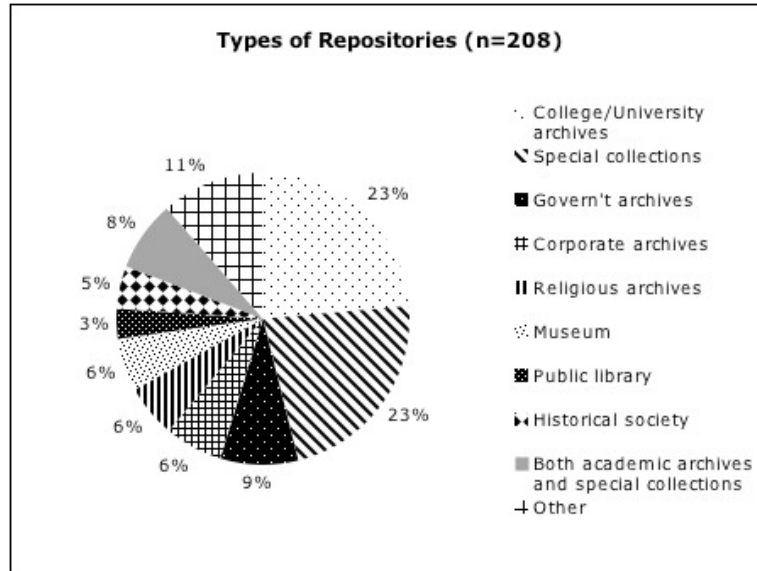


Figure 2.1. Types of Repositories Surveyed

Nearly half of the respondents (48.8%) identified their job title as "archivist," although librarians, directors, curators, and records managers also took the survey (Q2). Over one-third (38.6%) of the respondents reported that 2-3 staff members in their repository

² This is an impressive response rate considering the 21% average response rate for an e-mail generated survey without an incentive (Kaplowitz, Hadlock & Levine, 2004).

³ Question 1

conduct instruction (Q11). However, one-quarter (26.7%) have only one staff member responsible for this duty.

Characteristics of Instruction

The respondents surveyed offer many types of instruction to their users. Almost all of them (87.8%) engage in one-on-one instruction in the form of reference interviews (Q3). Presentations, including orientations, and tours are also offered by the majority (80%) of respondents. One-third of the respondents hold workshops for college professors and K–12 teachers. Only about ten percent offer a full-term course for students. Additional kinds of instruction described in the open-ended responses include internships, curriculum design, exhibits, lectures, and employee training.

The respondents to this survey were actively engaged in instruction as indicated by the number of sessions they provided in the previous year (Q6). The majority (66.3%) offered more than five instructional sessions while more than one-third provided more than sixteen sessions. As can be seen in Table 2.2, very few of the respondents did not provide any instructional sessions in the previous year. Instruction is aimed primarily at students (K-12 through graduate school), staff members, local history groups, and genealogists (Q4). Undergraduates are the most common group receiving instruction from three-fourths (75.6 %) of the respondents. One hundred percent of college and university archives, and 89.1% of special collections teach this user group. Another equally common group receiving instruction is staff members within the institution. Three-fourths of the respondents (74.6%) instruct staff and one-third (36%) provide instruction for teaching faculty. Among the additional groups identified in open

comments are alumni, members of the general public, community members, and volunteers.

Instructional sessions typically last one hour and take place in the repository's reading room (Q7). Over three-quarters (79.4%) of respondents indicated that they provide instruction in the reading room (Q5, see Table 2.4). Only six out of forty-seven (13%) of college and university archivists responding to the survey actually have a classroom in their repository. Many respondents also provide instruction off-site in library or school classrooms, conference rooms, offices, and other spaces. Very few offer online instruction in the form of online chat or the virtual environment. These response categories were included to gauge the extent of technology archives and manuscripts might use to instruct their users. At this point, only a handful of repositories provide online chat such as the Vaughan Memorial Library at Acadia University.⁴ Unfortunately, contacting the few respondents who indicated they conduct instruction virtually did not elicit any feedback.

⁴ Availability of chat reference is indicated at: <http://libguides.acadiau.ca/content.php?pid=1204>

Table 2.2
Number of Instructional Sessions Taught

Repository Type	Number of Instructional Sessions Taught Last Year					
	1-5	6-15	16-30	31-50	Over 50	None
College/university archives (n=48)	29.2%	41.7%	14.6%	6.2%	6.2%	2.1%
Special collections (n=43)	20.9%	23.3%	16.3%	16.3%	20.9%	2.3%
Both (n=16)	0	31.2%	25%	25%	18.8%	0
Government archives (n=15)	33.3%	33.3%	0	6.7%	26.7%	0
Corporate archives (n=11)	45.5%	27.3%	18.2%	0	9.1%	0
Religious archives (n=10)	50%	30%	10%	10%	0	0
Museum (n=12)	50%	16.7%	8.3%	0	8.3%	16.7%
Public library (n=7)	42.9%	28.6%	0	0	14.3%	14.3%
Historical society (n=10)	30%	20%	50%	0	0	0

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Table 2.3
Number of Groups Receiving Instruction

	K-12	Comm. College students	Undergrads	Grads	Profs/ Teachers	Genealogists	Local history groups	Staff
College/university archives (n=48)	41.7%	20.8%	100%	75%	31.2%	31.2%	62.5%	79.2%
Special collections (n=46)	39.1%	39.1%	89.1%	87%	28.3%	39.1%	67.4%	73.9%
Both (n=16)	56.2%	37.5%	100%	93.8%	25%	50%	56.2%	62.5%
Government archives (n=17)	58.8%	41.2%	58.8%	64.7%	52.9%	58.8%	70.6%	76.5%
Corporate archives (n=12)	25%	0	16.7%	25%	16.7%	25%	0	100%
Religious archives (n=12)	16.7%	8.3%	41.7%	50%	50%	33.3%	33.3%	75%
Museum (n=12)	25%	25%	58.3%	75%	25%	41.7%	50%	83.3%
Public library (n=7)	42.9%	42.9%	57.1%	57.1%	57.1%	71.4%	28.6%	42.9%
Historical society (n=10)	100%	90%	90%	80%	90%	100%	90%	50%

Note: Percentages do not total 100 because respondents were able to pick multiple groups.

Table 2.4
Location of Instructional Sessions

Location of Instruction (n=195)	Frequency	Percent
Reading room	155	79.4%
Library classroom	57	29.2%
School classroom	43	22.1%
Classroom in repository	42	21.5%
Off-site	18	9.2%
Conference/meeting room	13	7%
Other	12	6.2%
Office	6	3%
Online chat	3	1.5%
Virtual environment	3	1.5%

Respondents were also asked to cite the three main barriers to providing more instruction in their repository (Q10). Insufficient time and space were overwhelmingly cited by over half of the respondents. This result combined with the prevalence of teaching occurring in the reading room suggests that space for instruction may be a key issue for college and university archives. Over one-third of respondents (34%) cited a lack of interest from professors and teachers as an obstacle to providing instruction. Additional obstacles include lack of interest from students, lack of support from administration, insufficient equipment and Internet access, and lack of funding and staff.

Table 2.5
Obstacles to Instruction

Obstacles to Instruction (n=183)	Frequency	Percent
Insufficient time	117	63.9%
Insufficient space	95	51.9%
Lack of interest from professors and teachers	63	34.4%
Lack of interest from students	34	18.6%
Insufficient equipment	34	18.6%
Lack of support from administration	25	13.7%
Insufficient Internet access	23	12.6%
Insufficient staff	16	8.7%
Lack of funding	5	2.7%

The content of instructional sessions depends on a number of factors including the audience's experiences and needs, the subject matter, and the needs of the instructor

requesting the session (Q8-9, see Table 2.6). Procedural information encompasses the actual doing of archival and manuscripts research. It encompasses the rules and regulations governing use of the materials, how to search a catalog and request items. The results of this survey indicate that archivists and curators teach procedural information frequently in their instructional sessions, regardless of the audience or purpose of the lesson. Repository rules, procedures for requesting materials, and the presentation of materials are *always* included in about half of the repositories surveyed.

Additional procedural elements such as a tour of the reading room, an overview of the repository’s Web site, and search strategies for locating primary sources in a local catalog and on the Web are less frequently included in instructional sessions. Since these elements require additional resources (Internet access) and time, they may not be readily available to some of the respondents surveyed.

Table 2.6
Procedural Elements Included in Instructional Sessions

Procedural Elements	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	N/A
Repository rules (n=183)	57.5%	27.4%	9.5%	3.4%	2.2%	2.2%
Procedures for requesting materials (n=182)	52.5%	28.2%	11.9%	5.6%	1.7%	2.7%
Presentation of materials (n=181)	46.3%	33.1%	16.6%	8.4%	2.3%	3.3%
Tour of reading room (n=182)	28.4%	31.7%	16.1%	5.2%	6.9%	4.4%
Overview of repository’s website (n=181)	25.7%	25.7%	26.9%	16.4%	5.3%	5.5%
Searching for primary sources in local catalog (n=179)	20.1%	29%	30.2%	18.5%	9.5%	5.9%
Searching for primary sources on web (n=179)	8.7%	26%	34.1%	18.5%	12.7%	3.6

While three of the procedural elements were *always* included in about half of the respondents’ instructional sessions, the same is not true for any of the conceptual elements (see Table 2.7). Whereas procedural information refers to the “nuts and bolts”

of doing research, conceptual knowledge involves a deeper understanding of archives and manuscripts through terminology, description, and interpretation of documents.

Table 2.7
Conceptual Elements Included in Instructional Sessions

Conceptual Elements	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	N/A
Introduction to finding aids (n=179)	32.8%	39%	20.9%	2.3%	5.1%	1.1%
Definition of primary sources (n=179)	25.1%	42.3%	19.4%	5.7%	7.4%	2.2%
Context and secondary sources (n=178)	18%	37.2%	30.8%	8.7%	5.2%	3.4%
Interpretation or evaluation of primary sources (n=179)	17.2%	39.1%	27.6%	9.8%	6.3%	2.8%
Critical thinking (n=177)	14.2%	32.5%	26.6%	16.6%	10.1%	4.5%
Archival terminology (n=179)	10.2%	33%	31.8%	19.3%	5.7%	1.7%
Preservation and digitization (n=178)	7.5%	23%	41.4%	20.7%	7.5%	2.2%

Respondents indicated that they *often* address concepts such as these in their instructional sessions, particularly when it comes to defining primary sources. Yet, the results of the survey suggest that archivists and curators focus much more on the content of the instruction they provide rather than its delivery. The data in Table 2.8 show a great deal of variability in terms of how often certain pedagogical elements are included. For instance, the presentation of materials is twice as likely to be part of nearly all instructional sessions as hands-on use of materials. Instructional handouts are *always* included in just one-quarter (27 %) of instructional sessions and group exercises are *rarely* or *never* a part of instruction for over half of the respondents (56.1 %). Additionally, over one-third of the respondents (38.7 %) indicated that they *never* include any evaluation of their instruction in their sessions.

Table 2.8
Pedagogical Elements Included in Instructional Sessions

Pedagogical Elements	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	N/A
Instructional handouts (n=180)	27%	27.6%	27%	8%	10.3%	3.3%
Hands-on use of materials (n=184)	19.7%	33.1%	33.7%	8.4%	5.1%	3.3%
Professor/Teacher presence (n=176)	18.1%	43.2%	23.9%	8.4%	6.5%	12%
Assessment of instruction (n=173)	4.9%	10.4%	18.4%	27.6%	38.7%	5.8%
Group exercises (n=179)	1.8%	14%	28%	29.3%	26.8%	8.4%

The delivery of instruction or how archives professionals are actually teaching users is an important discussion that has not been addressed in the literature. According to the results of this survey, archivists and curators are mostly self-taught when it comes to acquiring their teaching skills (Q12). The majority of the respondents learned how to teach either through individual study (34.8 %) or through other teaching experiences (25.4 %). Less than ten percent of the respondents have an education degree. The lack of formal training in pedagogy may explain the reluctance to utilize strategies to enhance instruction. It could also explain the variability of the responses and the absence of this topic in professional discourse.

Assessment of instruction is an important part of any pedagogical approach because it provides feedback about the effectiveness of the teaching and insights about its impact on the audience. As the results of the survey suggest, assessment of instruction is *never* a part of the sessions taught by over one-third (38.7 %) of the respondents. The lack of feedback makes it difficult for teaching archivists and curators to determine how they are meeting the needs of their learners and whether or not these individuals are gaining anything from the time and effort put into instruction.

Additional Instructional Resources

In addition to actual instruction, archivists provide a variety of resources designed to help researchers use collections. Distinguishing between informational and instructional resources proved to be a challenge in both developing the survey and interpreting its results. Over half of the respondents indicated that their repositories offer many printed resources like brochures and regulations governing use (Q 13, see Table 2.9). They also post various informational resources on their Web sites, including research guides and links to resources at other repositories. Relatively few archivists, however, offer direct instruction online in the form of tutorials and learning activities (Q14). For example, only twenty percent of the respondents surveyed have created an online tutorial. This proportion coincides with the number of online tutorials about primary sources analyzed in a recent study (Yakel, Krause & McKay, n.d.). About the same number of respondents (22.1 %) include resources for educators like teaching kits and lesson plans on their Web sites. In the open-ended comments, respondents listed additional resources not included in the answer options such as finding aids. Yet the research on archives users indicates that interpreting finding aids is a difficult task most likely requiring mediation in the form of instruction (Beattie, 1990; Orbach, 1991; Tibbo, 2003).

Table 2.9
Instructional Materials and Resources

Printed Instructional Materials (n=180)	Frequency	Percent
Research guides	101	56.1%
Brochures	123	68.3%
Visual guide to repository	19	10.6%
Rules and regulations	133	73.9%
Instructional handouts	82	45.6%
How-to's	46	25.6%
Online Instructional Materials (n=107)		
Tutorial created by your repository	22	20.6%
How-to instruction sheets	45	42.1%
Learning activities	10	9.3%
Additional Online Resources (n=145)		
Research guides	88	60.7%
Teaching kits	13	9%
Lesson plans	19	13.1%
Bibliographies	50	34.5%
Links to resources at other repositories	91	62.8%

In response to the question “Ideally, what instructional activities would your repository like to provide?” (Q16), forty-two respondents indicated a wish for more involvement between their repository and their academic institution as well as more integration of primary sources into the undergraduate curriculum. One-quarter of respondents (27.6%) would like to develop more online instructional resources and activities for archival researchers. Twenty-two out of 134 respondents would like to develop more resources or facilities for instructing users, such as handouts and better classroom space. A handful of respondents wanted to be able to offer more in-depth instruction instead of brief presentations. For example, one respondent would like “[a]n opportunity to do more in-depth introductions to archives with students. Typically we are only allotted a short period of time during a longer tour of the library, which means we only have a chance to do a quick ‘dog and pony’ show.”

Instruction for Students

It is evident from the responses that multiple user groups receive instruction from archives and manuscripts repositories. Genealogists, teachers, community groups, volunteers, and members of the general public are all important constituencies that require assistance in using primary sources. However, one of the main purposes of this survey was to learn more about how repositories teach students. Thus, the survey employed a filter question to target the respondents who regularly instruct students (Q17). Therefore, the individuals who did not report teaching students (n=29, 15.9%) skipped the corresponding sections of the survey.⁵

The majority of respondents (84.1%) provide instruction to students. Nearly all (96%) of the 99 academic archives and special collections teach students. Religious archives are less likely to instruct students and corporate archives generally do not teach students. Given the prevalence of students receiving instruction from the respondents surveyed, the following discussion focuses heavily on the instructional practices of academic archives and special collections and their students.

Respondents have worked with a variety of academic departments and school classes to provide instruction (Q18). The most common subjects are History/Social Studies and English although respondents also work with American Studies, Education, and Women's Studies, among others. Respondents also cited the following disciplines in their comments: history of science, mathematics, law, architecture, romance languages, nursing, library and information science, religion, engineering, and music.

⁵ For this reason as well as the twenty-six individuals who voluntarily dropped out of the survey, the total number of respondents falls to 153 for the remainder of the survey questions.

Table 2.10
Academic Disciplines Requesting Instruction

Academic Departments/School Classes (n=153)	Frequency	Percent
African-American studies	39	25.5%
American studies	63	41.2%
Art/art history	60	39.2%
Communication	27	17.6%
Education	50	32.7%
English	75	49%
Geography	18	11.8%
History/Social studies	137	89.5%
Journalism	26	17%
Political science	33	21.6%
Sociology	29	19%
Women's studies	60	39.2%

Over half (52%) of instructional sessions for students are often related to a course assignment highlighting the importance of cooperation with professors and teachers in bringing students into the archives (Q19). The repositories represented in this survey spend a great deal of time providing instruction for undergraduates (Q20). The majority of respondents (62.4%) devote at least one-half of their instruction activities to this constituency. In response to the question “What do you hope students will gain from your repository’s instruction?” (Q21), archivists mostly hope students will gain an understanding of the function and purpose of archives and primary sources. Additionally, respondents hoped students would gain an awareness of their repository’s presence on campus and their holdings. Respondents were also concerned about students’ ability to learn how to effectively search for and find materials on their topic and how to conduct research in archives. A handful of respondents hoped that students would feel more comfortable and less fearful of using the archives after instruction.

Respondents were asked how they prepare to teach an instructional session for students (Q22). Generally, archivists do a variety of activities to prepare. Most often, they consult with the professor or teacher prior to the instructional session in order to

determine learning outcomes, goals, and relevant assignments. They consider the characteristics and background of their audience and tailor their instruction to meet their needs. They consult their holdings and the holdings of other repositories to pull relevant materials. Respondents will often prepare handouts, sometimes reusing material from previous sessions or consulting other staff members. They create outlines of the presentations and sometimes Power Point presentations. A few think of appropriate learning goals and ways to make instruction more interactive.

Only about one-quarter of the repositories represented in this survey collect some kind of formal evaluation or survey from their students about instructional sessions (Q 24, see Table 2.11). Almost half of the respondents report conducting exit interviews with students and slightly over one-quarter collect student papers in order to determine the impact of using the repository’s collections on students’ work. However, fully one-third of the respondents collect no feedback whatsoever from students, making it difficult to assess the impact of archival instruction, services, and resources on this user group.

Table 2.11
Student Feedback

Feedback Collected from Students (n=151)	Frequency	Percent
Exit interview	72	47.7%
Student papers	41	27.2%
Evaluation form or survey	39	25.8%
None	50	33.1%

Relationship to Professors/Teachers

Professors and teachers play a crucial role in students’ use of primary sources. Above all, teaching faculty are instrumental in introducing students to the repository. Professors and teachers who assign students to use online and/or physical primary sources act as a powerful external motivator for students. The literature on information

literacy (Dewald, 1999) attests to the importance of tailoring instruction to a given assignment in order to make it relevant and meaningful for students. It seems that professors and teachers act as intermediaries between repositories and students. Perhaps more direct outreach and marketing to students by archivists and curators would encourage them to utilize sources outside the needs of a specific assignment.

Professors are often active participants in instructional sessions, providing contextual background for the materials or additional advice on interpreting primary sources. Others are more involved before the session, identifying relevant collections and selecting materials. To their dismay, some of the respondents mentioned feeling like “babysitters” when instructors drop off students with little prior warning. These respondents indicate that collaboration between professors/teachers and archivists is an important and necessary part of instructing students in how to use primary sources.

A few respondents pointed out the need to instruct the professors and teachers themselves about resources and the repository’s function (Q25). One respondent put it succinctly: “...professors/teachers need to be taught as well, so that they are not sending their students over blindly unaware of our unique setup.” This is an issue Osborne (1986) addresses, suggesting that training student-teachers and future faculty is a worthy approach. Hendry (2007) echoes this suggestion in her article encouraging archivists to become more involved in K-12 education.

The majority of the respondents (61.7%) worked with ten or fewer professors/teachers to provide instruction to students in the previous year (Q26). Nineteen repositories, however, worked with more than twenty instructors. The feedback that archivists receive from professors and teachers is generally positive and often provided in

an informal context via e-mail or in conversation. Many of the respondents mention that instructors are delighted by improvements in students' work and often become "repeat customers" bringing their classes in year after year. However, of the 136 responses to a question about professor/teacher feedback, none mentioned formal evaluation (Q27). Hence, there is no way of knowing how those professors and teachers that provide no feedback react to the instructional services archivists provide. When asked what they do to encourage instructors to utilize the repository in their teaching, respondents often contact departments or instructors directly to inform them of collections that may be of interest (Q28). Greene (1989) discussed this tactic in his article on outreach as archivist of Carleton College. Others, however, admit that they do little proactively to reach out to instructors because they are already overwhelmed with responsibilities.

Discussion

The results of this survey of instructional practices are meant to be a conversation-starter. Although archives professionals know a great deal about the kinds of instruction they themselves provide or are aware, anecdotally, of the practices of other repositories, this is the first comprehensive study to report on the instructional practices of archivists. The purpose of this survey was to address a number of research questions provided in detail below.

What kinds of instruction do archivists offer?

The 208 respondents to this survey work in a variety of institutions that care for and provide access to primary sources. College and university archives and special collections were the most prominent, but government archives, museums, and historical

societies were also represented. Instruction appears to be a ubiquitous activity in most repositories. The majority of the respondents indicated that one-on-one instruction, presentations, and tours were common activities. Internships, workshops, exhibits, courses, and employee training were also cited as frequent instructional activities. The groups receiving instruction vary greatly depending on the mission of the repository and its holdings. Among those surveyed, undergraduates and staff members were the most common groups receiving instruction. However, the repositories also provide instruction for local history groups, genealogists, and educators.

The prevalence of instructional activities in repositories may not be surprising. Yet, the little that has been written about these activities in the literature is puzzling. Yakel (2003, 2004) repeatedly draws attention to the dearth of knowledge about the educational activities of archivists in her research. The results of this study suggest that archivists engage in a variety of instructional activities on a frequent basis. Libraries and museums have already succeeded in promoting the educational value of their institutions. It is only a matter of time before archives and special collections will figure more prominently in the K–12 and college curriculum.

Given the amount of instruction that archivists and curators engage in, it is striking that the respondents to this survey mostly learned how to teach on their own through individual study or other teaching experiences. There is a need for some pedagogical training in archival education programs. This need has also been addressed in library and information science (LIS) graduate programs for academic librarians (Mbabu, 2009; Walter, 2008). The Instructor College⁶ at the University of Michigan is one response to this need, training library staff involved in teaching by offering

⁶ <http://www.lib.umich.edu/icollege/>

workshops, tips, resources, and a reading club to discuss the latest research in information literacy. Another response would be expanding reference courses in LIS graduate programs to include some elements of teacher training. For example, these courses could outline the benefits of active and cooperative learning and how these strategies can be implemented in an archival setting through hands-on exercises, peer teaching, and group work.

The three most common obstacles to providing more instruction are insufficient time, space, and a lack of interest from professors and teachers. With processing backlogs and limited resources and staff, many repositories simply do not have the capacity to devote more energy to instruction and to promoting their instructional services to professors and teachers. Many also do not have the dedicated or specialized space since the majority of instructional sessions are held in the reading room. Yet given the increasing use of primary sources in education from the K–12 through the graduate level, archivists can potentially make a case to administrators for increased funding, staff, and resources. With some evaluation data to illustrate the repository's commitment to instruction, the case would be even stronger. At this time, very few repositories formally evaluate the instruction they provide.

What do instructional sessions cover?

The data suggest that instructional sessions are heavily tailored to the audience, and, for this reason, vary considerably. Findings align with Allison's (2005) results. The most common items covered by archivists consist of basic procedural information, or the actual doing of archival and manuscripts research. These include repository rules and regulations, procedures for requesting materials, and presentation of collections. These

results indicate that archivists believe that learning and internalizing repository rules is a basic step in conducting archival research. Yet searching is taught with much less consistency and conceptual elements including archival terminology, access tools, and the interpretation of primary sources are not universally covered in instructional sessions, despite the understanding that these skills contribute to archival intelligence (Yakel & Torres, 2003). Most instructional sessions are also missing a consistent pedagogical approach to teaching. Instructional supports such as handouts are not frequently used and archivists are much less likely to include hands-on use of materials and exercises that encourage students to work together to decipher the components of finding aids and to interpret documents. Both of these activities encourage a more active approach to learning that is consistent with constructivist learning theory (Fosnot, 2004).

Most striking is the finding that formal assessment of instruction is rarely or never part of an instructional session in the majority of repositories surveyed (62%). Archivists often measure the impact of their services by the willingness of users to return (Yakel, 2008). More specifically, archivists may gauge the effectiveness of an instructional session by how returning students behave. Others use exit interviews and a few collect student papers to indirectly measure what effect, if any, they have had on students' learning. Concrete evaluations, however, can shed light on students' needs and highlight areas of improvement. Assessments can also be aggregated and presented to administration as part of a plea for more resources.

What kinds of instructional resources do archivists make available to their users?

The archivists surveyed make various kinds of information available to researchers, both in paper form and online. Brochures, rules and regulations, and research

guides are prevalent. Instructional handouts are also produced by almost half of the respondents. Less than a quarter of the respondents have created their own online tutorial, however, and even fewer have posted teaching kits, lesson plans, and learning activities. These findings align somewhat with previous studies of online archival resources. In her Master's paper, Katte (2002) found that the most common resource among the thirty special collections' Web sites she examined were research guides and the most popular topic addressed consisted of identifying resources. Gillespie (2005), in another Master's paper, also found that resource identification was included in almost all of the thirty academic archives' sites she examined.

A content analysis of forty-seven online primary source tutorials conducted by Yakel, Krause & McKay (n.d.) found that the majority of them were informational rather than instructional and not a single one contained an evaluation component to measure the effectiveness of the tutorial itself. What these studies, along with the present survey, suggest is that archivists put a lot of effort into creating information resources including exhibits, research guides, and brochures. However, specifically instructional materials are less common and they have, thus far, not been discussed or shared in the literature. The studies cited here have begun to examine existing instructional materials. More work in this area is needed however, such as a content analysis of the handouts used in instructional sessions and the teaching kits produced by archivists. Research in this area will illuminate the role of archivists in students' education and will offer opportunities for improving the instructional quality of these resources.

How do archivists support students' education?

The majority (153) of the respondents surveyed offer some kind of instruction to students. Although the most common discipline requesting the use of archival instruction is history and social studies, many additional disciplines are increasingly utilizing the help of repositories including African-American studies, English, education, even mathematics and engineering. Typically, instruction is related to a class assignment, particularly if it is intended for undergraduates. Archivists and curators most often hope that students gain an understanding of the function of the repository and an awareness of its collections and presence on campus. Many also desire that students feel more comfortable when using the collections and even become enthusiastic about their research.

The ways in which the repositories support learning for students who visit outside of the context of an instructional session are very telling. The open-ended responses reveal that students are treated no differently than anyone else wishing to use the collections. This suggests that the repositories do not see it as their mission to provide students with special scaffolding. The term scaffolding (Denney, 2004) is used heavily in education to describe support that helps learners reach their goals. Physical scaffolds are used in construction to support buildings and are gradually removed as the buildings near completion. Thus, they are an appropriate metaphor for the kind of support instructors can offer learners. The concept of scaffolding derives from Vygotsky's (1978) research on the social and cultural influences on children's development. According to Vygotsky, there is a region he calls the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that is a dynamic state just beyond the learner's present level of ability and knowledge. Scaffolding by

experts helps the learner to accomplish the tasks that would be difficult for him or her to accomplish on their own.

The open-ended comments by archivists and curators suggest that they do not provide instructional scaffolds to students beyond routine reference services. Instead, the respondents take an egalitarian approach that treats all researchers alike since in most of the repositories, individuals, regardless of their background or need, receive customized and personalized help through reference interviews. Some respondents did point to some differences in the ways that students are supported. For example, one respondent stressed the importance of making students feel comfortable:

Whenever possible, I meet individually with every student the first time he / she walks in the door. I try to make students feel welcome and relaxed (so that they will be able to learn), and I instruct my staff to do the same. I frequently help students think about where certain types of records might be found and assist them in narrowing their topics. I teach them how to search different archival and library catalogs and try to help them understand 'when to go where.' I help them interpret documents -- everything from handwriting and foreign words to content and context. I help a lot with proper citation, explaining that the most important reason to cite is to help others follow your footsteps. More informally, I give them a safe place to 'vent' about their frustrations with their research, their professors and sometimes their lives in general. I also make a conscious effort to keep history (and the archives) a little fun and playful. It's really hard to learn when you don't have a welcoming and comfortable place in which to learn (Q23, Respondent 613216096).

Over one-third of the respondents collect no feedback from the students regarding the instruction they received or their experiences. Effectively this translates to very little information about how the repository is accommodating this user group. Only about one-quarter of the respondents utilize some type of formal evaluation eliciting feedback from students. The respondents are also hesitating to formally collect feedback from professors and teachers about their instruction efforts. It is clear from this research that repositories

are not doing enough assessment. Given the effort they put into providing instruction, they are not getting the feedback they need to assess the effectiveness of their efforts and the impact it is having on users.

Libraries have increasingly become interested in assessment and, as a result, have adopted such evaluation tools as LibQUAL⁷ for measuring users' satisfaction with services, and the Educational Testing Service's (ETS) *iSkills*⁸ for measuring students' information literacy skills in a digital environment. Similarly, the Archival Metrics Project made a suite of toolkits available online to assess services provided by college and university archives.⁹ Two of the toolkits are relevant for evaluating instruction: (1) the Student Researcher and (2) the Teaching Support questionnaires. The former assesses students' impressions of an orientation and their confidence in using the archives. The latter asks instructors who have used the repository in their teaching to provide feedback. Both of these tools are meant to foster an ongoing commitment to assessment in college and university archives and special collections and could help many repositories gain a better understanding of the impact of their instruction efforts.

Another important finding regarding students is that professors and teachers have a great deal of control over students' use of primary sources and the repositories that house them. What is implied in these results is that the students who are not taking classes that discuss primary sources in some way may not even be aware that an archives and/or special collections exists at their institution. These students fall under the radar of archivists' outreach and instruction efforts. If archivists and curators want to reach out to

⁷ <http://www.libqual.org/>

⁷ <http://www.ets.org/iskills>

⁸ <http://www.archivalmetrics.org>

these students, they need to make their presence more prominent to professors and teachers, as well as librarians.

Given that a lack of interest from professors and teachers was cited as the third largest obstacle to providing instructional services, archivists might find it prudent to be proactive about contacting departments and instructors to describe their potential value in supplementing coursework. Osborne (1986) and Hendry (2007) have suggested ways in which archivists could be more involved by creating teaching kits and instructing education majors. In addition to the tactics mentioned in the literature, archivists and curators might consider a different approach that involves the creation of an education packet. In either paper or Web form, the packet could include a brief overview of the repository, a list of prominent collections by subject, an outline of the instructional support offered to students, copies of sample instructional materials, and comments from other professors or teachers who have used the repository in their teaching. An education packet can serve as a marketing tool to draw awareness of how archives professionals can supplement academic teaching.

This kind of marketing, targeted directly to professors and teachers is something that Malkmus (2008) identified as highly desired of history faculty in the United States. Her survey of over 600 history faculty suggests that professors are eager to collaborate with enthusiastic archivists in teaching undergraduates about primary sources. However, the literature on using primary sources in the classroom often ignores the role of the archivist in facilitating this. The study reported in the following chapter examines this issue through the perspective of archivists active in supporting undergraduate instruction.

Conclusion

This chapter reported the results of a survey of instructional practices aimed at users of archives and special collections. The limitations of survey methodology do not allow for a more in-depth analysis of the components of archival instruction. Nor do they provide insight into how archivists view their role in educating users, particularly students. These limitations aside, the findings in this study point to the tremendous amount of effort archivists engage in to teach people how to use primary sources. The variety of types of instruction, resources, and components all attest to a professional commitment to educate archival users. It is clear from the results of this survey that undergraduate students are a major audience for archival instruction. The majority of the respondents surveyed provide some instruction to college students. What is needed is a better understanding of how archivists approach instruction to this user group and how they address these students' specific learning needs.

The study reported in this chapter also highlights the reluctance of archivists to assess their own instruction and to collect formal feedback from students and professors about their instructional services. This finding suggests that archivists need to be educated about learning assessment. The following chapters of this dissertation address these issues by reporting on two additional studies that explore questions of instructional content, delivery, and evaluation.

CHAPTER 3

“It Makes History Alive For Them”: Archivists Reflect on Teaching Undergraduates

A great deal of attention has been paid recently to the use of primary sources in the classroom. Many educators have argued that primary sources enrich students’ learning because they offer contextual support for the concepts teachers describe, enhancing their meaning and grounding them in actual events and real people’s lives (Eamon, 2006; Morgan, 2002; Singleton & Giese, 1999). Using primary sources, students take multiple perspectives into consideration, making discernments about the authenticity and accuracy of the information presented to them. The “raw materials of history” offer a chance for students to take more control of their learning experiences. Because they go beyond the textbook, they allow students to form their own questions and develop a deeper understanding of the units they are studying. Original sources also help students relate to the past on a personal level, a benefit that goes beyond the classroom and has implications for lifelong learning.

The increasing availability of digitized primary sources online has facilitated a greater interest in the use of these resources at all levels of education. Many teachers have incorporated resources such as the Library of Congress’ American Memory Project into their classrooms (Morgan, 2002; Singleton & Giese, 1999). Faculty members have

described their experiences in utilizing their institution's archives and special collections to promote more involvement by students and a deeper understanding from the interpretation of documents (Falbo, 2000; Schmiesing & Hollis, 2002; Toner, 1993). Scholarship on historical inquiry and the teaching of historical methodology (Cole, 1998 and 2000a, 2000b; Rouet, Britt, Mason, & Perfetti, 1996; Stearns & Wineburg, 2000; Wineburg 1991) has produced numerous insights on how students, educators, and historians reason using primary source documents. What is missing from most of these discussions of primary sources in the classroom is the role of archivists in creating access to these resources and providing instruction and support in using them.

In this chapter, I examine the role of archivists as educators in a more in-depth fashion through a qualitative exploration of twelve semi-structured interviews with thirteen archives professionals. This study triangulates the findings of both the survey of archival instruction practices (Chapter 2) and the teaching experiment (Chapter 4) and provides a closer look at how archivists view their contribution to undergraduate education and research. In this study, I investigate the following research questions:

- (1) What is the role of the archivist in instructing undergraduate students?
- (2) What do archivists consider essential knowledge for undergraduates conducting archival research?
- (3) What teaching strategies work best with undergraduates?
- (4) How do archivists assess instruction for undergraduates?

Literature Review

Archival Literature

The archival literature has explored the topic of the educational role of archives over the last three decades, albeit superficially. There is a handful of exhortations encouraging professionals to get involved in education as well as some detailed case studies and descriptions that begin to bring this topic into focus. Taylor (1972) described the growing interest in local history in English classrooms and the subsequent response from archives to create teaching kits for the instructors to use. More than a decade later, Osborne (1986) identified eight approaches that have been used to connect archives and schools. Adams (1987) wrote about primary sources and senior citizens in the classroom. Cook (1997) described an educational kit (*Canada's Prime Ministers*) and its influence on the role of archivists as educators in Canada.

Gilliland-Swetland (1998, 1999) studied how primary sources can be effectively used in the K-12 classroom. In describing the benefits to students in using archival materials, she defines the concept of “archival literacy” which relates to users’ consciousness of their documentary heritage and the role that records play in establishing and protecting their rights and in recording and communicating their heritage” (p. 92). Besides this broad understanding, archival literacy also consists of skills used to determine the evidential qualities of documents such as their origin and chain of custody.

Hendry (2007) encouraged archivists to incorporate pedagogical initiatives, such as inquiry-based learning and document-based questions into their work with elementary and secondary educators. Greene (1989) described his outreach activities as the archivist of Carleton College. He proactively read course catalogs and sent letters to faculty to

encourage them to consider using the archives in their classes. Greene points out the importance of archivists as teachers in assisting undergraduates and argues that “[i]t is the archivist’s responsibility to make the sources in her or her archives relevant to the liberal arts curriculum” (p. 36). Robyns (2001) wrote specifically about how archivists could teach critical thinking skills to undergraduates. Carini (2009) outlined the beginnings of a curriculum for teaching undergraduate students basic archival skills. While these studies do provide strategies for incorporating primary sources in the classroom, they do not provide a framework for understanding the role of archivists as educators.

Primary Sources in Education

There have also been case studies written about the use of primary sources in education outside of the archival literature. Faculty members describing their objectives and rationale for students’ use of primary sources have written some of these. Archivists and librarians hoping to bring attention to their work and encourage more professors to contact the repository for instruction purposes wrote others. A brief survey of these articles illustrates how the role of the archivist as educator is underplayed, often dismissed or described succinctly.

Toner (1993) of the University of Maine, wrote about her use of the special collections to help undergraduates begin to think like historians. She describes enlisting support from the special collections librarian before the beginning of the semester and briefly mentions that the librarian gave the students a tour and an overview of the collections and safeguarding the materials. However, very little else is provided about the librarian and her role in helping the students become familiar with the special collections. Similarly, Falbo (2000), a professor of English at Lafayette College, wrote a brief article

about her use of archival resources in the classroom. In her experience, using the archives created a more “student-centered” classroom and gave her students a chance to practice interpretation of documents. However, her description includes nothing about the role of the archivist in supporting education or any information about instruction the students may have received.

Schmiesing and Hollis (2002) wrote about a case study at the University of Colorado in which a German professor collaborated with the special collections library to incorporate the use of primary sources in one undergraduate and one graduate class. The article describes the instruction provided by the special collections department consisting of an overview of policies, procedures, an introduction to the card catalog, and materials pulled for the classes. One objective of the orientation was to make the students and faculty aware of the department and its location. In addition to that, Schmiesing and Hollis, like Falbo (2000), argue that the visit promotes student-centered, dynamic learning since they are actively involved in selecting and using documents as well as taking responsibility for their own learning through independent trips to the repository. The article emphasizes the importance of collaboration between faculty and archives/special collections staff, a finding that has been echoed repeatedly. However, the instructional role of the archivist is downplayed in this article that focuses mainly on Professor Schmiesing’s pedagogical objectives and curriculum.

Mazak and Manista (1999) discussed collaboration between an archivist and professor at Michigan State University and, unlike the above articles, point out the efforts of the archivist in detail. The article outlines the contents of an orientation given to students in the American Thought and Language department at the university. Students

received a packet of materials consisting of the researcher application, rules and procedures, various forms for services, and photocopies of university-related materials. The reference archivist assured them that she is there to help them as a “partner in research” (p. 232). The rules and access tools were introduced, after which students handled the materials. What makes this article stand out is this detailed description of the orientation as well as the conscious acknowledgment of the archivist as a critical factor in the success of the collaboration.

Articles written by archivists and special collections librarians about the use of primary sources in education aim both at getting students interested in archives and encouraging faculty to consider the archives in their course preparation. McFadden (1998) described a two-credit seminar, developed and taught by her, about student life at Alfred University in the late nineteenth century. She provides an overview of the course that includes guest speakers who offer an historical perspective and three assignments, the most important of which involves research in the archives. Interestingly, she has the students write personal essays about their own lives as students to be retained in the archives. Unfortunately, this article provides only a brief description of the course McFadden developed and does not offer any detail about her overall pedagogical approach or specific instruction.

Matyn (2000) stressed the importance of students experiencing primary sources hands-on in archives because of the challenge it poses to them. Matyn’s article is problematic, however, because she fails to elaborate upon several claims, such as that surveys and statistics “show that all of these learning experiences with archival and other

primary source materials benefit a lot of people...increase[ing] the students' self-confidence, abilities, and knowledge..." (p. 354).

More recently, Johnson (2006) used his own experience to describe some ways to familiarize undergraduates with archives. He offers three recommendations: "(1) help students realize that materials are not inaccessible nor intimidating; (2) explain reasons for security measures; and (3) reveal research value of archival material" (p. 92). Johnson also introduces the concept of "archival anxiety" to stress the importance of a welcoming atmosphere. To ease this anxiety, he offers practical advice for instructing students on proper handling of materials and providing them with a flow chart detailing how to conduct archival research.

It is clear from these articles that many collaborations between archivists and professors are being formed at collegiate institutions around the country. Several professors have written about their experiences, detailing their pedagogical approach and learning objectives, their use of the archives and/or special collections, and their students' reactions to the experience. The role of the archivist or special collections librarian, however, is often minimized and the actual instruction is described sparingly if at all.

Research on Historical Inquiry and History Education

The role of the archivist in facilitating the discovery and use of primary sources is entirely missing in the literature on historical inquiry and history education. However, in order to understand how archivists can supplement history education, it is useful to examine what is known about how historians make sense of primary sources and how educators incorporate these sources in the classroom to teach students how to critically interpret and evaluate them.

Among the most noteworthy studies of the cognitive aspects of historical thinking, the research of Cole (1999, 2000) and Wineburg (1991, 2000) are prominent. Cole wrote a series of articles focusing on history doctoral students and how they seek information in the process of dissertation writing. The first of a series of articles on this topic (1999) describes the cognitive underpinnings behind how history Ph.D. students acquire information. Cole found that these students maintain a “knowledge structure” that consists of both a “picture” (background information collected about the thesis) and a “jigsaw” (pieces of information that are connected). Based on this, Cole constructed an information processing model made up of four stages. The first consists of the “opening of the information process” in which the student encounters new information and begins the “inferencing” process. The student may be unaware of the inferencing process at this point. In the next stage, the student attempts to offer explanations to make sense of the new information as part of a “representational activity.” Next, the student looks for supporting information from a separate source to corroborate what he or she found and, in the last stage, the information process closes.

Wineburg (1991, 2001) examined the differences between how historians (experts) and high school students (novices) interpret historical documents. He recruited eight historians and eight high school students screened through a pre-test to select the highest performers. The subjects were given a set of materials (both textual and visual) dealing with the Battle of Lexington. The subjects were told to engage in a think-aloud process while evaluating and ranking the materials. Not surprisingly, Wineburg found significant differences between the professional historians’ and the high school students’ interpretations. The historians used three heuristics for appraising the documents: (1)

corroboration – comparing the documents against one another; (2) sourcing – identifying the source of the document before reading its contents; and (3) contextualization – situating the document in its appropriate temporal and spatial context. Despite the differing backgrounds of the historians, they arrived at a deeper understanding of the event through their interpretation of the documents. As a result, Wineburg argued that the historians “construct[ed] a context-specific schema” to explain the event. While the historians were careful to qualify their statements about the documents, the students often tried to find the right answer, reflecting their belief in an authoritative “right versus wrong” characteristic of a dualistic level of knowledge (Perry 1970). Wineburg concluded his article by pointing out that students can demonstrate a lot of knowledge about American history on paper. However, they are ignorant of the heuristics employed in historical interpretation, lack an understanding of the types of historical evidence, and rely heavily on a textbook for the answers to their questions.

In a study based on 24 University of Pittsburgh undergraduates, Rouet and his colleagues (1996) offered a more optimistic view of students interpreting documents. The researchers were interested in learning how document types affect students’ ability to reason about historical evidence. The students were divided into two groups, given several problem statements about the Panama Canal and a set of documents. The first group had access to primary documents as well as secondary accounts while the second group only had access to secondary sources. The students had to write a one-page opinion essay, rank the documents in order of trustworthiness and usefulness, and offer a justification for their rankings. The results of the experiment showed that the undergraduate students trusted the textbook most, a finding similar to Wineburg’s (1991).

However, those students presented with primary documents trusted them as much as they trusted the textbook. Furthermore, the students with access to primary sources, used them in their essay. The researchers conclude that students were able to effectively reason *about* documents, employing different criteria to evaluate the different types of documents (for instance, evaluating the content of textbook excerpts and the source information of primary documents). They were also able to reason *with* documents, citing each type of document for different purposes. Thus, making primary sources available to students increases the likelihood that they will use them in constructing opinions about historical events.

Many studies in history education have focused on the pedagogical approaches teachers use to incorporate primary sources in the classroom (Gibb, 2002; Gorn, 1998; Kobrin, 1993; Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000; Stein, 2003; Young & Leinhardt, 1998). Seixas (1998) conducted an exploratory study with student teachers in his class. He found that the majority of the students focused only on one primary source in their assignment and the examples he described in detail attest to the difficulty teachers have with incorporating primary sources into their lesson plans. Drake & Brown (2003) offered a systematic approach for using primary sources in the classroom based on three orders of documents: (1) first order document that is essential to the teacher and the lesson, (2) second order documents that support or challenge the first document, and (3) third order documents that the students discover for themselves. The authors provide recommendations for selecting these documents and include a sample lesson plan. However, no empirical evidence is provided about the merit of this approach and a follow up could not be found in the literature.

Britt, et al. (2000) described a “document-based learning environment” designed to help high school students practice the kind of reasoning manifested by expert historians. The Sourcer’s Apprentice application consists of a computer screen displaying a bookshelf of a variety of texts about a controversy as well as note cards to help students think through their use of the documents. As the authors explain, their “goal was to create a simple coached-apprenticeship system that would provide students with the support they need to interact with documents in a more authentic way” (p. 446). The designers of the Sourcer’s Apprentice included Wineburg’s (1991) heuristics for historical interpretation.

Britt and her colleagues tested the Sourcer’s Apprentice in two schools revealing that the application had great potential in helping students acquire document interpretation skills. This system, however, includes pre-selected documents and does not train students in searching and selecting primary sources.

Another example of the use of technology to support history education is provided in Tally & Goldenberg (2005). The authors describe a pilot study of middle and high school students’ use of an online historical thinking exercise tool. They posit that a well-designed application could help support students in developing historical inquiry skills. Students were asked to complete a document analysis exercise online. The authors analyzed the comments made by several classes ranging from history and geography to English. Based on the students’ comments, they found that the students felt more invested in their learning when they were able to engage in hands-on exercises. In addition, the authors observed that the students were able to apply historical thinking skills without having learned about an historical period or context.

Bain (2000, 2005, 2006) applied insights from cognitive and educational psychology to motivate students to change their assumptions about learning history as a process of memorizing facts. He encouraged his ninth grade students to keep a journal of their thoughts and he developed a number of cognitive tools to assist them through the process of thinking through historical events, all in an effort to make both the students' thinking visible and the process of historical inquiry accessible.

Inspired by Wineburg's (1991) distinctions between novice and expert historical thinking and by the reciprocal teaching method described by Palincsar & Brown (1984), Bain (2005) developed an approach to teaching students how to read primary sources by encouraging a "group reading" procedure in which the students were assigned a particular type of question or questioner. As Bain explains, this involved students being selected as "corroborators" —those assigned to ask what other sources supported or refuting the primary source or "sourcers" – those assigned to ask questions about the creator. The students were given a chance to compose their thoughts in a journal before a public discussion ensued. This activity gave the students a chance to practice the work of expert historians (e.g., sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating) and raised questions that helped the students collectively interpret the primary source.

In another study, Bain (2006) helped his high school students read textbooks more analytically. In his teaching, Bain found that students unquestionably accepted the authority of textbooks – a finding that is replicated in other studies (Rieh & Hilligoss, 2007; Wineburg, 1991). In a case study featuring three of his history classes, he taught 76 students a unit on the bubonic plague with the help of a document set of 40 primary sources. The students practiced their historical inquiry skills first using the primary

sources and, only afterwards, turned to the textbook to answer the following assignment: “write a letter to the authors of the text assessing their representation of the plague. Do you think it is an effective representation? Why or why not?” (p. 2097-2098). Because the students had already examined some evidence and had become knowledgeable about the topic, they read the textbook differently and were more able to critique and evaluate the authoritative account. Bain then moves on to mention that the students had not considered the teacher’s bias in selecting the document set which was purposefully Eurocentric. A brief exercise in which Bain assisted the students in discovering the European bias of the sources and having them reflect on it in writing revealed their awareness of the problem and of their “a-critical stance toward the classroom” (p. 2102).

In this account, Bain gets at something critical to this study. He points to the difficulties teachers face when selecting and using primary sources in the classroom and the unspoken and often invisible authority of, not only, teachers and textbook authors, but also of archivists and curators who digitize primary sources and create online lesson plans aimed at educators (Bain, 2006). While many studies of students using primary sources focus on the value of the document itself to support interpretation and learning (Meo, 2000; Rouet, Britt, Mason, & Perfetti, 1996; Wineburg, 1991; Young & Leinhardt, 1998), what is not being articulated is the importance of teaching students to become competent in the identification and selection, as well as the use of primary sources. Pre-packaged teaching kits and document sets may enhance the perspectives presented in a lesson plan, but they also bias the students towards a particular point of view and do not prepare them to search for, select among increasing masses of primary sources, analyze the context of the materials, before interpreting and arriving at their own conclusions.

In the Georgetown University Publication Crossroads, American Studies scholar Bass (1997) wrote about what he calls the “novice in the archive” in which digitized primary sources grant students the opportunity to engage in the authentic process of history:

In other words, digital archives allow novice learners to move closer to seeing key texts as ideas situated in a complexity and to use those tools as prosthetics for searching and sorting through possibilities and contingencies, all en route to performing authentic analysis and synthesis. This is the phenomenon that I call the "**novice in the archive**." There are two important points to bear in mind: first, new technologies make it possible for novice learners to engage in the kinds of archival activities that only expert learners used to be able to do; second, the nature of their encounter with primary materials and primary processes is still as novice learners. The unique opportunity with electronic, simulated archives is to create open but **guided** experiences for students that would be difficult or impractical to replicate in most library environments.

In this excerpt, Bass asserts that digital archives empower students in ways that were previously unavailable to them. According to Bass, digital primary sources allow students to search for, identify, and evaluate documentary evidence in a way that would be difficult to replicate in a traditional setting. One important point that Bass makes is the fact that digital archives grant students an “open but guided” experience in making sense of primary sources. Yet he does not specify where this guidance will come from. To be sure, students need guidance in understanding these materials. Throughout their schooling, they have been exposed to authoritative secondary sources and have relied on them to shape their understanding of a given topic. As discussed previously, one of the greatest differences between professional historians and bright high school students, as Wineburg (1991) pointed out, is the students’ uncritical adherence to the authority of the textbook.

Many scholars have examined how to teach students to think like an historian, but none apparently has considered the advantages of teaching students how to think like an archivist to make more effective use of primary sources in the classroom and beyond. The literature on historical inquiry virtually ignores the role of the archivist in helping researchers identify and make sense of primary sources. While researchers have found distinct differences in the ways that historians interpret and work with documents, educators have had difficulty translating that expertise to the classroom. This study investigates the potential contribution of archivists in helping students learn to develop the skills to effectively use primary sources in their assignments and research. In highlighting the perspectives of a select few archivists dedicated to teaching undergraduates valuable critical thinking skills, this study explores how archivists view their role as teachers and supporters of the educational missions of their institutions.

Method

Study Participants

This is a qualitative study based on semi-structured interviews with 12 archives professionals. They were recruited through their responses on the instructional survey in Chapter Two. Respondents were asked if they would mind being contacted with further questions about their instructional practices. Ninety-eight respondents (46% of the total respondents) indicated that they would like to be contacted again and provided their email addresses. In order to compile a sample of archivists to interview, I filtered these respondents and examined their instructional activities for undergraduates. I conducted exploratory data analysis in SPSS consisting of cross-tabulations between the respondents

indicating they would like to be contacted and the following variables: type of repository, type of instruction, groups receiving instruction, and number of instructional sessions

To answer the research questions proposed in this study, I wanted to interview archivists who have invested a great deal of time and effort in thinking about how to prepare undergraduates to effectively use primary sources. I anticipated that these archivists would be able to reflect on their teaching experiences and share what they considered to be important pedagogical strategies. I also imagined that these individuals were leaders of the instructional push within their profession and would be able to speak about how their efforts fit into larger information literacy and undergraduate research initiatives on their campuses.

To identify these individuals, I further isolated the following variables as indicators of the amount of instruction the respondents engaged in: number of instructional sessions taught last year and number of staff members conduct instruction. I made a list of individuals who had taught more than 16 instructional sessions in the past year, had more than one staff member conducting instruction. I contacted 20 archivists, approximately 10% of the respondents to my survey in Chapter Two. Thirteen individuals agreed to be interviewed. During data analysis, I removed one of the interviews from the sample because the participant did not have sufficient experience working with undergraduates.

Table 3.1
Profile of Study Participants

Participant	Experience with Undergraduates	Institution	Job Title	Instruction Type*
Archivist1	6 years	University Archives	Public Services Archivist	1, 3
Archivist2	16 years	University Archives	Reference Manager	1, 2, 3
Archivist3	5 years	University Archives	University Historian and Archivist	1, 2, 3
Archivist4**	25 years	Special Collections	Director	1
Archivist 5**	16 years	Special Collections	Associate Curator	1, 3
Archivist7***	15 years	Manuscripts and Archives	Head of Public Services	1, 2
Archivist8	10 years	University Archives	Associate University Archivist	1, 2
Archivist 9	10 years	University Archives	Web Coordinator	1, 2
Archivist10	20 years	College Archives	College Archivist	1, 2
Archivist11	16 years	Manuscript, Archives, and Rare Book Library	Interim Director	1, 2
Archivist12	9 years	Special Collections	Associate Librarian	1, 2
Archivist 13	4 years	University Archives	Reference and Instruction Archivist	1, 2

*Instruction Type Key: 1 = Course-based instruction, 2 = Bibliographic Instruction, 3 = Academic Classes

** Archivist4 and Archivist5 were interviewed together.

***Archivist6 was removed from the sample because the participant only had one year of experience and worked mostly with graduate students.

My decision to interview only archivists with a great deal of experience teaching undergraduates is based on this study's research questions. As discussed above, I felt that speaking with experts would give me a better sense of how these leaders were thinking about and approaching instruction for undergraduate students. The study participants all had at least four years of experience teaching undergraduates and had many opinions about the kinds of information students needed to learn about primary sources. The research in this study is not generalizable to the entire population of archivists in the United States. The fact that the sample for this study is not large reveals that the

participants comprise a small group of professional archivists dedicated to moving beyond the “show and tell” orientation of the past (Yakel, 2004).

Data Collection and Analysis

The participants were interviewed following a semi-structured interview protocol (see Table 3.2) consisting of ten questions. Most of the interviews were one hour long and took place over the telephone, with two exceptions. One was conducted face-to-face before an observation of the archivist teaching a class of students. Another interview was conducted via an online chat mechanism.

I transcribed and inductively coded the twelve semi-structured interviews using a qualitative data software application called TAMSAalyzer version 3.5 for Macintosh. During the process of coding the interviews, I wrote many memos engaging in the process of “constant comparison” with existing data in order to ground the findings in a theoretical framework (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Glaser & Strauss 1999). As themes and patterns began to emerge from the data, I recorded them in memo form and organized them to answer the four research questions of the study.

Table 3.2
Research and Interview Questions

Research Questions	Interview Questions
RQ1: What is the role of the archivist in instructing students?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How long have you been working as an archivist? • How long have you been working with undergraduates? • Is your repository involved in any way with the college/university library and information literacy initiative? • Is there anything in your training as an archivist and your experience that would help a student more effectively search for, navigate through, and use primary documents?
RQ2: What do archivists consider to be essential knowledge for undergraduates conducting archival research?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you tell me a little about the kinds of work you do with undergraduates? • Can you talk about the essential things that undergraduates need to know about archives and using primary sources?
RQ3: What teaching strategies work best with undergraduates?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can you describe a typical orientation you might give to a class of undergraduates? • Are there any teaching/instructional strategies that are more effective for undergraduates? Any that are less effective in learning how to use primary sources? • What role do faculty and instructors play in helping undergraduates use primary sources?
RQ4: How do archivists assess their instruction?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have you gotten any feedback about your involvement in undergraduate classes? Anything from students? What about faculty?

Results

Characteristics of the Participants

The twelve study participants were all archives professionals with between 4 and 25 years of experience working with undergraduates (see Table 2.1). All of them work in a college or university archives or special collections. Although their job titles vary

considerably, from college archivist to associate curator or librarian, they all are engaged in instructing undergraduate students through traditional orientations (bibliographic instruction), course-based instruction, and sometimes, teaching their own academic courses. None of the participants received training on how to teach in their graduate programs. Instead, many of them learned by doing orientations and attending intensive courses and workshops. The participants had many insights about the role of the archivist in instructing undergraduates about primary sources, the essential information students need to learn about using primary sources, and the types of teaching strategies that work best with this user group.

Research Question 1: What is the Role of the Archivist in Instructing Students?

The literature on using primary sources in the classroom mostly ignores the role of the archivist in educating students about how to use archival materials. Therefore, one aim of this study is to explore what archivists view as their significant contributions to educating undergraduates. The responses to this question elicited several themes that can be grouped into two main strengths of archivists as educators: (1) knowledge of primary sources and collections and (2) navigation skills. In addition to the unique strengths of archivists as educators, many participants also discussed their role in the information literacy programs at their home institutions.

Knowledge of Primary Sources. Archivists work closely with the collections in their repositories. They may accession incoming materials and oversee the processing of collections. They also may be involved in creating finding aids and other descriptive aids for collections. Archivists help researchers identify appropriate materials and frequently

provide one-on-one instruction during reference interviews. One participant stated that the “only people who work in the archives really know the collections” (Archivist9).

The amount of effort archivists spend in working with collections and the researchers who wish to mine them translates to a versatile knowledge of the interconnections between the materials in the repository and other resources both on and off campus. Archivists “have a really strong sense of the variety of different kinds of documents [they] have and the nature of those documents” (Archivist10). They also may know about aspects of collections not readily obvious in a finding aid: “I think in my case I like to bring out the quirky things that they wouldn’t expect to find in a collection” (Archivist4). Almost all of the participants in this study agreed that one of the most significant contributions archivists can bring to education is a rich and in-depth knowledge of primary sources.

Navigation Skills. Navigation skills encompass the ability to search for, identify, and select relevant and useful information. Archivists frequently work with undergraduates at the reference desk, and thus, have experience guiding students through the process of conducting archival research. One participant noted that archivists spend “a lot of time thinking about how people find materials and [...] looking for materials on other people’s behalf. So I know we know more about searching for things than the faculty do because they tell us” (Archivist11). Knowledge of local catalogs, descriptive aids, and the latest navigation tools give archivists an advantage in teaching students how to find primary sources. One archivist summed up her view of archivists’ greatest contribution as educators by saying “I think the best thing we can offer is navigation skills” (Archivist8).

The archivist-experts reported that because of their training and experience they have a broader understanding of primary sources than professors or academic librarians. Professors might have limited archival research experience themselves and may have never used the campus archives for their own research. In any case, they do not have the day-to-day familiarity with various types of records that archives professionals do. As one participant stated, archivists are “probably the best suited people to highlight the importance of primary sources, what they mean to our cultural heritage to enhance people’s appreciation for that cultural resource” (Archivist2).

Information Literacy. The Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) defines Information Literacy (IL) as “a set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information.”¹⁰ Knowledge of primary sources is part of being information literate, according to the ACRL’s Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education. Undergraduate students have been a central focus of the development of IL in library and information science. As efforts to provide students with skills that promote lifelong learning in the advent of increasing technology and availability of information, college and university libraries have taken a more proactive role in the undergraduate curriculum. From this literature, it is clear that understanding the information behavior of undergraduates is complex, involving students’ learning styles, perceptions of information, cognitive ability, and motivation. Studies have looked at various aspects of students’ use of information, such as how students acquire information and what role it plays in their lives (e.g., Dresang, 2005; Given, 2002;

¹⁰ Association of College and Research Libraries, *Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education*. <http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/standards/informationliteracycompetency.cfm> (accessed November 11, 2009).

OCLC, 2002; Seamans, 2002), their epistemological beliefs and levels of cognitive development (e.g., Weiler, 2005; Whitmire, 2004), and their affective states in using the library (e.g., Mellon, 1986; Seamans, 2002).

The majority of the participants interviewed in this study are heavily involved with the IL initiatives at their institutions. Some teach components of IL classes dealing specifically with primary sources. Others partner with subject specialists to provide instruction. This is a more natural collaboration when the archival repository is officially part of the library. In this case, it is convenient for archivists and librarians to catch up with the latest developments by sitting in on each other's classes. One archivist explains her experiences with the main library:

We try to work very closely with the reference librarians. We're actually in the same building with the main library so we try to keep each other up-to-date on which classes are coming in for which kind of instruction. And we also try to be very good about suggesting to any faculty member who contacts us. Like I would say have you talked to the American History Librarian or the Literature Librarian to see about getting something set up for your class for the materials that are in the rest of the building? Because almost none of their projects only involve our stuff. And then on the flip side the librarians in reference are very good in suggesting ways in which we can get our materials into the sessions that they're doing. So sometimes we'll just come in the end and talk about the primary sources that are up here. Sometimes we'll talk with a faculty member and set up a second session. And we definitely tag team on things like the history honors classes. And that's been very good because that makes us much more conversant on databases and search engines and records and collections and all that kind of thing here in the rest of the building. And it also gets them more familiar with what we have up here. So at the reference desk downstairs it's really easy for the reference librarian to suggest the students come up here. (Archivist 11)

Since the participants in this study provide frequent instruction to undergraduates, they may not be representative of the majority of professionals working with archival materials. Many archivists provide instruction to students independent of the main library

in their institution and others may be uncomfortable with the term information literacy – seeing it as too broad for the type of tailored instruction archivists provide to students. Even so, the strengths of collaboration with other information professionals that share similar instructional goals are evident in the participants’ enthusiasm for the IL initiatives in their institutions.

Research Question 2: What do Archivists Consider Essential Knowledge for Undergraduates Conducting Archival Research?

Carini (2009) described a session at the New England Archivists Meeting focusing on archivists as educators. One issue that was put forward during the session was “the need for some understanding of what students need to know about archives and the use of primary sources” (p. 46). After the session, a small group of participants continued to think about this issue as part of a curriculum for teaching primary sources. The group identified a set of core concepts regarding what students need to know about archives. Carini writes, “[t]he first, and most important, concept that must be imparted is that archives exist and are there to be used. Along with this comes the importance of drawing students into, and exciting them about, the use of the primary sources” (p. 48). He goes on to list another 15 concepts he is currently developing into a curriculum.

My research corroborates the two core concepts that Carini identified as necessary for undergraduates to know about archival research. The two most frequent themes participants convey to undergraduate students are (1) an awareness of archives and (2) excitement about the work of archival research. These two concepts were mentioned repeatedly during the interviews.

Awareness of Archives. The most important piece of information that archivists convey to undergraduate students is the fact that archives exist and are accessible. One

participant notes that the “most basic thing that undergraduates need to know about archives is how to access them” (Archivist2). One approach that many of the participants have taken is to begin by delineating the differences between archives and libraries. Since most students are comfortable with online searching, their expectations about archival materials can often be unrealistic. For this reason, participants try to convey the process of archival research to their students.

That you’re going to have to think a little bit more. There’s no magic search box. And that archives research can be hard work. It can be really rewarding work. I think being very honest and trying to let them know realistically that they’re going to have to really do the work. That there aren’t very many fake out short cuts (Archivist13).

Part of understanding this process is “realiz[ing] that a manuscript collection is not like a book. And they may come to a collection and [think] this is the folder that’s going to tell it all and could lead off in a totally different direction” (Archivist7). Similarly, another participant notes that she “wants them to grapple with how this [process] is going to be different than reading a book. So it’s not going to have all the information laid out on it. So one of the questions we ask is what other information do you need in order to understand this? And then we talk a little bit about where would you go to find that information” (Archivist11).

In addition to explaining the process of archival research, some of the participants noted they wanted students to feel welcomed and comfortable.

And they need to develop a comfort level with that . . . so our first goal is to make the repository a friendly and welcoming place to our student (Archivist2)

But I also think they should not be afraid to come to an archive. I like to think of ourselves as not scary – we’re welcoming . . . we’re generally friendly people. We want to help them. If they weren’t here we wouldn’t be here (Archivist8)

The importance of welcoming the students and giving them an awareness of the archives was also overwhelmingly mentioned in the responses to the survey question “What do you hope students will gain from your repository’s instruction?” in the last chapter. Respondents also mentioned wanting students to gain a general understanding of the function and purpose of primary sources and to learn how to conduct research in archives as important goals of instruction. These intentions were echoed in the sentiments expressed by students in both the Zhou (2008) and Duff and Cherry (2008) studies on undergraduate use of archives.

Excitement About the Work of Archival Research. Many of the participants in this study mentioned getting the students excited as an important goal of archival instruction. This enthusiasm could be for the unique materials in a collection, the thrill of hunting down useful items, or the act of interpreting and making sense of primary sources. One participant notes that “I just want the students to work with something fun and come away with that sense of excitement” (Archivist11). One of the main sources of enthusiasm can come from developing a sense of mastery over the materials:

And they like becoming an expert on something that they can then report back on. I think that sense of mastery over a small piece of material can be helpful and they come back up later. Just that experience of having gotten a little bit of mastery (Archivist11)

Similarly, a sense of empowerment can come from seeing something new in the process of conducting original research:

That everybody who reads these old things sees something new, understands something different, that is a really exciting thing. It makes them into active scholars I think (Archivist9)

One thing that really resonates with them is that I tell them that they’re doing original research and they may come to a collection with a very new insight that hasn’t been noticed before so depending what they chose their

paper may be good enough to be published down the road and I think that's a very novel thought for most of them but it's true. They may actually have a wonderful insight into something (Archivist4)

And it can be really empowering for them to do research. And empowering to find stuff online when they are told a lot that what you find online might not be the greatest or you won't find anything online – sort of allowing them to do free form research is really good (Archivist13)

The psychologist Albert Bandura identified this empowering notion of mastery or expertise over something as *self-efficacy*. Well-known for his early experiments in social modeling using a Bobo doll (1961), Bandura later developed social cognitive theory to explain human behavior. One major component of his theory is self-efficacy. Bandura claims that how people judge their abilities “mediates the relationships between knowledge and action” (1986, p. 390). Bandura argues that people possessing similar skills can perform differently on various occasions due to their self-perception. In other words, perceived self-efficacy “is a significant determinant of performance that operates partially independently of underlying skills” (p. 391). Therefore, success is a factor of possessing the appropriate skills and or knowledge as well as self-beliefs based on the ability to use these skills effectively. Self-efficacy knowledge is based on four sources of information (p. 399-401):

- Enactive attainment: The attainment of success or failure greatly influences our perceptions of self-efficacy. Repeated successes tend to generate a strong sense of self-efficacy while repeated failures can have a debilitating effect on those feelings.
- Vicarious experience: Observing other people perform successfully can impact an individual's perceived self-efficacy especially if the other people are similar.

- Verbal persuasion: When people are told that they possess adequate skills to perform a given task, it may raise their perception of self-efficacy if what they are told is realistically plausible. However, if people are unrealistically told they can achieve impossible goals, it may greatly undermine their self-efficacy beliefs.
- Physiological state: People can judge their abilities based on how they feel physically. If during an activity, people begin to feel pains and anxiety, they may judge these physiological reactions as signs of inefficacy. Bandura has experimented with treatments of emotional phobias through repeated exposure as a way to increase self-efficacy beliefs. For example, he ran experiments with subjects terrified of snakes and showed that increased exposure to the object of fear lowered levels of anxiety and increased self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura & Adams, 1977).

The participants who mentioned giving undergraduate students a sense of mastery over the process of conducting archival research are tapping into a significant motivational factor that can encourage students to apply what they learn from working with primary sources to other life skills. Using Bandura's research as a model, archivists do several things to increase students' perceived self-efficacy. They can provide a comfortable, inviting atmosphere for students to practice working with primary sources. They can also provide encouragement and model the research process to increase students' confidence in conducting archival research.

Research Question 3: What Teaching Strategies Work Best with Undergraduates?

This research question is aimed at identifying specific pedagogical approaches to teaching undergraduate students how to use primary sources. The participants' responses

reveal how their own teaching methods have evolved from a lecture-based “show and tell” approach to more active, hands-on strategies designed to engage students. Over years of experience working with undergraduates, the participants had very strong opinions about what teaching strategies tend to work better with this user group. They also provided examples of specific instructional methods designed to engage students.

Active Learning. Active learning is a catchword that is frequently found in information literacy and education literature. The term’s roots can be traced to a publication by Bonwell & Eison (1991) for the Association for the Study of Higher Education (ASHE) although the concept has been around longer. According to Bonwell and Eison (1991), students must “do more than just listen: They must read, write, discuss, or be engaged in solving problems. Most important, to be actively involved, students must engage in such higher-order thinking tasks as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation” (p. 2). Active learning is grounded in a constructivist approach to learning which assumes that “people construct new knowledge and understandings based on what they already know and believe” (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000, p.10). Constructivism differs from the two other main categories of learning theory: behavioral and cognitive. Behaviorism was very popular in the first half of the twentieth century and it viewed learning as an observable phenomenon that responds to stimuli and can be reinforced. However, as psychologists began to study the brain more closely, a cognitive approach to learning based on human memory emerged. Constructivism, however, is more focused on understanding than memory. The book *How People Learn* (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000) attests that since understanding is so important to learning, helping students take control of their own learning is beneficial. This gives the learner an

awareness of what they already understand and when they need to ask for more information, a phenomenon known as “metacognition” (p. 12).

Participants in this research study were overwhelmingly convinced of the benefits of active learning in teaching undergraduates how to use primary sources. One archivist was clear about what did NOT work with her students:

One thing that does not work is the standing lecture. Our shortest class is normally 50 minutes so what doesn't work is standing up in front of them and talking at them for 40 minutes and then just sort of holding up objects and say this relates to the topic of your course, this relates to the topic of your course, oh isn't this cool, oh isn't this cool. Yes you might get one or two students that get it that are like oh wow that is really cool but by and large you're not connecting with the students that aren't. You're not making this relevant so for the most part...I've heard students after those classes like why did we do that; why were we there; why did our professor make us sit there in the uncomfy chairs for that? So that's what doesn't work (Archivist3)

Bonwell & Eison (1991) mention several strategies for incorporating active learning in higher education. Discussions, writing exercises, giving students a chance to reflect on what they learned are all classic strategies. The authors also cite visual-based instruction as a way to focus student learning as well as more innovative techniques including “cooperative learning, debates, drama, role playing and simulation, and peer teaching” (p. 3). The participants in this study mentioned many of these teaching strategies, particularly (1) visual and hands-on learning and (2) cooperative learning.

Visual and Hands-on Learning. Undergraduates, as part of the “Generation Y” demographic, tend to be attracted to visual representations in learning (Dresang, 2005; Weiler, 2005), require a personal or academic motive to use the library or archives, and rely on their peers and family as important sources of information (OCLC, 2002; Valentine, 1993; Weiler, 2005). Many of the participants in this study incorporate visual

and tactile learning methods to grasp students' attention and engage them in the instruction.

I think the key to it too is to have something during the class where they get to touch the stuff. They really get to interact with it (Archivist3)

What I've been doing this last year and this year is I try to build in a component to the class where the student actually sits down with a box of manuscripts and start looking at them (Archivist4)

And when can also bring photos and video and film clips and that kind of thing. If they can relate to the document it's more real....I know when I show students the original Registrars book and say this is what a student's transcript was in 1870 they are really excited because that's like a physical object that they relate to that student (Archivist8)

And what I realized when I really started showing them material they really light up when they really got to handle the material and work with it themselves in some way and so I began to try and devise methods of working that would center on the materials itself and more and more going toward having the students do something in class so that they are the mover, the handlers of the material and I'm really there just as a guide for them to ask questions and lead them in their direction. So I've moved more and more of an active role to the students and they seem to eat it up (Archivist10)

In addition to encouraging the students to see and touch primary sources as a way to help them learn about archival research, some participants also encouraged collaborative or group learning. Many education researchers have studied the benefits of group work, indicating that students solve problems in a group setting more effectively than on their own (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000). Some of the participants in this study have discovered that students love working in groups and have incorporated collaborative learning strategies into their instructional sessions:

They love working in groups. They love sitting around and talking about the material. Even things I thought isn't sort of interesting and gripping they loved. And then I think they like having something they can choose from and not having it assigned to them (Archivist11)

I'll always have something that they have to get up and get into groups so that like half way through the class they have to move a little bit. In some ways that's where that little kinesthetic learning part comes in. I'm always trying to figure out how to bring that into the class (Archivist3)

I think the best sessions have involved small group work with a manuscript box, or an display of illuminated manuscript facsimiles, or actual time with maps, etc. (Archivist12)

The participants in this study fundamentally agree that there are teaching strategies that work more effectively with undergraduate students than providing a “show and tell” lecture. Despite limitations to their teaching, including limited instruction time (one hour-long class period on average), space, and training in instruction, these participants have discovered innovative ways to encourage students to get excited about primary sources. The participants have also found ways to incorporate these pedagogical strategies in more traditional forms of instruction such as archival orientations. For example, some participants have given students a box of materials to work with while others have divided them into groups. One participant mentioned taking the students into the stacks in order to give them “a sense of the amount of material there is” (Archivist8). Another participant likes to use handouts similar to the ones available from the Library of Congress Media Analysis Tools¹¹ and the National Archives Teaching With Documents Worksheets¹² to encourage student participation.

A few participants mentioned effective teaching strategies that included assignments. For example, two participants assigned a web-based project to their students because, “[w]hen kids do the research themselves and they see it go online or even if it's just scanning and not any analysis and they see their name going up there, they are so

¹¹ <http://memory.loc.gov/learn/lessons/media.html>

¹² <http://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/>

proud of what they do and they want to do more” (Archivist9). Another participant discussed the importance of constructing narratives based on a few primary sources in the repository.

One of the ones that I do centers on narrative building because one of the things I found is that students are really used to working with historical narrative but historical narrative that’s been provided to them by an author. So one of the things I’ll do is find a story within the archives. And then what I do is find key documents – usually just one document or maybe 4 or 5 documents, sometimes a few more. And I divide them up so that they’re chronologically in order. And I divide the students up into groups and each group of 2-4 depending on the size of the class and the complex of the material get one document. . . .And through those documents they then construct a narrative within the class. And then I ask lots of questions while they’re doing their narrative and try to drive them to look deeper into the documents and help as they’re doing that (Archivist10)

Undergraduate Research Initiatives. Several participants noted their involvement in freshman seminars and senior projects. These two recent initiatives are part of a growing awareness of the importance of undergraduate research on college and university campuses. The Boyer Commission Report on Reinventing Undergraduate Education (1998) lists ten recommendations meant to increase research and learning opportunities for undergraduate students. Among these recommendations is the importance of establishing inquiry-based learning experiences for first-year students. One of the most important ways of encouraging this is through a freshman seminar in which students work together and with faculty to explore new intellectual horizons.

Several of the participants in this study either taught or were heavily involved in freshman seminars. At the time of my interview with Archivist1, she was teaching a one-credit freshman seminar about the history of her university for the first time. Archivist3 participates in a program known as Freshman Interest Groups that recreates a small, seminar environment based on various themes. She meets with the students at the

beginning of the term to introduce them to primary sources and present the history of the university. The students are assigned to compile a journal they later donate to the archives at the end of the year. This activity gives the students a real sense of how they are part of the history of the school and helps the archives document student life.

The Boyer Report (1998) also recommended that undergraduate students be encouraged to use technology creatively. With all of the technological advances archives have been involved in, including digitization, online finding aids, and tutorials, this seems to be a natural strength for archivists. As mentioned above, two participants in this study already have their students work on projects that require them to curate and exhibit online collections.

Another recommendation of the Boyer Report is the capstone or senior project experience at the end of undergraduate education. According to the report, “[a]ll the skills of research developed in earlier work should be marshaled in a project that demands the framing of a significant question or set of questions, the research or creative exploration to find answers, and the communication skills to convey the results to audiences both expert and uninitiated in the subject matter” (p. 27). Several of the participants in this study discussed their involvement with senior theses, mostly in guiding students through the research process when they enter the archives or in reading honors theses and awarding prizes for outstanding work.

The Boyer Report also emphasizes the importance of a faculty mentor for students. In a recently published literature review of the archivist’s role in undergraduate primary source research, Malkmus (2008) stressed collaborating with professors in order to reach students. Most of the participants in this study also mentioned the critical role

professors play in getting the students to come to the archives and in tailoring the instruction to fit the needs of a particular class. Many of the participants discussed meeting with professors ahead of time to pull relevant collections and familiarize themselves with the syllabus and assignments. One participant emphasized that the more a professor participates in the instructional session, the more engaged the students are. Another effective teaching strategy for undergraduates is having the professor participate in the instruction. Many of the participants view the faculty member as an important member of their audience and measure their success by the feedback they receive from professors.

Research Question 4: How do Archivists Assess their Instruction to Undergraduates?

Assessing instruction is more than collecting feedback from students and professors. It involves careful planning, clear articulation of learning objectives, and a concrete method of measuring what the students gained from the lesson. Reflective practice is also an important part of assessment (Bengtsson, 1995; Brookfield, 1995; Calderhead, 1987), particularly in learning how to become a teacher and improving the effectiveness of instruction. Although time-consuming, the benefits of assessment are significant because they give the instructor a sense of what undergraduates already know about primary sources and what they still need to learn. Assessment also provides concrete feedback to the instructor about what worked and what was not effective in the lesson. If archivists are to view themselves as educators, as Osborne (1986) advocated, they will need to implement deliberate and meaningful assessment measures that inform and guide their instruction, particularly to students. All of the participants in this study were acutely aware of the importance and benefits of collecting feedback about their

instruction. Many of them collect statistics about instruction and take anecdotal and informal feedback from students and professors very seriously. This is a valuable first step and helps the participants demonstrate the effort they put into instruction and calibrate their teaching.

Based on the research in this study and the responses to the survey in the previous chapter, it is clear that many archives professionals engage in the process of assessment informally. They put a lot of effort into contacting professors ahead of time, reading through syllabi and assignments, and identifying relevant materials in their collections. They may individually or collectively (via a wiki) maintain a file of useful instructional materials like Power Point slides and handouts. They also may frame their instruction in terms of learning objectives and pedagogical strategies. In all, they put a great deal of effort into preparing the lesson, yet the feedback they receive may be anecdotal or based on whether professors or students return to the repository. In many cases, they simply receive no feedback, something that can be unnerving as one participant noted:

“Sometimes I don’t get any feedback which is really frustrating. Mostly I get very positive feedback. Faculty come back...I have a lot of repeat faculty who bring their students in over and over again. So I think they’re sort of voting with their feet in that case” (Archivist10).

Few of the participants in this study engage in formal evaluations of their teaching. These mostly take place with for-credit classes at the end of the term. One participant does collect feedback after every session through a one-minute response form:

Almost every session we use a one-minute response form...2 questions...1) what is one thing you learned today that useful to you and 2) what is one question you still have about what we talked about? I usually compile this and send it to the instructor who then shares it with the students...so a sort

of follow-up. Almost always there is someone who says...this session was really good. I didn't even know about Special Collections before (Archivist12)

Another archivist found that follow up class visits were effective for students:

So one thing I tried this time is to do follow up in class visits like two or three weeks later once they had actually started to do their research. And I think that has, I hope that made the interaction and the initial orientation almost more effective because then they had questions and they had had problems and they could say well that person on the desk didn't just hand me what I want. So I think that's something that we're going to do, at least I'm going to do in all of my sessions (Archivist13)

Many archives professionals have expressed the sentiment that there is simply not enough time for assessment with their busy schedules and limited staff. This is certainly understandable given the demands of college and university archives and special collections. However, since archives professionals are already investing a lot of time and effort in instruction, it benefits them to develop what one participant suggested, “a program that’s very predictable” (Archivist13). A well-designed instruction program that includes a core curriculum, learning objectives, and an assessment tool has many benefits. It would help archivists reach out to professors by clearly stating the objectives of the instruction. It would also help to streamline instruction efforts within a single repository and among repositories on the same campus. An instruction program can also help save time because the core components can be re-used and tailored to specific courses and audiences. There is a great deal of research currently taking place to further this movement along. For example, Carini (2009) is developing a curriculum for undergraduate archival research. Malkmus (2007) has surveyed over 600 history professors across the nation to gauge their needs in teaching with primary sources. The following chapter of this dissertation discusses an assessment of student learning from

archival instruction based on a rubric. Innovative archives professionals across the country are testing and implementing teaching strategies and sharing them with their colleagues at conferences such as the Society of American Archivists annual meeting.

Discussion

The exploratory study described in this chapter offers a more in-depth look at the role of archivists as educators. For decades, the archival literature has included exhortations meant to encourage archivists to think of themselves as educators. As the survey results in Chapter 2 attest, archivists engage in a lot of instructional activities, from one-on-one interviews to large workshops, and they spend a great deal of time preparing to teach and thinking about the impact of their instruction. This study highlights the thoughts and approaches of a dozen individuals that care deeply about educating undergraduate students.

Although much has been written about the value of using primary sources in the classroom, very little of it has acknowledged the role of the archivist in creating access to these resources and guiding users through the process of archival research. The literature on history education makes no mention of the archivist as a mediator and the majority of history faculty relies on published primary sources for more than half of their classes (Malkmus, 2008). Yet, as the results of this study illustrate, archivists have specialized knowledge about primary sources and their collections as well as how to navigate archival systems. This knowledge is invaluable in teaching students how to search for, identify, select, and interpret primary sources – skills that are the basis for conducting research in the humanities and social sciences. Archivists also spend a great deal of time

orienting users to their collections, giving them the knowledge and experience of explaining the archival research process to novices.

Archivists are also increasingly thinking about their instruction as a part of the larger information literacy curriculum. As a result, they are focusing more on pedagogical strategies targeted to specific user groups. The participants in this study championed active learning techniques that give undergraduate students a chance to work with materials hands-on, individually or collaboratively. They shared innovative teaching strategies that have developed over many years of providing orientations to students. Many of the participants are also seeking feedback about their instruction in order to measure its impact and create a more streamlined instructional program.

As the literature points out, educators are already convinced of the benefits of using primary sources in the classroom. They are aware of the critical thinking and analysis skills students learn when exposed to documentary material. Yet most of the literature overlooks the potential research skills students can learn directly from archives professionals. There is a trend in the educational psychology literature to examine the practices of experts compared to novices as a factor in understanding how learning happens. In the influential book *How People Learn* (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000), the authors examine the vast literature on the psychology of expertise and conclude that there are significant differences in how experts organize their knowledge. Scholars have examined what it looks like to think like an expert chess player, radiologist (Chi, Glaser & Farr, 1988), or historian (Cole, 2000a, 2000b; Wineburg, 1991) and have extrapolated pedagogical methods to help students learn and apply the techniques and approaches of experts in various disciplines.

In the archival literature, Yakel & Torres (2003) compared expert users of archives with novices to describe the components of “archival intelligence.” Anthony (2006) examined the differences between expert and novice archivists in various reference tasks. Trace (2006) also studied the expertise of reference archivists from an ethnographic point of view. These studies provide some insight into archival expertise that can help students and archives users, in general, find and effectively use primary sources. Insights from this study are also valuable in understanding how archivists evaluate their own instructional services and their role in undergraduate education. During my interviews with these participants, I noticed that the question “Is there anything in your training as an archivist and your experience that would help a student more effectively search for, navigate through, and use primary documents?” often met with hesitation or a request for me to repeat the question. Granted, it is a long-winded question, but, more importantly, I think it is a question that has not been asked before. In order to be effective educators, archivists need to clearly articulate what they can teach students and why they are the best qualified to teach them about primary sources.

At the heart of this notion is outreach and public programming for the purpose of promoting and sustaining the existence of archives and the professionals charged with caring for them and making them accessible. Elsie Freeman pioneered this way of thinking thirty years ago as Chief of the Education Branch for the National Archives and Records Administration. In an article entitled “Buying Quarter Inch Holes: Public Support Through Results,” Freeman (1985) acknowledges that the “nature of [archival] work makes publicizing outcomes difficult” (p. 90) because direct results are unclear. Books are written, films are produced, genealogical histories are compiled with the help

of research using primary sources, but as Freeman argues, it is not “essential” (p. 90). Since the connections between these products and archival research are often unstated and unclear, it is up to archivists to make them explicit.

In teaching students, results are similarly vague. Can archivists be sure that the students attending their orientations are learning anything? Since the feedback they receive is mostly informal and anecdotal, it is difficult to quantify the efforts of that instruction. I believe this is the reason why the participants in this study hesitated when I asked them what they contribute to undergraduate education. Freeman (1985) argued that promoting the connection between archival research and results “requires imagination, persistence, and a clear understanding not only of who our users are but what our relationship to them is” (p. 90). Over the past twenty years, there has been a greater focus on and more research about the users of primary sources. Yet what we have not done enough of is explore and articulate archivists’ relationship to users. This requires a great deal of introspection about who we are as professionals and how we serve our users. Part of being effective educators is examining why our training, experience, and way of thinking about primary sources is valuable in teaching students how to conduct research in the humanities and social sciences. This study is a first attempt at beginning this dialogue within the profession.

Further examining our relationship to undergraduate students will help us to articulate the outcomes of archival instruction. As colleges and universities increasingly institutionalize the undergraduate research curriculum, archivists are in an ideal position to get involved by advertising the research benefits of their instructional programs. By participating in freshman seminars and providing “laboratories” for humanities and social

science students to work on their senior projects, archivists are already deeply involved with the trend towards improving undergraduate education.

Conclusion

Archives professionals have been engaged in instructional activities for decades and they have learned a lot about effective teaching strategies and how to convey archival research to undergraduates as well as other user groups. Yet much of this knowledge has not been shared within the profession. While the archival literature does include a few case studies describing instruction (e.g., Gilliland-Swetland, 1999; Robyns, 2001; Zhou, 2008), these are isolated examples and have not led to the adoption of a standardized curriculum, learning objectives, or assessment tools.

Archivists need to share their teaching expertise with one another and work toward common instructional goals that can be tailored to suit individual needs. This is particularly true for archives professionals on college and university campuses where they often are mandated to support the educational mission of their institutions.

Developing predictable and reliable instructional programs would give archivists the advantage of articulating their educational role to professors and administrators. It would also help to create a repository of instructional materials that can be refined, re-used, and shared, such as the LOEX (Library Orientation eXchange) clearinghouse for academic librarians.¹³ Finally, an instructional program would include robust assessment tools to measure the impact of instruction on students, as well as other user groups.

¹³ LOEX Clearinghouse for Library Instruction, <http://www.emich.edu/public/loex/loex.html>, (accessed November 11, 2009).

CHAPTER 4

Undergraduates in the Archives: Using an Assessment Rubric to Measure Learning

Archives professionals expend a great deal of effort in instructing their users about their collections, finding aids, and other resources. They provide one-on-one guidance at the reference desk, teach workshops for faculty and administrators, and participate in classroom instruction at all levels of education. Yet, the feedback they collect about these efforts is haphazard and informal, as the results of the instructional survey in Chapter 2 suggest. Repeated visits and use of the archives are oft-cited measures of satisfaction, as are informal discussions with instructors and students. These anecdotal impressions, however, do not reveal much about the components of archival instruction and these impressions say nothing reliable about what students take away from these orientations.

In professional guidelines prepared by the Society of American Archivists (SAA), college and university archives are encouraged to “serve as an educational laboratory where students may learn about: a particular subject, the different types of available resources, the proper procedures and techniques for using primary archival resources in their research projects” (SAA, 2005). Archivists and special collections librarians have expressed the hope that their instructional efforts are enhancing students’ learning

experiences. Two respondents to the instructional survey described in Chapter Two illustrate this hope:

Undergraduate curriculum emphasizes research and writing--we play a part in that learning, helping them with research and analysis of primary sources (Q21, Respondent 613212330).

We hope they will understand that Special Collections is a resource for them to use, and the primary sources provided are one-of-a-kind and will enhance their learning experience (Q21, Respondent 613191241).

The resources academic archives collect reflect their institution's administrative and cultural history, mission, and in some cases their faculty's research interests.

Academic archives and special collections can and do complement the information literacy efforts of academic libraries, extending them to include a definition of primary sources, an overview of finding aids, and the basics of documentary analysis. In the recently published *College and University Archives: Readings in Theory and Practice* (Prom & Swain, 2008), Elizabeth Yakel calls archival researcher education "an opportunity" for archivists (p. 268). Academic archivists can use this opportunity to build a stake in the educational mandate of their institutions by helping students learn how to search for, locate, and analyze primary sources for the purposes of a class assignment and beyond (Cook, 1997; Gilliland-Swetland, 1998; Hendry, 2007; Osborne, 1986; Robyns, 2001; Yakel, 2004). However, without the aid of concrete assessment tools that provide feedback to archivists about their efforts, archivists can find it challenging to measure their impact on users.

This study is the first to introduce the use of a rubric to evaluate the instruction that archivists provide to users and offers a model for assessing what undergraduate students can learn from archival instruction. I undertook a quasi-experimental field study

to examine what students in an undergraduate history course at a large state university learn from archival instruction. The study also builds upon previous work in the archival literature (Yakel & Torres, 2003; Yakel, Duff, & Tibbo, 2008) to explore the components of primary source or archival literacy and how they can be measured. The research questions guiding this study are the following:

- 1) What can undergraduate students learn from archival instruction?
- 2) Can undergraduate student learning about archives be measured through the use of a rubric?

Assessing Learning in Archives: A Literature Review

Recent attention in the archival literature focuses on assessing the services archivists provide to users. In 2008, the Archival Metrics project¹⁴ published a suite of standardized questionnaires to help college and university archivists evaluate their reference services, website, online finding aids, and orientation sessions, but these measures are not yet widely adapted. Evaluation of archival services, including instructional sessions, can offer useful feedback to archivists about how their efforts impact visitors and researchers. In practice, however, very few repositories have any kind of formal evaluation for their instruction efforts in place. Both of the preceding studies in this dissertation suggest that archivists rely on informal feedback to assess the quality of their instructional services and their impact on teaching faculty and students.

Two recent studies have examined archival instructional services from the perspective of students. Zhou's (2008) article "Student Archival Research Activity: An Exploratory Study" is describes a small case study of instruction at the Bentley Historical

¹⁴ <http://archivalmetrics.org>

Library at the University of Michigan. Zhou conducted observations of one undergraduate history class both at the archives and in the classroom and she interviewed four students, the professor, and the reference archivist on several occasions. She relied on both Yakel and Torres' (2003) model of archival intelligence and Kuhlthau's (1988) information seeking model to create a new model specific to the archival environment. Zhou's Student Archival Research Activity (SARA) model captures the stages students encounter in their research, knowledge and skills they develop in the process, and the role of both the instructor and archivist. Zhou offers a detailed description of the tailored orientation the reference archivist provided, which, consisted of an introduction to and history of the institution, its holdings, the concept of provenance, a discussion of the differences between primary and secondary sources, and searching strategies. The students then engaged in hands-on exercises with boxes of materials. In interviewing the four students, Zhou found that they wanted more information from the orientation, specifically, more about how to use archival resources, such as online finding aids, and the basic steps involved in using the archives.

Zhou notes that the design of the orientation is crucial because this activity helps students begin thinking critically about how to interpret archival materials and use them in their own work. She calls for more collaboration between instructors and archivists in shaping the content of the orientation. Zhou's study is a valuable first step in analyzing students' research behavior in the archives, but it is based on a very small sample of subjects and her model has not been tested in any other study. Further, Zhou's study does not objectively demonstrate student learning because it is based on students' reports of their archival experience.

Another study relying on students' perspectives assesses the impact of four archival orientation sessions at the Yale University Library Manuscripts and Archives conducted by Duff and Cherry (2008) as part of the Archival Metrics project. Duff and Cherry surveyed students twice (before they attended a brief orientation and at the end of the term) to find out whether the students' self-reported confidence in finding primary sources and if their use of these sources was higher at the end of the term. The researchers found a small increase in the level of self-reported confidence in finding archival materials and an increase in the use of certain types of materials such as personal papers, correspondence, and photographs. Most interesting are the students' suggestions for improving the orientation. Of the 46 completed surveys, 16 students had expressed a need to learn how to search more effectively and 11 wanted to learn the basic steps in using an archives (p. 521). Seven students and two of the four professors also surveyed recommended adding a hands-on component to the orientation (p. 521).

These two studies reflect the opinions of students about archival orientations and in both of them, students generally expressed satisfaction with the orientations they attended. However, the students felt they needed more instruction in the basic steps involved in using an archives, ranging from filling out a call slip to using finding aids. The students also wanted a more active experience in which they could engage not only with the documents themselves, but also with the process of doing research in the archives. These studies suggest that the students want the process modeled for them (Collins, 2002) so that they can build a conceptual understanding of how to accomplish archival research.

While these studies offer important first steps in assessing the impact of archival instruction on undergraduate students because they assess students' feedback about the process, what they reveal about learning is limited. Both studies rely on self-reported measures – either in interview form (Zhou, 2008) or questionnaire (Duff & Cherry, 2008). Self-reported measures can be subject to bias stemming from such elements as the way the question is worded or the available response categories. These measures can also be related to social-desirability bias, or “the tendency to offer responses that are felt to be more acceptable than others” (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Liao, 2004, p. 1014). While the studies point to the archival orientation as a critical instructional experience, they do not address whether or not the students are learning.

Learning can be challenging to measure because it is a subtle process that cannot be observed directly. For this reason, the outcomes of learning are usually assessed through observation, written or oral responses, and self-reports (Schunk, 2004). Written and oral responses are the most common measurement of learning in schools. Teachers evaluate students' written work in the form of quizzes, tests, essays, and term papers to determine if learning has occurred. They often employ a rubric to assess students' performance. Suskie & Banta (2009) define rubrics as “a scoring guide: a list or chart that describes the criteria that you and perhaps your colleagues will use to evaluate or grade completed student assignments” (p. 137). Two types of rubrics exist: holistic and analytic. Holistic rubrics “score the overall process or product as a whole, without judging the separate parts” while analytic rubrics, like the one used in this study, score individual parts of a product or performance (Gratch-Lindauer, 2003).

Oakleaf (2009) discusses some of the benefits of rubric assessment. If rubrics are transparent, they can help students understand instructors' expectations and provide direct feedback about their performance. Oakleaf argues that the very process of creating a rubric is useful for university librarians and faculty in clearly defining learning objectives and outcomes. Rubrics also offer assessment data about students' learning that can help improve instruction. For archivists, rubrics can be useful in identifying and articulating the goals of archival instruction. Rubrics can also aid collaboration with teaching faculty and librarians because they serve as a tool for communicating the objectives of archival orientations and demonstrate whether or not students are acquiring specific knowledge and skills.

Although librarians are increasingly using rubrics to assess information literacy instruction (Knight, 2006), archivists have not yet adopted these assessment tools. In this study, I develop a rubric for assessing undergraduate students' performance on a document analysis exercise. I hypothesize that undergraduate students receiving archival instruction will perform better on a document analysis exercise than students not receiving this instruction. Furthermore, I examine what the students are learning and how those skills might contribute to an understanding of primary source or archival literacy.

Method

Study Participants

The subjects in this research study were 93 undergraduate students in a large history survey class taken during the winter of 2009 at a large state university. The students in four discussion sections were divided into a control and a treatment group.

The number of students in each discussion group was not determined by the study, but was a factor of the enrollment process at the beginning of the term. Some data were removed from the final dataset because ten students were not present for the post-test and one student was a second-year graduate student. Thus, the final dataset consists of 37 students in the control group and 45 in the treatment group, for a total of 82 students.

The majority of the students in the treatment group were 20 years old and were in their sophomore year of college. The control group differed slightly in that the subjects tended to be younger with more students in their freshman year. In addition, the majority of students in the control group were majoring in education or history, and 7 students were undecided. In the treatment group, many more students majored in history (19 compared to 7 in the control group) and none were undecided

Despite these differences between the groups, their archival experience as measured by responses to the question “How much experience do you have with conducting archival research?” are strikingly similar.¹⁵ Surprisingly, fewer than 10% of the students in both groups report having no archival experience. The majority of students in both groups reports having minimal archival experience. A third of the students have conducted archival research using digital primary sources while a quarter report onsite archival experience. Only four individuals in each group claimed to have substantial experience conducting archival research.¹⁶

¹⁵ See Appendix 4.1 for the response categories to this question.

¹⁶ Other studies have indicated that undergraduates may misinterpret their use of archives. Kathleen Fear’s Master’s thesis (2009) found that in a group of 78 undergraduate subjects, about half claimed they had archival experience. Subjects had the opportunity to ask for clarification when completing the questionnaire, such as “would I know if I have used archives before” leading Fear to expect much lower levels of archival experience than reported (p. 16). Similarly, in this study I expected the majority of the students to report having no previous archival experience. Until we have a better measure of archival experience, results such as this need to be interpreted with caution.

Materials

To measure learning through the use of a rubric, I compared two similar groups of students: (1) a treatment group that was given an archival orientation and (2) a control group that did not receive any archival orientation. I asked both groups to complete a document analysis exercise before the archival instruction and afterwards. This pre-test-post-test comparison is a classic experimental design that can assess a pedagogical intervention (i.e. archival instruction) by comparing the results of two groups over a period of time. This method was selected because it is often used in educational research to measure the effects of instruction (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 275). This comparison would suggest whether or not the treatment group learned from the archival instruction.

Document Analysis Exercise. In order to increase the validity of my experiment, I relied heavily on materials developed by educators at the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) in designing the document analysis exercises.¹⁷ Based on my research for the studies in Chapters Two and Three, I learned that archivists frequently rely on the Teaching with Documents materials to teach both high school and college students. Since these worksheets are already frequently used in practice, I made slight modifications and piloted them to develop the exercises used in this study.

The document analysis exercise pre-test (see Appendix 4.1) consists of three sections representing analysis of three types of documents: a textual document, a photograph, and a finding aid. The first two sections of the exercise for the textual document and the photograph are adapted from the NARA materials. Questions require

¹⁷ The National Archives and Records Administration offers many lesson plans and analysis worksheets that conform to the National History Standards and National Standards for Civics and Government. <http://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/> (accessed June 10, 2009).

students to identify the type of document, information about its source, audience, physical qualities, and content. Open-ended questions encourage the student to consider why the document was written, place it in a historical context, and engage with its author by posing an unanswered question.

To measure students' knowledge about searching for and locating primary sources, I added a question asking students where they would go to find documents similar to the one they analyzed. I also added a third section asking students to interpret and navigate through a finding aid for a collection of materials in order to identify important information on a topic. In the pre-test, I also included four demographic questions about the students' age, year in school, field of study, and experience conducting archival research to have a better understanding of the students' background. The post-test (see Appendix 4.2) was a slight modification of the pre-test in that the questions remained the same, but I had the students use different primary sources and a different finding aid to complete the exercise.

The questions in both the pre- and post-tests were designed to capture the students' ability to identify the basic characteristics of a primary document and demonstrate an awareness of its source. I relied on insights from the research on historical inquiry in evaluating and developing the document analysis exercises. For example, the concepts of *sourcing* and *contextualization* (Wineburg, 1991) are important heuristics historians use to verify, evaluate, and place documents in a broader context. The pre- and post-test questions are meant to encourage students to reflect on the meaning, purpose, and historical significance of the documents with which they are

presented. The questions also measure students' ability to read a basic archival finding aid, a necessary skill for identifying and locating primary sources.

Assessment Rubric. In developing the pre-and post-tests, I listed several learning objectives that would be useful in assessing students' performance (see Table 4.1). I used these objectives to develop the assessment rubric for the tests. Creating a rubric can be time-consuming. It requires explicit and detailed language about the learning objectives associated with a lesson or exercise. Gratch-Lindauer (2003) explains that designing a rubric typically requires a number of decisions about the lesson content, levels of performance, and quality of work. She recommends following these steps: (1) describe the learning outcomes of the instruction; (2) identify specific attributes that students should be able to demonstrate as a result of the instruction; (3) brainstorm characteristics of each attribute; (4) write narrative descriptions for the levels of performance for each attribute (p. 32).

Table 4.1

Learning Objectives for the Document Analysis Exercise

Written Document Analysis

Participants will describe the components of the written document (i.e. type, physical qualities, date, author, title, audience).

Participants will place the written document in a broader historical context.

Participants will ask questions about the document and evaluate the document's validity as a source.

Participants will locate additional sources on the topic of the document.

Photograph Analysis

Participants will identify key persons, activities and events in the photograph.

Participants will define the term "infer."

Participants will ask interpretative questions about the photograph and hypothesize answers to those questions.

Finding Aid Analysis

Participants will read through the finding aid to acquire basic information for research purposes.

Participants will identify and describe the different types of documents in the collection.

Participants will navigate through a finding aid with a specific research goal.

Participants will formulate a request for a primary source based on a citation or footnote.

Participants will locate additional materials on the topic of the collection.

The learning objectives reflect previous research on the skills necessary to conduct archival research. Yakel (2004) introduced the term “information literacy for primary sources” and proposed several dimensions of this concept. For Yakel, information literacy for primary sources includes domain or subject knowledge, artifactual knowledge, and archival intelligence. Archival intelligence (Yakel & Torres, 2003) refers to a user’s understanding of archival policies, arrangement and systems. In her model, it is inherent that archivists collaborate with teaching faculty and librarians to help students develop competency in the skills required for archival research.

Based on the learning objectives and the dimensions of the archival intelligence model, I identified four general categories of analysis or archival literacy skills:

(1) *Observation*: were students able to describe the elements of a document, photograph, and finding aid?

(2) *Interpretation/Historical Context*: were students able to find meaning in the sources and place them in a broader historical context?

(3) *Evaluation/Critical Thinking*: were students able to ask questions of the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths?

(4) *Research Skills*: did students have a meaningful awareness of archives, where to locate primary sources, and how to read a basic finding aid?

I considered what students should be able to demonstrate in the various categories and wrote narrative descriptions for each level of performance, from minimal to exemplary. I applied these categories to the document analysis exercises by creating sample responses

for each level of performance and consulted existing rubrics such as the *Analyzing a Primary Source Rubric* from Pearson Prentice Hall.¹⁸

After completing the rubric (see Table 4.2 and Appendix 4.3), I shared it with two professional archivists whom I had recruited to grade the pre-and post-tests. The archivists each had more than five years of experience teaching and working with undergraduates. They reviewed the test materials and the rubric thoroughly before the experiment commenced.

¹⁸ http://www.phschool.com/professional_development/assessment/rub_analyzing_prim_src.html, (Accessed 5 June 2009).

Table 4.2
Analytic Rubric for Document Analysis Exercise

CRITERIA	MINIMAL	FAIR	GOOD	EXEMPLARY
	1*	2	3	4
OBSERVATION	Makes a very brief or erroneous attempt at identifying the basic characteristics of the sources.**	Offers only a basic description of the sources and may include errors.	Describes most of the elements of the sources correctly.	Thoroughly and accurately describes elements of document, photograph, and finding aid.
INTERPRETATION/ HISTORICAL CONTEXT	Is not able to place any of the sources in a broader historical context.	Offers one example in which a source is placed in a broader historical context.	Explains and gives examples of the meaning and usefulness of more than one but not all of the sources, placing them in a broader historical context.	Explains and gives examples of the meaning and usefulness of all of the sources and places them within a broad historical context.
EVALUATION/ CRITICAL THINKING	Does not offer any additional information about the source besides what is already provided.	Asks questions about one source regarding its validity, limitations and strengths.	Able to ask questions about more than one but not all of the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths.	Able to ask questions about all of the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths.
RESEARCH SKILLS	Shows no awareness of how to find additional resources. Does not mention archives at all and is unable to come up with new research questions based on the sources.	Demonstrates limited knowledge of where to go for additional resources. Does not mention archives in a meaningful way. Shows limited ability to ask new research questions based on the sources.	Shows some awareness of additional sources, both primary and secondary. Mentions archives in a meaningful way. Demonstrates some ability to ask new research questions based on the sources.	Exhibits ability to ask new research questions based on the sources and to recognize the existence of additional resources, both primary and secondary. Exhibits a meaningful awareness of archives and how to read a finding aid.

*All answers received at least 1 point even if they were blank or erroneous.

**In this rubric "sources" refers to the document, photograph, and finding aid in the document analysis exercise.

Procedure

Students in both the control and treatment groups were given the pre-test in their discussion sections during the second week of the semester. After the pre-test, the students in the treatment group received a total of two hours of archival instruction during

two separate sessions.¹⁹ The first session occurred during the third week of the term. The archivist visited the class during one of the bi-weekly lectures and gave a Power Point presentation covering basic information about the repository and highlighting a few of its pertinent collections. Students in the control group were told to miss class that day and did not receive the archival instruction until later in the semester after they took the post-test.

The second instructional session took place in a meeting room in the archives. Students signed up to visit the archives for a one hour, hands-on instructional session. During the session, students participated in a station-based exercise that incorporated both elements of active and cooperative learning. The students were divided into groups of 4-6 and rotated around the room, spending 10-12 minutes each at four different stations. The stations consisted of (1) bibliographic instruction (i.e., using local catalogs to search for primary sources), (2) critical thinking, (3) photograph analysis, and (4) citation/footnote analysis. An archives staff member led each station and one of the graduate student instructors from the class led the citation/footnote analysis station. I observed the first and last of these sessions, recording my impressions of the instruction and student participation.

The archivist led the bibliographic instruction station. She began by asking the students what their majors were in order to make her discussion more relevant to their needs. She walked them through the archives' website, pointing out features of the online finding aid system. She also highlighted the different types of searches supported by the university library's main online catalog. Finally, she created a scenario in which she had

¹⁹ Although I developed the rubric and the document analysis exercise, the actual instruction was the domain of the participating archivist. The archivist designed the instruction in collaboration with the faculty member and me, based on years of experience conducting orientations.

to write a two-page paper on a given subject and walked the students through the process of searching for relevant materials specific to that scenario.

Another archives staff member led the photograph analysis station. She focused the session on a photograph taken near campus in the late nineteenth century. She compared the physical photograph to a digitized surrogate and demonstrated to the students how to go about identifying various aspects of the image. She also described several authoritative sources the students could utilize in verifying the photograph.

A graduate student led the critical thinking station. In this station, students were invited to sit around a table and read an article about a temperance resolution adopted in Michigan in 1881. Both photocopies and originals of the document were made available to the students. After reading the document, the students were encouraged to work through a copy of NARA's written document analysis worksheet.²⁰ The graduate student leading this station walked the students through the questions asking them to identify the type of document, its audience, and passages in the document illustrating its intent. The students participated by reading the document and individually answering the questions aloud.

Another graduate student led the citation/footnote station. The graduate student had a copy of Thomas Sugrue's book *Origins of Urban Crisis* and a box of materials cited in the book. He began by giving the students a brief overview of Sugrue's book, reading a passage about employment discrimination in Detroit's brewing industry. He pointed out a footnote for that passage and showed the students how to track down the sources in the archives' Detroit Urban League Collection. The graduate student also had

²⁰ This exercise should have been familiar to the students because the first 6 questions on the document analysis exercise in this study are identical to the NARA worksheet.

the paper-based finding aid for the collection at the table and walked through it with the students, describing it as providing basic information about a collection. He encouraged the students to locate a particular folder and try to find specific materials that Sugrue used in his argument. The students in this group actively handled archival materials and were encouraged to make a connection between a finding aid, a box of archival materials and a historical footnote.

Students in both the control and treatment groups were given the post-test in their discussion sections before the middle of the term, approximately four weeks after the pre-test. Once the post-tests were collected, the archivist provided the same instruction to the students in the control group to ensure they were able to complete the assignments and exams for the course.

Assessing Student Learning with a Rubric. Instructors who frequently use rubrics attest to their strengths in making grading easier and more consistent. This is because rubrics explicitly spell out the expectations of student work and, in the case of multiple graders, provide guidance for grading consistently. To objectively grade the students' exercises using the assessment rubric, I sought the help of two professional archivists who had considerable experience working with undergraduates and who had at least five years of archival experience. We sought consistent, reliable results in grading the students' exercises. Reliability, in educational research, is an important measure of consistency (Oakleaf, 2009). I made the decision to use three raters, the two professional archivists and myself, to grade the exercises in order to increase the reliability of the assessment scores.

In classroom and rubric-based assessment, reliability can refer to the consistency of scores assigned by one rater (intra-rater reliability) over time as well as the consistency of scores assigned by more than one rater (inter-rater reliability) (Moskal & Leydens, 2000). In this research study, the use of multiple raters makes the latter more relevant. For example, one rater may evaluate the students' research skills more highly than another and give that student a higher score. This is partially mitigated, as Moskal & Leydens attest, by a well-designed rubric. Inconsistencies in scores can also be addressed by making adjustments to the rubric and calibrating the grading process through initial training, discussion, and reconciling inconsistent responses (Maki, 2004).

We used the control group's pre-test scores as a reliability test of our scoring consistency. Once the three of us had completed grading the control group's pre-test exercises, I used a statistical measure known as Fleiss Kappa to calculate our inter-rater reliability on the scores. A Fleiss Kappa is intended for multiple raters and, thus, it was more appropriate than the well-known Cohen's Kappa for two raters (Fleiss, 1981). Our initial inter-rater reliability test revealed that the strength of our agreement was poor ($\kappa = .383$). This was an unacceptable level of agreement since we were aiming for over 75% or excellent agreement. This initial test led to many email discussions, the creation of a wiki to share our scores and comments, and many hours of re-grading and justifying our scores. We also made the decision to collaboratively develop a key for the post-test document analysis exercise to aid in the grading process. Our calibration process ultimately led to an excellent level of agreement for the both the pre- and post tests. Our Fleiss Kappa for the pre-test was .802 and .788 for the post-test, both of which are considered excellent strengths of agreement. Once we achieved these results, we

combined our scores according to majority rule in the interest of maintaining the scores as integers.

Reliability. The four criteria or categories of analysis in the rubric designed for this study (Observation, Interpretation, Evaluation, Research Skills) encompass a set of skills that can be associated with primary source or archival literacy. These skills include the ability to identify important elements of primary sources and to place them in a historical context. They also include an ability to make inferences about primary sources, validate them, and identify how to search for and retrieve related sources. In theory and in practice, these are related skills. I performed a test of statistical reliability to examine the underlying structure among these four skills.

A concept, such as archival literacy skills, is complicated to measure because it includes a multitude of factors. However, these factors should theoretically be related and encompass a holistic set of skills that help users understand how to use archives. I hypothesized that the four categories of the rubric would be highly correlated. In other words, students receiving one score (i.e. good) on one category of the rubric would be more likely to receive the same score on another category. I performed a Cronbach's alpha test to measure how reliably the four categories of the rubric were correlated. In this case, reliability refers to a measure of the internal consistency among the categories (De Vaus, 2002). The Cronbach's alpha ranges between 0 and 1 and the higher the alpha, the more highly correlated the categories. In practice, an alpha of at least 0.7 is accepted as reliable (De Vaus, 2002, p. 184).

Hypothesis Testing. The dependent variable used to measure learning was the combined score on each criteria of the rubric (i.e., observation, interpretation, critical

thinking, and research skills) on a 1-4 scale. In determining appropriate statistical tests, I considered the fact that the data in my study was ordinal. An ordinal scale assumes that there is an implicit order to the data where, in this case, a (2) meant fair and a (4) meant exemplary. Given the nature of the data and the relatively small sample, I decided to use a non-parametric statistical test, which are useful in practice to assess ordinal and nominal data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Non-parametric data are characterized as generally not having a normal distribution because assumptions cannot be made about the population being measured. Although non-parametric tests are not as powerful as parametric tests (i.e., t-test, z-test), they are useful with small sample sizes (Weiss, 2005).

A non-parametric test equivalent to the t-test is the Mann-Whitney U test for two independent samples. The benefit of this test is that it is based on ranks so that it does not assume the space between the values is the same, making it ideal for ordinal rather than interval data. After some initial exploration of the data, using the statistical software package SPSS, I conducted a Mann-Whitney U test for both the pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups by rubric category.

Results

Comparison of Pre-test Scores

The results of the pre-test revealed that the students in both the control and treatment groups were statistically equivalent. Demographic data from the pre-test were analyzed using independent samples t-tests and revealed no statistically significant difference in the students' age, year of study, or archival experience. The results of the pre-test document analysis exercise were analyzed by rubric category and compared. The

mean scores of both the control and treatment groups on the pre-test were not statistically significant for any of the rubric categories (see Table 4.3). In other words, students performed about the same on the document analysis exercise before receiving any archival instruction.

Table 4.3
Comparison of Pre- and Post-test Scores

Category	Score	Pre-test		Post-test		p
		Control (N=37)	Treatment (N=45)	Control (N=37)	Treatment (N=45)	
Observation	1 Minimal	0	1	0	0	.008*
	2 Fair	14	24	13	4	
	3 Good	22	18	23	40	
	4 Exemplary	1	2	1	1	
		<i>M</i> = 2.65 <i>SD</i> = .538	<i>M</i> = 2.47 <i>SD</i> = .625	<i>M</i> = 2.68 <i>SD</i> = .530	<i>M</i> = 2.93 <i>SD</i> = .330	
Interpretation	1 Minimal	0	5	1	0	.008*
	2 Fair	30	28	22	12	
	3 Good	7	10	11	33	
	4 Exemplary	0	2	3	0	
		<i>M</i> = 2.19 <i>SD</i> = .397	<i>M</i> = 2.20 <i>SD</i> = .694	<i>M</i> = 2.43 <i>SD</i> = .689	<i>M</i> = 2.73 <i>SD</i> = .447	
Evaluation	1 Minimal	2	2	0	0	.021*
	2 Fair	29	29	25	18	
	3 Good	6	10	11	27	
	4 Exemplary	0	0	1	0	
		<i>M</i> = 2.11 <i>SD</i> = .458	<i>M</i> = 2.09 <i>SD</i> = .596	<i>M</i> = 2.35 <i>SD</i> = .538	<i>M</i> = 2.60 <i>SD</i> = .495	
Research Skills	1 Minimal	14	13	7	2	.040*
	2 Fair	20	22	28	38	
	3 Good	3	9	2	5	
	4 Exemplary	0	1	0	0	
		<i>M</i> = 1.70 <i>SD</i> = .618	<i>M</i> = 1.96 <i>SD</i> = .767	<i>M</i> = 1.86 <i>SD</i> = .481	<i>M</i> = 2.07 <i>SD</i> = .393	

* $p < .05$

Note. This table includes p values from the Mann-Whitney U tests comparing the control and treatment groups' scores on the post-test. The pre-test p values are not included because none of them were significant.

Comparison of Post-test Scores

However, in comparing the pre-test and post-test data, I found a statistically significant difference in students' scores at the level of every rubric category. Students in the treatment group had statistically higher scores on the post-test after participating in archival instruction. While there was an improvement in the means of all the scores for both groups in all categories, the magnitude of the increase in the post-test scores is much greater for the treatment group than the control group. Table 4.3 above provides the results of the Mann-Whitney U tests used to compare the students' pre- and post-test scores on the document analysis exercises. The table also includes the overall means and standard deviations for each of the rubric categories.

A bar graph (Figure 4.1) provides a visual comparison of the students' scores on both the pre-and post-tests. While the pre-test scores are comparable, there is a leap in the post-test scores of the treatment group where the majority of the scores were good (3) instead of fair (2). As the graph illustrates, the slope of the line representing the treatment group's scores on the post-test, shows a drastically sharper incline for the Observation, Interpretation, and Evaluation categories. The only exception is in the Research Skills where the treatment group slope is about the same as that of the control group. Although the treatment group showed a slight, statistically significant improvement in their Research Skills, their scores remained low. Similarly, while the scores in the treatment group generally improved from fair to good, very few students received exemplary scores.

Overall, the results of the statistical tests suggest that although both groups demonstrated comparable knowledge of archives and primary sources on the pre-test, the

students in the treatment group learned more about analyzing sources from the archival instruction they received. Further, the students gained skills in identifying, describing, and evaluating primary sources from receiving instruction in the archives.

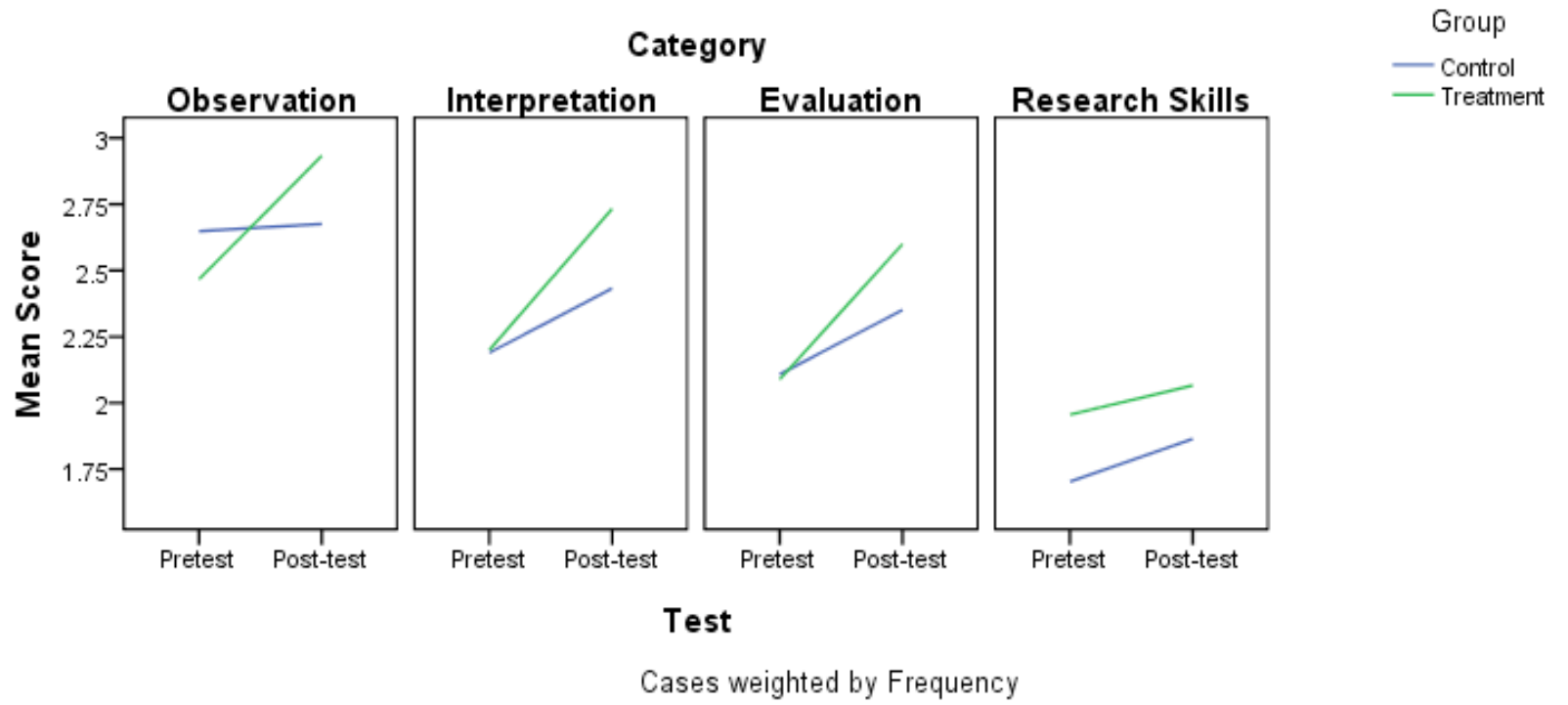


Figure 4.1. Comparison of Mean Scores on Pre- and Post-tests.

Archival Literacy

Students' scores in both the control and treatment groups did highly correlate among all four categories of the rubric on the pre-test. The overall Cronbach's alpha was .792 for all the categories, which is highly reliable (see Table 4.4). This high alpha score indicates that the four categories are interrelated and can extend our knowledge of the components of archival literacy.

Table 4.4
Correlation of Rubric Categories

	Pre-test	Post-test
Overall	.792	.574
Treatment	.847	.293
Control	.663	.605

I performed the same statistical reliability test on the post-test scores but was disappointed to find that the skills were less correlated, particularly for the treatment group. I concluded that the improvement in the treatment group's post-test scores was unbalanced. In other words, the students improved some skills but not others. A closer examination of the post-test scores indicated that for the treatment group, the research skills category did not correlate to the other three skills measured by the rubric. Thus, while students in the treatment group improved their observation, interpretation, and critical thinking skills after they received archival instruction, they did not improve their research skills. This finding suggests that the archival instruction the students received effectively taught them how to meaningfully utilize the sources. However, research skills are complex to measure because they comprise a variety of different skills that are generally acquired over time, not from a single instructional session. The low research skills scores could also be a factor of the decision to correlate the rubric to the document

analysis exercises instead of the instruction. It also suggests that improving research skills is a long-term outcome of the combined efforts of teaching faculty, librarians, and archivists that can be difficult to measure with one intervention.

A Closer Look at Student Responses

Since many of the responses to the document analysis exercises were open-ended, it is useful to highlight some of the students' answers in an effort to examine the results from a qualitative perspective. I will limit my observations to the post-test responses because the responses between the two groups of students are more distinct. As one of the raters participating in this study, I was impressed overall with the students' ability (in both groups) to identify the basic elements of primary sources. In order to demonstrate the archival literacy skill I refer to as Observation, students needed to identify characteristics of the primary sources, including date, title, quotations from the written document, objects in the photograph, and the size of an archival collection in the finding aid portion. Still, a cross-tabulation of the post-test data revealed that there are real substantive differences between the different student groups' work. For example, on the post-test almost 90% of the treatment group obtained a good score on their ability to identify and describe elements of the sources while only 62% of the control group obtained this score. No students received a minimal score (1) because everyone was able to identify at least some characteristic of all the sources.

The Interpretation/Historical Context skill was a little more difficult for most of the students. This skill required students to place the primary sources in a broader historical context in order to explain and understand them. The majority of the treatment group (74%) obtained a good score on their ability to explain the sources and place them

in an appropriate historical context. In contrast, 60% of the control group only obtained a fair score in this category. The written document used in the post-test consisted of a letter from the U.S. War Secretary, Henry Stimson to the President dated April 24, 1945. Students were asked to extrapolate basic historical facts from these details and the content of the letter. However, the majority of the students in both groups merely re-wrote excerpts from the letter instead of placing the letter in the broader historical context of World War II. For the photograph question, students were asked to infer three things about the image of a child selling newspapers in 1910. Those students who listed historically appropriate observations were given a higher score in this category. Here is one exemplary answer to this question: “The young boy is an immigrant working; rich people are ignoring the boy; rich town b/c of car in background at 1910” (EGA6)²¹.

Critical thinking has been identified as an important skill students can learn from archival instruction (Robyns 2001). In this study, Evaluation and Critical Thinking involved the ability to ask questions about the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths. The treatment group also showed an improvement in their critical thinking skills. Over half (60%) obtained a good score in this category while only 30% of the control group did. In order to verify the letter to the president from Henry Stimson, one good response from a student suggested “view[ing] other documents from following days. Presidential documents from this time have been released and are a matter of public record” (EGA4). Another exemplary response was to verify the signature of the sender and “check Washington source” (EGA9). Responses that received a fair or minimal score include “by showing and reading the document” (CGA2) and “go directly to author” (CGB1).

²¹ Subject identifier.

As previously mentioned, there was only a slight improvement in the treatment group's Research Skills. The majority of the students in both the control (76%) and treatment (84%) groups received a fair score on this portion of the post-test. None of the students received an exemplary score. In fact, the treatment group's responses on the post-test did not seem to reflect the instruction that they received. In fact, their responses were very similar to the control group's answers. According to the rubric, students needed to demonstrate the ability to ask research questions of the primary sources, identify places to look for additional sources, and mention archives in a meaningful way. For example, students were asked where they would go to find more information about the Stimson letter and how to locate additional materials about the civil rights movement in Detroit. Many good responses built on the information they received during the archival instruction. For example, two good responses include: "Contact the Urban League itself or perhaps use a Library of Congress subject head for more relevant info" (EGA9) and "Return to search results list + type in civil rights movements in Detroit" (EGB11). Students who received minimal scores gave very general responses such as "the library," "the internet," "archives."

Discussion

In this chapter, I introduced an assessment tool, in the form of a rubric, designed to evaluate archival instruction for undergraduate students. In order to test the efficacy of this rubric, I conducted a field experiment comparing two groups of students in a large history survey class where one group received archival instruction and one group did not. I utilized the rubric to measure what students in the treatment group learned from the

archival instruction they received. I found that the students that did receive archival instruction improved their scores on a document analysis exercise, demonstrating increased knowledge of the basic characteristics of primary sources, how to interpret and analyze them. The results of this study suggest that a rubric can be a useful assessment tool in helping archivists evaluate their instructional services and contribute to archivists' understanding of what students learn from these instructional sessions.

In the rubric, I identified four categories of archival literacy skills that turn out to be statistically correlated: (1) Observation, (2) Interpretation, (3) Critical Thinking, and (4) Research Skills. A statistical test of reliability confirmed that these categories were highly inter-related based on the students' scores. In other words, students receiving a certain score in one category are more likely to receive that same score on other categories. These results could lead to a better understanding of the components of archival literacy, but they do not comprise all of the skills necessary to conduct archival research effectively. The Research Skills category, for example, was problematic in the post-test results because the treatment group did not dramatically improve their scores in this category. These results suggest that improving students' research skills is a complex challenge that requires the collaborative efforts of teaching faculty, librarians and archivists.

The result that the students in the treatment group did not possess more sophisticated research skills after archival instruction is not entirely surprising given the literature on undergraduate information-seeking skills. Many researchers have pointed out that students exhibit elementary searching and organization skills (Leckie, 1996; Maughan, 2001; Quarton, 2003). A study of the "Google Generation" (Rowlands, 2008)

commissioned by the British Library and JISC (Joint Information Systems Committee) synthesized decades of literature about young people's information seeking behavior and concluded that today's undergraduates are not as "web-literate" as conventional wisdom assumes. Their unquestioning dependence on the accuracy of search engines like Google and Yahoo is consistent with research on how students judge the credibility of online resources (Hung, 2004; Rieh & Hilligoss, 2007; Hilligoss & Rieh, 2008). Rowlands also emphasized that teaching information literacy skills during the formative school years is more effective than introducing these concepts to college students who have already formed their online information seeking behavior preferences. What past research and the results of this study suggest is that helping students learn effective research skills is an on-going challenge for educators, librarians, and archivists.

As colleges and universities increasingly develop curricula that encourage undergraduate research opportunities, students in the humanities and social sciences will need opportunities to strengthen their research skills. This is an opportunity for archivists to engage with librarians and educators to assert their instructional role in helping students build skills that will serve them in their education and future careers. An assessment rubric is a tool that archivists can utilize to demonstrate their instructional efforts and the potential to make a difference in students' education.

Limitations of the Study

This study is an exploratory attempt at identifying and articulating what students learn from archival instruction. I chose to examine only one instance of archival instruction despite the fact that the content, methods, and pedagogy employed in archival user education varies widely (see Chapter 2). My reason for this is partly convenience. I

sought multiple opportunities to examine instructional sessions in various academic archives. Unfortunately, these opportunities did not come to fruition. More importantly, I chose to work with one instance of archival instruction because I judged it to be representative of a good approach based on my findings about archival instructional sessions in Chapter 2. The instructional session contained all elements of both active and cooperative learning, pedagogical strategies that have been associated with higher levels of student engagement and learning (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Prince, 2004). Finally, both the archivist and faculty member were willing to accommodate the requirements of the study.

As a researcher observing the instruction, I did not actively participate in the design of the archival instruction. I also had limited influence over the content of the undergraduate history course. In practice, however, archivists should work closely with teaching faculty to customize the instruction they provide to students. They should also modify the rubric to support their own learning objectives and instructional sessions.

Although steps were taken to minimize possible threats to the validity of these results, there are limitations to both the design and outcomes of this study. Most of the threats to the experimental design relate to the fact that the control and treatment groups are potentially non-equivalent,²² unavoidable in quasi-experiments. For example, there is a threat to the internal validity of the experiment because the two groups had different graduate student instructors. In other words, the control group had a different graduate student instructor than the treatment group. This constitutes a threat because it could explain some of the differences in the results of the experiment. Unfortunately, this

²² The term non-equivalent refers to the fact that the subjects were not randomly assigned to the control and treatment groups. The groups were selected after the students had already registered for the course and the discussion sessions.

logistical issue was unavoidable at the time of the experiment due to scheduling difficulties. Mitigating this difference are the facts that all of the students in this study had the same professor, attended the same bi-weekly lectures, and completed the same assignments. The professor developed the curriculum for the course and advised the graduate student instructors in leading student discussions. Thus, there is little reason to believe that the findings in this study are primarily the result of the different graduate student instructors.

There is also the possibility that students were sensitized to the measurement instrument through the pre-test and the orientation session. In any pre- and post-test design, there is always a chance that subjects will be sensitized by the pre-test, thus affecting their answers on the post-test. I reduced this possibility by changing the primary sources and the finding aids the students analyzed. Although the questions were the same, the students had to apply them to sources they had not previously encountered. Another limitation is the fact that I was an observer of the course and the archival instruction and did not actively participate in either. More collaboration with the professor and archivist, particularly in the development of the rubric and the delivery of the archival instruction, would have led to a better study, but were not logistically feasible.

Conclusion

Archivists have expressed hope that their instructional efforts make a difference in students' learning experiences and overall education. This study provides empirical evidence – based on student performance rather than perceptions – that archival instruction can help students learn to meaningfully utilize primary sources. The results

suggest that students are learning from archival instruction, and as a result, archivists can make a claim to contribute to the educational missions of their institutions. This study also contributes to the literature on archival intelligence (Yakel & Torres, 2003) by identifying a suite of skills composed of (1) Observation; (2) Interpretation/Historical Context; (3) Evaluation/Critical Thinking; and (4) Research Skills to measure archival literacy. The components of archival literacy identified in this study are also potentially useful in informing the development of a curriculum for archival instruction for undergraduate students (Carini, 2009). However, more studies investigating these skills are needed in order to replicate the results in this experiment and to strengthen their reliability. A logical next step in this research agenda would be to design a study to examine how effective the elements of archival instruction are in teaching students particular skills.

The results of this study demonstrate that archivists can take proactive steps in assessing the impact of their instruction efforts on students. An assessment rubric has the potential to increase collaboration among archivists in sharing instructional materials. It can also help give archivists a reliable tool to demonstrate their instructional goals to educators and librarians. A rubric can be tailored to reflect general orientation learning objectives or explicit course-specific goals. It can also serve as a tool for approaching administrators familiar with the recommendations in the Boyer reports (1998, 2001) to illustrate the role that archives and special collections can play in enhancing undergraduate research.

Instruction is an integral part of academic archivists' work, whether it takes the form of one-on-one reference interviews, workshops for faculty, and staff, or

orientations. Being able to assess the impact of instruction is important if archivists want to understand how their effort affects students' overall education. Feedback about instruction also helps archivists target their efforts and gives them reliable information about these activities they can use to improve instruction or demonstrate its effectiveness to administrators.

The rubric in this study can serve as a template for archivists to use with their own learning objectives and exercises. It can assist archivists to be self-reflective about the effectiveness of their teaching and encourage them to be more explicit about specific learning outcomes, skills, and how students will demonstrate what they are learning. The rubric can also be a collaborative tool to help archivists communicate their contribution to the classroom and stake a claim in their involvement in the educational mission of the university. This rubric can be improved by addressing even more explicitly how students will demonstrate the skills they have learned from instruction. It can also be expanded to incorporate additional skills or to be used with different types of exercises. As it stands, it is intended to be a foundational and customizable assessment tool. As archivists increasingly share instructional curricula and materials with one another, more standardized assessment tools such as this one will emerge.

CHAPTER 5

Is There a Role for Archivists in Undergraduate Education?: Implications and Future Research

In 1978, Elsie Freeman introduced the term archival education to mean those programs “which bring the products of archival research, the techniques of research in archives, and other aspects of humanist learning derived from primary sources to the user public” (p. 147). As a pioneer of outreach efforts in archives, Freeman paved the way for others to explore the role of archivists as educators. Scholars and practitioners that have taken up this call have largely written about the mechanics of incorporating primary sources into the classroom through recommendations and case studies (Osborne, 1986; Cook, 1996; Robyns, 2001; Hendry, 2007). The studies in this dissertation join the small body of literature that investigates the intellectual skills involved in working with primary sources (Yakel & Torres, 2003; Zhou, 2008) and the impact of archival instruction on users (Duff & Cherry, 2008).

The three studies that comprise this dissertation explore the role of archivists in undergraduate education. Based on the research findings, I would argue that there *is* a role for archivists in undergraduate education. However, this role needs to be further refined and articulated in order for archivists to realistically measure the impact of their

efforts on supporting undergraduate research and learning. What I learned from these studies is that there is an enormous amount of potential for archivists to contribute to undergraduate students' learning and research experiences. Archivists, through their experience providing reference and instructional services, seem to be natural instructors with a propensity for teaching. However, due to their lack of formal pedagogical training, lack of assessment and self-reflection, they are hesitant about their role in contributing to the teaching mission of their institutions.

The results of my research indicate that archivists are just beginning to distill their instructional efforts and have much further to go in identifying the necessary components of instruction, implementing pedagogical strategies, and evaluating their teaching. The studies in this dissertation contribute to these efforts by describing the broad landscape of archival instruction, probing the pedagogical implications of archival education, and introducing a tool for systematically assessing instruction.

The results of the survey of archival instruction described in Chapter Two indicate that archivists teach to a variety of audiences in many different forms. From the one-on-one reference interview to presentations and classroom instruction, archivists devote a good deal of time and energy in orientating users to their collections. This finding has implications for training archivists to consider themselves as educators by including pedagogical instruction in graduate and professional curricula.

The survey also suggested that the majority of instruction archivists provide is face-to-face in the repository or in a classroom setting. However, research has indicated that remote users of archives have different needs than those who physically visit the repository (Krause, 2008). While some archivists are creating online tutorials to assist

remote users, there is clearly a need for more research to understand not only the learning needs of remote users, but also to explore how technology can supplement archival instruction.

Perhaps the most significant finding to come out of the survey is the absence of evaluation. Archivists are devoting a lot of time to instructional efforts, but are not assessing their quality and effectiveness. While archivists do obtain informal feedback, usually from professors, they rely heavily on the concept of “repeat customers” to measure the quality of their instruction. However, this does not give them a reliable indication of how relevant the instruction is to the professors’ and students’ needs. It also does not tell archivists if students are learning anything from the instruction. This finding implies that archivists need to be educated about assessment.

I also found some barriers to their instructional efforts. For undergraduate students, much of the archivist’s role is mitigated by the professor’s interest and willingness to incorporate primary sources and archival instruction into their classroom. Since one-third of my survey respondents cited interest from professors as an obstacle to their teaching, many undergraduate students are not being exposed to archival resources. This is particularly problematic for students in the humanities and social sciences that need to gain research skills and participate in authentic research projects as part of their college experience.

The study in Chapter Three makes an attempt to uncover how archivists approach teaching undergraduates about primary sources. The literature on teaching with primary sources largely ignores the role of the archivist. Therefore, I tried to elicit from the interviews what these archivists consider to be their role in educating undergraduates.

The participants indicated that archivists' knowledge of collections and navigation skills were useful in teaching students to search for and identify primary sources. They also felt that students needed to come away from their instructional sessions with an awareness of archival resources and a sense of excitement for conducting archival research. While the results in Chapter Two indicated archivists focus little on pedagogical elements, the participants in this study were ardent proponents of active and cooperative learning techniques. Although they were not trained as educators, they pragmatically arrived at effective teaching strategies based on their experiences of what did and did not work with undergraduates. The participants incorporated opportunities for hands-on learning and group work into their instructional sessions because they were convinced the students benefitted from these strategies. However, like the other survey respondents, the participants did not systematically collect feedback about their instructional sessions. This lack of information about the quality of their teaching efforts puts archivists in a position of not clearly understanding their relationship to the professors they collaborate with and the students they teach.

The study in Chapter Four addresses this by introducing an analytic rubric to assess archival instruction. The exercises and rubric categories I developed for this study focus more on the conceptual elements identified in the survey of instructional practices (Chapter Two). I purposely did not test students about the rules and procedures of a particular repository because I wanted to identify skills that broadly apply to identifying and effectively using primary sources. Yakel (2004) has criticized an emphasis, on the part of archivists, to limit instruction to the specifics of a particular repository rather than teaching general skills that can be applied to subsequent collections and projects. The

results of the survey in Chapter Two suggest that archivists have not moved beyond this insular approach since procedural elements such as rules and instructions for requesting materials are consistently a part of most instructional sessions. Emphasis on the former may succeed in creating barriers and “archival anxiety” (Johnson, 2006; Mellon 1986), deterring users from returning to the archives.

Conceptual skills that can elicit a deeper understanding of archival research are taught with much less consistency. Navigational skills, identified in Chapter Three as an important contribution that archivists can make to the undergraduate classroom, are also taught with much less frequency in instructional sessions. Yet, these are the elements that can provide students with skills that transcend a current assignment and can contribute to archivists’ larger research and learning goals in the university. In fact, these elements align with the Association of College and Research Libraries Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education. Standard One, 2e and 2f²³ state that an information literate student should be able to:

- e. Differentiate between primary and secondary sources, recognizing how their use and importance vary with each discipline
- f. Realize that information may need to be constructed with raw data from primary sources

The rubric and exercises I developed in Chapter Four represent general archival literacy skills that undergraduates should possess in order to be information literate. These skills have implications for the development of curricula and learning materials based on primary sources, as well as the establishment of educational programs in archives and collaborations with librarians and educators.

²³ Association of College and Research Libraries, *Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education*. <http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/standards/informationliteracycompetency.cfm> (accessed November 11, 2009).

Contributions of the Study

The studies comprising this dissertation contribute to archival theory and practice in three main ways. Firstly, the studies emphasize the role of professors and teachers in introducing students to primary sources and, as a result, point to a need for increased collaboration between educators, librarians, and archivists to help students learn analytic and research skills. Secondly, the studies attempt to identify essential components of archival literacy and what undergraduate students need to know to effectively use archives. Lastly, the studies point to the importance of assessing the instructional support archivists provide to students.

One of the most intriguing outcomes of my research was the inability of the archivists I interviewed to succinctly and confidently describe their contribution to undergraduate research and learning. This is a strong indicator of the need for archivists to work closely with teaching faculty, librarians, and administrators to fully understand the undergraduate curriculum. The archivists' inability to articulate their contribution to the broader goals of undergraduate education point to their lack of educational practices, such as self-reflection and evaluation, as well as problems with isolated orientation sessions. Lack of formal feedback mechanisms to measure the impact of these sessions is also problematic because it leaves archivists without a clear indication of how they support the learning needs of students and the instructional needs of teaching faculty.

Given the important role of faculty in introducing students to archival resources as indicated by the results of the survey in Chapter Two, it is imperative that archivists reach out to teaching faculty if they want to make a difference in undergraduate students' education. This can be difficult, as one-third of the survey respondents cited lack of

interest from faculty as an obstacle to providing instructional services. Archivist collaboration with faculty also seems to be haphazard and when it does occur, the contribution of the archivist is often downplayed. Rader (1995) describes the difficulties academic librarians have had in integrating information literacy into the undergraduate curriculum. Archivists can benefit from the work librarians have done to establish information literacy programs on college campuses. It is striking that the majority of the participants I interviewed are heavily involved in these types of programs at their institutions. These archives professionals have found common ground with librarians in seeking to enhance undergraduate learning. Archivists can benefit from the lessons librarians have learned about collaborating with professors, creating curriculum materials, and evaluating instruction. Whether or not academic archivists are part of the institutional library system, they would benefit from more collaboration with instructional librarians in order to demonstrate their impact on teaching and research at the college or university.

Recent developments in the reform of undergraduate education inspired by the Boyer Report (1998) could be the catalyst in solidifying a role for archivists in undergraduate education. The Boyer report is important because higher education administrators are paying attention to its recommendations. This is evident in the increasing number of established undergraduate research initiatives and the implementation of programs such as freshman seminars, or small classes organized around a topic, that familiarize students with university resources (Katkin, 2003). Several of the interviewees in Chapter Three cited participation in these programs, but were not actively working with the administration to implement them. Katkin observed that

students in the laboratory sciences and engineering are benefitting the most from these initiatives, while those studying the humanities and social sciences have not been given enough opportunities to conduct research at the undergraduate level. Armed with recommendations from the Boyer reports, archivists, in collaboration with teaching faculty, could approach their administrators with convincing proposals to increase undergraduate research opportunities in the humanities and social sciences.

Another contribution of this research is its insights into what constitutes archival literacy and what undergraduates, in particular, need to know about archives and primary sources in order to be successful. The research on archival intelligence (Yakel & Torres, 2003) has asserted that three types of information are needed to effectively use archives: domain or subject knowledge, artifactual literacy, and archival intelligence. Yet I found that archivists report teaching basic procedural elements far more frequently than introducing archival terminology, for example, or how to navigate through a finding aid. While it is true, as Yakel and Torres attest, archival intelligence is knowledge gained over time and over many experiences with archives, it does seem that broader concepts related to the characteristics of primary sources and the basic components of archival descriptive tools should be addressed more frequently in these sessions.

Because undergraduate students are often visiting and using archives for the first time, the elements of archival intelligence need to be boiled down to “the essentials.” For the archivists I interviewed in Chapter Three, core information about archives included an awareness that archives exist and expressed enthusiasm for the collections they make accessible. I would add to this the four categories of skills incorporated in the rubric to help undergraduate students distinguish between primary and secondary sources,

understand the basic elements of primary sources, and read a simple finding aid. While the results of the experiment in Chapter Four indicate that these elements are highly correlated, they do not comprise the entirety of archival literacy skills. More work is needed to develop a curriculum for teaching undergraduates how to use archives with insights from teaching faculty and academic librarians.

The studies in this dissertation also point to the importance of developing and implementing pedagogical strategies for archival instruction. Pedagogy and learning has not been previously addressed in the archival literature. My research indicates that archivists must be educated about instructional delivery methods and how they affect the learning experiences of students. They also need to gather information about what students already know about primary sources and archives in order to develop instruction that will build upon what already resonates with this user group. My research suggests that there are several elements that archivists can incorporate into their instructional efforts that both capture students' attention and help them learn how to utilize primary sources. The physical location of archival instruction outside the classroom helps to give students a feel for the process of archival research through observing the behaviors of the staff and other researchers. Giving students a chance to handle the materials themselves, in their tangible form, is a critical factor in creating excitement and enthusiasm for the documents and for the process of archival research. Having students engage in problem-solving, active, and cooperative learning is an important way that archivists encourage students to develop analytic skills and demonstrate their understanding of primary sources. Another pedagogical strategy that is particularly valuable is giving students a

sense that they are part of the history of an institution through acquiring their journals, papers, and other forms of expression.

Future Research

In the archival literature, there have been many exhortations for archivists to get involved in education at both the K-12 and university levels. The research in this dissertation is an effort to move beyond the exhortations to find out how archivists are involved in teaching and what their role is in undergraduate education. In many ways, this research lays a foundation that can be combined with what we know about user studies and archival intelligence (Yakel & Torres, 2003) to create a fruitful research agenda. There are at least three areas of research and practice that are in need of further exploration: (1) research on archival literacy and intelligence, (2) the development of a instructional program in archival user education, and (3) training archivists to teach and provide instructional support to educators.

Archival user studies have demonstrated that accessing primary sources can be challenging. Navigating through diverse systems and finding aids pose a challenge even to the most experienced scholars (Duff & Stoyanova, 1998; Tibbo, 2003) and there are significant differences between experienced users of archives and novices (Yakel & Torres, 2003). This research has helped explain that users need training, whether in the form of a one-on-one reference interview or an online tutorial. User studies have also demonstrated that each user group has varying needs and students are no exception. They may need course-based instruction or want to work on an honors-level research paper. The educational psychology literature tells us that students have different cognitive

abilities depending on their age and where they are in their programs (Perry 1970). More research is needed to identify the needs of students at different levels in their education and to address those needs with instructional methods that meet larger curriculum goals set by educators.

The research on archival literacy and intelligence can directly influence a curriculum for archival user education. The existing model of users generally receiving a one-shot orientation or “show and tell” session (Yakel, 2004) is in the process of being replaced by the types of programs highlighted by the participants I interviewed in Chapter Three. For example, Carini (2009) is working on a curriculum for teaching undergraduates to use primary sources. Although much of archival instruction for students is course-based, a curriculum could provide an important benchmark for archivists to communicate with one another about their educational role and to create lesson plans and assessment tools to share.

A curriculum could also form the foundation of an entire instructional program that includes learning objectives, lesson plans, teaching strategies and assessment tools. Having a predictable and reliable instructional program has the potential to facilitate collaboration with both librarians and educators. Since most instructional librarians already have programs in place, archivists can benefit from collaborating with their library colleagues. A clear instructional program can help archivists market their teaching activities to professors as well as higher education administrators and provide evidence of both the ongoing instructional efforts and their impact on students.

All of these developments would have implications for the way archivists are educated themselves. Interestingly, none of the participants in Chapter Three had any

pedagogical training in their Master's programs. They either learned on the job or attended intensive professional courses. Clearly, there is a need for pedagogical training both at the Master's and professional levels. This training would familiarize archivists with relevant learning theories, insights about the learning process, and developments in the reform of education. It would also emphasize routine educational practices like evaluation, self-reflection, and learning assessment. This knowledge could help archivists feel more prepared to teach and enable them to better articulate their role in education.

Archivists have pondered their role as educators for decades. Many are still hesitant to label themselves as teachers. Yet my research has shown that archivists routinely instruct users about their collections and research with primary sources. Archivists on college and university campuses are in a position to supplement the education that students receive in the classroom by creating opportunities for them to actively engage with documents, learning and applying analytical skills such as making inferences, interpreting meaning, and evaluating sources. These are lifelong learning skills that students can apply not only to their coursework, but also to their long-term career goals. The results of this research point to the impact on students that archivists can have if their teaching is directly associated with the broader educational goals of undergraduate curricula.

APPENDIX 2.1: Instructional Practices Questionnaire

About this Survey:

This survey is gathering information about instructional practices in repositories that house archives and manuscripts. It is part of a larger research project investigating learning in archives and special collections. All questions are optional. Your answers are confidential and no identifiable information will be included in any reports of this study. The survey consists of 30 questions and will take approximately 10-15 minutes of your time.

Section 1: Background Information

1. Which best describes your repository?

- College/University archives
- Special collections/manuscripts
- Government archives
- Corporate archives
- Religious archives
- Museum
- Public Library
- Historical society
- Other (please specify)

2. What is your job title?

Section 2: Instruction in Your Repository

3. What kinds of instruction does your repository offer? (Please check all that apply)

- One-on-one
- Tours
- Presentations (including orientations)
- Workshops for professors/teachers
- Full-term course
- Other (please specify)

4. Please select all the groups for which your repository provides instruction.

- K-12 students
- Community college students
- Undergraduates

- Graduate students
- Professors/teachers
- Genealogists
- Local history groups
- Staff within institution
- Other (please specify)

5. Where does your repository provide instruction? (Please select all that apply)

- Classroom in repository
- Reading room in repository
- Library classroom or learning lab
- School classroom (K-12/university)
- Online chat
- Virtual environment (i.e. Second Life)
- Other (please specify)

6. How many instructional sessions (i.e. presentations, orientations, classes) did you repository teach last year?

- 1-5
- 6-15
- 16-30
- 31-50
- Over 50
- None

7. How long is a typical instructional session?

- 30 minutes
- 1 hour
- 1 hour and 90 minutes
- 2 hours
- More than 2 hours

8. How often does an instructional session include each of the following?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	N/A
a. Tour of the reading room						
b. Repository rules and restrictions						
c. Procedures for requesting materials						
d. Overview of the repository's website						
e. Professor/teacher presence						
f. Presentation of materials						
g. Hands-on use of						

materials
h. Instructional handouts
i. Group exercises
j. Assessment of instruction (i.e. survey)

Would you like to comment on any of these items?

9. How often does an instructional session address the following issues?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	N/A
a. Definition of primary sources						
b. Interpretation/evaluation of primary sources						
c. Critical thinking						
d. Context and secondary sources						
e. Introduction to finding aids						
f. Searching for primary sources in local online catalog						
g. Searching for primary sources on the Web						
h. Archival terminology (i.e. acquisitions, arrangement)						
i. Preservation and digitization						

Would you like to comment on any of these issues?

10. What are the obstacles to providing more instruction in your repository? (Please select 3)

- Insufficient space
- Insufficient Internet access
- Insufficient equipment (i.e. projector)
- Insufficient time
- Lack of interest from professors/teachers
- Lack of support from administration
- Lack of interest from students
- Other (please specify)

11. How many staff members conduct instruction in your repository?

12. How did you acquire your teaching skills?

- Other teaching experiences
- Trained or taught by supervisor or peer
- Education degree
- Professional development (classes, workshops)
- Self-taught
- Other (please specify)

Section 3: Additional Instructional Resources

13. What kinds of printed instructional materials does your repository currently make available? (Please select all that apply)

- Research guides
- Brochures
- Visual guide to repository
- Rules and regulations
- Instructional handouts for students
- How-to's
- Other (please specify)

14. What kinds of online instructional materials are currently available on your repository website? (Please select all that apply)

- Tutorial (created by your repository/institution)
- How-to instruction sheets
- Learning activities/exercises
- Other (please specify)

15. What additional online resources are currently available on your repository's website (Please select all that apply)

- Research guides
- Teaching kits
- Lesson plans
- Bibliographies
- Links to resources at other repositories
- Other (please specify)

16. Ideally, what instructional activities would your repository like to provide?

17. Does your repository provide instruction for students?

- Yes
- No (Online questionnaire contained a filter. If respondent checked "No" they skipped to section 6, question 29)

Section 4: Instruction for Students

18. Which academic departments (or school classes) has your repository worked with to provide instruction to students?

- African-American studies
- American studies
- Art or art history
- Communication
- Education
- English/composition
- Geography
- History/social studies
- Journalism
- Political science
- Sociology
- Women's studies
- Other (please specify)

19. How often are instructional sessions for students related to a course assignment?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Always

20. What percentage of your repository's instruction efforts are aimed at undergraduates?

- None
- Less than 10 percent
- One quarter
- One half
- Three quarters
- 100 percent

21. What do you hope students will gain from your repository's instruction?

22. How do you prepare to teach an instructional session?

23. If students visit your repository outside the context of an instructional session, in what ways do you support their learning?

24. What kind of feedback do you collect from students about instructional sessions?

(Please select all that apply)

- Exit interview/informal chat
- Student papers
- Evaluation form
- Survey
- None
- Other (please specify)

Section 5: Repository's Relationship to Professors/Teachers

25. What role do professors/teachers play in your repository's instruction to students?

26. Approximately how many professors/teachers did your repository work with to instruct students last year?

None

1-5

6-10

11-15

16-20

More than 20

Other (please specify)

27. What kind of feedback has your repository received from professors/teachers?

28. What does your repository do, if anything, to encourage professors/teachers to use primary sources in their courses?

Section 6: Additional Information

29. May we contact you for additional information about your instructional resources? If yes, please provide your email address.

30. We would appreciate any additional comments on the instruction your repository provides.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey about instruction practices in your repository. Responses will be analyzed anonymously and insights from this study will further our understanding of the efforts archivists and special collections librarians put forth to educate users.

APPENDIX 4.1: Pre-test Document Analysis Exercise

Document Analysis Exercise

Student name: _____ Date: _____

Instructions:

Your packet contains copies of two primary sources: a written document and a photograph. In your packet there is also a finding aid (a tool to help navigate through a collection of primary sources). Carefully examine each item and answer the questions below:

Written Document Questions (Adapted from NARA's Teaching With Documents):

1. TYPE OF DOCUMENT (Check one):

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Newspaper | <input type="checkbox"/> Telegram |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Letter | <input type="checkbox"/> Advertisement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Patent | <input type="checkbox"/> Census report |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Memorandum | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please describe) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Map | |

2. UNIQUE PHYSICAL QUALITIES OF THE DOCUMENT (Check one or more):

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Distinctive letterhead | <input type="checkbox"/> Seals |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Handwritten | <input type="checkbox"/> Notations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Typed | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please describe) |

3. DATE(S) OF DOCUMENT: _____

4. AUTHOR (OR CREATOR) OF DOCUMENT: _____

5. TITLE OF DOCUMENT: _____

6. FOR WHAT AUDIENCE WAS THE DOCUMENT WRITTEN?:

7. DOCUMENT INFORMATION (There are many possible ways to answer A-E.)

A. List three things the author said that you think are important:

B. Why do you think this document was written?

C. What evidence in the document helps you know why it was written? Quote from the document.)

D. List two things the document tells you about life in the United States at the time it was written:

E. Write a question to the author that is left unanswered by the document:

F. How would you verify what is written in this document?

G. Where would you go to find more information about the topic of the document?

Photograph Questions (Adapted from NARA's Teaching With Documents):

Step 1: Observation

- A. Study the photograph for 2 minutes. Form an overall impression of the photograph and then examine individual items. Next, divide the photo into quadrants and study each section to see what new details become visible.
- B. Use the chart below to list people, objects, and activities in the photograph.

<i>People</i>	<i>Objects</i>	<i>Activities</i>

Step 2: Inference

- A. Based on what you have observed above, list three things you might infer from this photograph.

Step 3: Questions

- A. What questions does this photograph raise in your mind?

B. Where could you find answers to them?

Finding Aid Questions:

1. Who was Leon DeMeunier and where are his papers?

2. What types of documents does the Leon DeMeunier collection contain?

3. What is the size of the Leon DeMeunier collection?

4. You are writing a research paper about the civil rights movement in Detroit. You are particularly interested in the work of the Detroit Congress of Racial Equality (CORE). Where in the DeMeunier collection would you find the organization's founding documents?

5. You are looking at a letter from Mr. Monroe Curry to the Detroit Branch of the NAACP dated June 18, 1961. How would you go about citing this letter?

6. Where would you go for additional materials about the civil rights movement in Detroit?

Demographic Questions:

1) What is your field of study?

2) What is your year of study?

3) What is your age?

4) How much experience do you have with conducting archival research? (Please select all that apply)

- None – (this is my first time using digital or physical primary sources)
- Minimal – (I have encountered primary sources in class, but have not searched for materials or visited archives)
- Some digital – (I have searched for and used digitized primary sources for a project)
- Some onsite – (I have visited archives and/ or special collections to use primary sources)

- Substantial – (I have conducted more than one archival research project)
- Other (please describe)

Primary Source 1: Written Document

7-224.

TWELFTH CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

SCHEDULE No. 1.—POPULATION.

State Missouri County St. Louis Supervisor's District No. 52-9 Sheet No. 2
 Enumeration District No. 32

Township or other division of county Plaraut Valley Township Name of Institution, X
 Name of incorporated city, town, or village, within the above-named division. Massfield City Ward of city, 1
 Enumerated by me on the 1 day of June 1900, G. B. Hunsley Enumerator.

LOCATION	NAME	RELATION	PERSONAL DESCRIPTION		NATIVITY			CITIZENSHIP	OCCUPATION, TRADE, OR PROFESSION	EDUCATION			SPEAKS ENGLISH
			SEX	AGE	Place of birth of this person	Place of birth of father of this person	Place of birth of mother of this person			Years of schooling	Can read and write English	Can speak English	
21-22	Kelley Ruth M	Daughter	F	20	Mo	Missouri	Missouri	Missouri					
22-23	Missie Jan	Head	F	20	Mo	Missouri	Missouri	Missouri	Merchant (Clerk)	3	yes	yes	N
23-24	Matthew Wm	Head	M	39	Pa	Missouri	Virginia	Missouri	Bar-tender	2	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	37	Pa	Missouri	Virginia	Missouri					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Missouri	Virginia	Missouri					
24-25	John John	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	John	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	11	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
25-26	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Land-ward	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
26-27	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
27-28	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
28-29	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
29-30	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
30-31	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
31-32	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
32-33	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
33-34	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
34-35	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
35-36	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
36-37	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
37-38	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
38-39	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
39-40	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
40-41	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
41-42	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
42-43	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
43-44	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
44-45	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
45-46	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
46-47	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
47-48	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
48-49	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
49-50	John Wm	Head	M	20	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia	Merchant (Clerk)	0	yes	yes	N
	Anna	Wife	F	18	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					
	John	Son	M	7	Pa	Mo	Kentucky	Virginia					

Primary Source 2: Photograph

Postwar America

11/19/08 12:53 PM



A young civil rights demonstrator at the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom

By an unknown photographer, Washington, DC, August 28, 1963
National Archives and Records Administration, Records of the U.S. Information Agency
(306-SSM-4B-61-32) [VENDOR # 126]

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Finding Aid

**Michigan Historical Collections
Bentley Historical Library
University of Michigan**

Finding Aid for
Leon DeMeunier Papers, 1960-1964 and 1971

Finding aid prepared by:
Thomas E. Powers

Summary Information

Title: Leon DeMeunier papers
Creator: DeMeunier, Leon
Inclusive dates: 1960-1964 and 1971
Extent: 0.8 linear ft.

Abstract:

Chairman of the Detroit Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) from its establishment in 1960 until sometime in 1962 or 1963. Papers include material on the operation of the Detroit chapter of CORE and its role in the national civil rights movement.

Call number: 851131 Aa 2
Language: The materials are in English.
Repository: Bentley Historical Library University of Michigan

1150 Beal Ave.
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-2113
Phone: 734-764-3482
Fax: 734-936-1333
e-mail: bentley.ref@umich.edu
Home Page: <http://www.bentley.umich.edu/>

Access and Use

Aquisition Information:

Leon DeMeunier donated his papers in 1971. Donor number 5115

Access Restrictions:

The collection is open for research.

Copyright:

Copyright has not been transferred to the Regents of the University of Michigan.

Preferred Citation:

item, folder title, box no., Leon DeMeunier papers, Bentley Historical Library, University of Michigan

Biography

Leon A. DeMeunier was chairman of the Detroit Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) from its establishment in 1960 until sometime in 1962 or 1963. He was also national council member and member of the executive committee of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew in the United States, a men and boy's organization of the Episcopal Church. As CORE officer, DeMeunier served as participant, organizer, and negotiator for his organization. In the forefront of civil rights protests in this period, CORE sponsored a variety of demonstrations and protests, including lunchroom sit-ins and "Freedom Rides" on buses to the deep South to protest segregated facilities and the denial of service to African Americans.

Collection Scope and Content Note

The Leon A. DeMeunier collection, covering the period of 1960 to 1964, documents the role of CORE in the civil rights struggle of the early 1960s. The focus of the collection is the national civil rights movement and its efforts to overturn the practice of segregation in the South. Although the materials have been donated as a personal collection, the files are those of Detroit CORE with the following series: Papers, Printed Materials, Newspaper Clippings and Magazine Articles, and Miscellanea.

Subject Terms

This collection is indexed under the following headings in the finding aid database and catalog of The Bentley Historical Library/University of Michigan. Researchers desiring additional information about related topics should search the catalog using these headings.

Subjects:

- * DeMeunier, Leon.
- * Afro-American civil rights workers--Michigan.
- * Civil rights--United States.
- * Civil rights movements--Michigan--Detroit.
- * Discrimination in employment--Michigan.
- * Congress of Racial Equality.
- * Congress of Racial Equality. Detroit (Mich.)
- * Detroit (Mich.)--Race relations.
- * Southern States.

Contents List

Container / Location

Title

Papers, 1960-1963 and 1971 [series]:

The Papers series covers the period of 1960 to 1963.

There is a single item dated 1971. This series has been arranged chronologically and consists of correspondence, mimeographed materials, notes, organizational mailings, and memoranda. The series concerns the operation of Detroit CORE and the management of its protests.

Box 1	1960
Box 1	January-April 1961
Box 1	May 1961
Box 1	June 1961
Box 1	July 1961
Box 1	August-September 1961
Box 1	October-December 1961

Box 1 Undated, 1961
Box 1 January-April 1962
Box 1 May-August, 1962
Box 1 September-December 1962 and undated 1962
Box 1 1963 and 1971

Printed Material [series]:

Printed Materials is a series also arranged chronologically and consisted of leaflets, newsletters of various organizations and groups, and various announcements and programs.

Box 1 1958-1960
Box 1 1961
Box 1 1962
Box 1 1963-1964 and undated

Newspaper clippings and Magazine articles [series]:

The Newspaper Clippings and Magazine Articles series concerns both local and national events relating to CORE and to civil rights in general.

Box 1 1958-1960
Box 1 1961
Box 1 1962
Box 1 1963

Miscellaneous [series]:

Miscellaneous is an arbitrarily constructed file that includes the constitution and bylaws of Detroit CORE, scattered minutes of meetings and reports. Also within this series are pamphlets and publications of various organizations, and some DeMeunier personal items. Also placed here, and illustrative of the time, are two CORE collection canisters no doubt used at rallies and demonstrations.

Box 1 CORE records (include constitution and bylaws, minutes of meetings, and various reports)
Box 1 Pamphlets and publications of CORE and other civil rights organizations, 1960-1964
Box 1 Miscellaneous, 1961 (include tickets, calendar notebook, and receipts)

CORE collection cannisters (2)

APPENDIX 4.2: Post-test Document Analysis Exercise

Document Analysis Exercise

Student name: _____ Date: _____

Instructions:

Your packet contains copies of two primary sources: a written document and a photograph. In your packet there is also a finding aid (a tool to help navigate through a collection of primary sources). Carefully examine each item and answer the questions below:

Written Document Questions (Adapted from NARA's Teaching With Documents):

1. TYPE OF DOCUMENT (Check one):

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Newspaper | <input type="checkbox"/> Telegram |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Letter | <input type="checkbox"/> Advertisement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Patent | <input type="checkbox"/> Census report |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Memorandum | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please describe) |

2. UNIQUE PHYSICAL QUALITIES OF THE DOCUMENT (Check one or more):

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Distinctive letterhead | <input type="checkbox"/> Seals |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Handwritten | <input type="checkbox"/> Notations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Typed | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please describe) |

3. DATE(S) OF DOCUMENT: _____

4. AUTHOR (OR CREATOR) OF DOCUMENT: _____

5. TITLE OF DOCUMENT: _____

6. FOR WHAT AUDIENCE WAS THE DOCUMENT WRITTEN?:

7. DOCUMENT INFORMATION (There are many possible ways to answer A-E.)

A. List three things the author said that you think are important:

B. Why do you think this document was written?

C. What evidence in the document helps you know why it was written? Quote from the document.)

D. List two things the document tells you about life in the United States at the time it was written:

E. Write a question to the author that is left unanswered by the document:

F. How would you verify what is written in this document?

G. Where would you go to find more information about the topic of the document?

Photograph Questions (Adapted from NARA's Teaching With Documents):

Step 1: Observation

C. Study the photograph for 2 minutes. Form an overall impression of the photograph and then examine individual items. Next, divide the photo into quadrants and study each section to see what new details become visible.

D. Use the chart below to list people, objects, and activities in the photograph.

<i>People</i>	<i>Objects</i>	<i>Activities</i>

Step 2: Inference

B. Based on what you have observed above, list three things you might infer from this photograph.

Step 3: Questions

C. What questions does this photograph raise in your mind?

D. Where could you find answers to them?

Finding Aid Questions:

1. What is the Detroit Urban League and where can you find this collection?

2. What types of documents does the Detroit Urban League collection contain?

3. What is the size of the Detroit Urban League collection?

4. You are writing a research paper about the civil rights movement in Detroit. You would like to know more about the conditions experienced by African-American youth in the 1950s and 1960s. Where in the Detroit Urban League collection might you find something useful?

5. The following is a footnote from an article written by Thomas Sugrue about racial inequality [Sugrue, Thomas J "Crabgrass-roots politics: Race, rights, and the reaction against liberalism in the urban North, 1940-1964." The Journal of American History 82, no. 2 (September 1, 1995): 551.

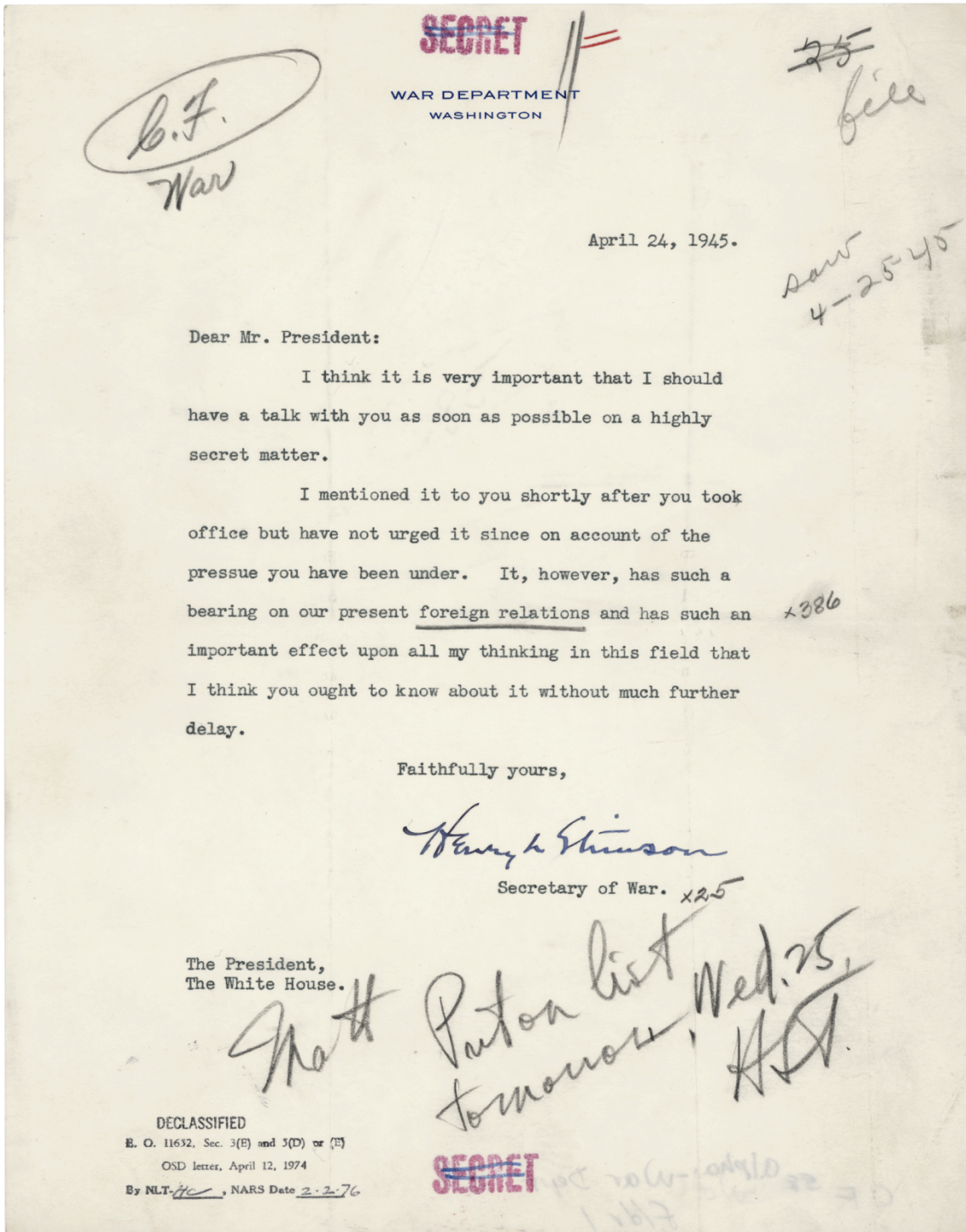
Footnote:

17. Mel Ravita, "Preparing Neighborhoods for Change," July 13, 1956, folder A8-1, box 44, Detroit Urban League Papers (Michigan Historical Collections, Bentley Library, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor).

What steps would you take to find this document?

6. Where would you go for additional materials about the civil rights movement in Detroit?

Primary Source 1: Written Document



Primary Source 2: Photograph



“Small newsie down-town. Saturday afternoon. St. Louis, Missouri”

By Lewis Hine, May 7, 1910

National Archives, Records of the Children's Bureau (102-LH-1377)

Finding Aid

Detroit Urban League records 1916-1992

Summary Information

Title: Detroit Urban League records

Creator: Detroit Urban League

Inclusive dates: 1916-1992

Extent: 96 linear feet and 1 oversize folder (UBDm)

Abstract:

Social Service organization serving the Detroit African American community, affiliate of the National Urban League; includes minutes of the Board of Directors, correspondence and topical files of Executive Directors and Presidents, budgets and financial records, and papers concerning National Urban League conferences and Green Pastures Camp; also departmental files relating to community services, housing, vocational services, health and welfare, job development and employment, and education and youth incentives; and photographs.

Call number: 851100 Bd 2 UBDm

Language: The materials are in English.

Repository: Bentley Historical Library University of Michigan
1150 Beal Ave.

Ann Arbor, MI 48109-2113

Phone: 734-764-3482

Fax: 734-936-1333

e-mail: bentley.ref@umich.edu

Home Page: <http://www.bentley.umich.edu/>

Detroit Urban League records 1916-1992

Departmental Files [series]:

The Departmental Files series, 1947-1968 (boxes 37-56) consists of the records of the Community Services and Vocational Services Departments from the early 1940s to 1963 and the records of the Housing Department, the Education and Youth Incentives Department, the Health and Welfare Department, and the Job Development and Employment Department from 1964 through 1968.

Community Service Department [subseries]:

Topical File

Box 40 Adoption Clearance Committee, 1958-1963 (2 folders)

Box 40 Adoptions, 1953-1959

Box 40 Aging, 1958-1960 (2 folders)

Box 40 Aid to Dependent Children, 1962

Box 40 Anti-Defamation League, 1957-1963 (2 folders)

Box 40 Block Clubs, 1962

Box 40 Brewster and Jeffries Projects, 1952-1955 (2 folders)

Box 40 Brochure on Housing Mobility, 1955

Box 40 Cherrylawn and Chippewa Dads' Club, 1955
 Box 40 Child Welfare Advisory Committee, 1957-1963 (5 folders)
 Box 40 Child Welfare Institute, 1957 (2 folders)
 Box 41 Citizens' Advisory Committee on Police Procedures, 1960
 Box 41 Citizens' Advisory Committee on School Needs, 1957-1960
 Box 41 Citizens' Committee to Combat Crime, 1959-1960 (2 folders)
 Box 41 Civil Rights Hearings, 1960 (2 folders)
 Box 41 Community Services and Urban Living, 1959
 Box 41 Coordinating Council on Civil Rights, 1961
 Box 41 Crime Institute, 1960
 Box 41 Delta Home for Girls, 1953-1956
 Box 41 Detroit Commission on Children and Youth, 1959-1963 (4 folders)
 Detroit Committee for Neighborhood Preservation and Improved Housing
 Box 41 1953-1957 (3 folders)
 Box 41 1960-1963 (3 folders)
 Box 41 Detroit Council of Churches, 1956-1957
 Box 41 Detroit Federation of Community Councils, 1962-1963
 Detroit Housing Commission
 Box 41 1949-1953 (7 folders)
 Box 42 1954-1955 (4 folders)
 Box 42 1957-1963 (4 folders)
 Box 42 Detroit Public Schools, 1949-1956 (2 folders)
 Box 42 Discriminatory Practices in Social Welfare Agencies, 1959
 Box 42 East Side Planning Commission, 1962
 Box 42 Eight Mile - Wyoming Project, 1962-1963
 Box 42 Equal Opportunity Day, 1962
 Federal Housing Administration
 Box 42 1950-1952
 Box 42 1962-1963
 Box 42 Field Contacts, 1959
 Detroit Urban League records 1916-1992
 Box 42 Financing of Home Purchases, 1954-1963 (2 folders)
 Box 42 Greater Detroit Committee for Fair Housing Practices, 1961-1963
 Box 42 Higher Education - Financial Assistance, 1963
 Hospital and Medical Center Studies
 Box 42 Undated
 Box 42 1951-1956 (7 folders)
 Box 43 1957-1962 (4 folders)
 Housing
 Box 43 1947-1950 (2 folders)
 Box 43 1963
 Box 43 Housing and Home Finance Agency, 1951-1956
 Box 43 Housing Legislation, 1957-1963
 Box 43 Housing Needs of Older People, 1953-1957
 Box 43 Housing Research Material, 1957-1960
 Box 43 Housing Survey, 1952
 Box 43 Improvement Associations, 1955-1957
 Institute for Neighborhood Leaders

Box 43 1954
 Box 43 1956
 Box 43 Institutes and Forums, 1954-1958
 Box 43 Institutional Needs of Negro Delinquent Boys, 1957-1959
 Box 43 Integration of Public Housing, 1957
 Box 43 Job Descriptions, 1957-1960
 Box 43 Manual Revision Committee, 1951-1959 (2 folders)
 Box 43 Mayor's Committee on Children and Youth, 1954
 Box 43 Memorandums, 1956-1963 (3 folders)
 Box 43 Michigan Welfare League, 1961-1963 (4 folders)
 Box 43 National Association of Intergroup Relations Officials, 1962
 Box 43 Neighborhood Activity, 1955
 Box 44 Neighborhood Changes, 1961-1962 (2 folders)
 Box 44 Neighborhood Organizations, 1954
 Box 44 Newburgh Plan, 1961
 Box 44 Newspaper Clippings, 1961-1963
 Box 44 North Woodward Community Council, 1952-1956
 Box 44 Northwest Branch, 1947-1954 (5 folders)
 Box 44 Parents' Institute, 1960 (2 folders)
 Box 44 Plaintiff's Brief - Ming vs. Horgan, 1958
 Box 44 Police Community Relations, 1963
 Box 44 Population Figures
 Box 44 Real Estate Brokers' Committee, 1961
 Box 44 Rental Housing Project
 Box 44 Speeches, 1962-1963
 Box 44 Study of Problems of the Aged, 1961-1962 (2 folders)
 Box 44 Trends Toward Open Occupancy, 1952-1960 (2 folders)
 Box 44 Tuberculosis and Health Society, 1962-1963
 Box 44 Urban Adjustment Steering Committee, 1958-1961 (3 folders)
 Box 44 Urban Renewal Institute, 1956 (2 folders)
 Box 44 Voluntary Home Mortgage Credit Program, 1954-1955

APPENDIX 4.3: Analytic Rubric for Document Analysis Exercise

CRITERIA	MINIMAL	FAIR	GOOD	EXEMPLARY
	1*	2	3	4
OBSERVATION	Makes a very brief or erroneous attempt at identifying the basic characteristics of the sources.**	Offers only a basic description of the sources and may include errors.	Describes most of the elements of the sources correctly.	Thoroughly and accurately describes elements of document, photograph, and finding aid.
INTERPRETATION/ HISTORICAL CONTEXT	Is not able to place any of the sources in a broader historical context.	Offers one example in which a source is placed in a broader historical context.	Explains and gives examples of the meaning and usefulness of more than one but not all of the sources, placing them in a broader historical context.	Explains and gives examples of the meaning and usefulness of all of the sources and places them within a broad historical context.
EVALUATION/ CRITICAL THINKING	Does not offer any additional information about the source besides what is already provided.	Asks questions about one source regarding its validity, limitations and strengths.	Able to ask questions about more than one but not all of the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths.	Able to ask questions about all of the sources regarding their validity, limitations and strengths.
RESEARCH SKILLS	Shows no awareness of how to find additional resources. Does not mention archives at all and is unable to come up with new research questions based on the sources.	Demonstrates limited knowledge of where to go for additional resources. Does not mention archives in a meaningful way. Shows limited ability to ask new research questions based on the sources.	Shows some awareness of additional sources, both primary and secondary. Mentions archives in a meaningful way. Demonstrates some ability to ask new research questions based on the sources.	Exhibits ability to ask new research questions based on the sources and to recognize the existence of additional resources, both primary and secondary. Exhibits a meaningful awareness of archives and how to read a finding aid.

*All answers received at least 1 point even if they were blank or erroneous.

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