Learning to Teach with a Focus on Disciplinary Reading and Texts in History:
A Study of History and Social Science Preservice Teachers

by

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DEDICATION

To my grandmother, Dolores Grace Stull,
who yearned for but did not receive the educational opportunities I have had,
yet found ways to continuously enhance her own learning.
Thank you for your example.

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ABSTRACT

In this study I explore one cohort of secondary history and social science preservice teachers' conceptions of disciplinary literacy in history and the extent to which these ideas influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their middle and high school students. I investigate how these preservice teachers' conceptions developed over the course of their teacher education program, considering the influence of several factors, including their disciplinary and education coursework, their field-based experiences, and their orientation toward students. Although my analysis includes sixteen preservice teachers, I highlight the conceptions and instructional approaches of those preservice teachers who worked in schools that primarily served students who were low-income, minority, and/or English language learners. The main data sources include a series of interviews and assessments that occurred over the duration of the preservice teachers' training.

My investigation reveals that all sixteen preservice teachers enhanced their understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history by the end of their teacher education program. The preservice teachers who were most likely to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students were those with history specific conceptions of reading and texts. However, for some preservice teachers, their orientation toward students, particularly their perception of their students' literacy abilities, mediated to what extent their conceptions influenced their reading instructional approaches. With limited longitudinal research on preservice teachers' understandings of

disciplinary reading and texts in history – and on the extent to which these conceptions

influence their instructional decisions – this study extends the knowledge base on teacher

learning.

Chapter 1:
Introduction

Educators in the United States are increasingly concerned about adolescent

literacy and the teacher education needed for teachers to improve young people's literacy

skills. Based on standardized assessments, secondary students' reading skills show little

progress over the past decade (Carnegie Corporation, 2010; NCES, 2009). Furthermore,

recent results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicate

that eighth and twelfth grade students struggle in particular with analyzing, inferring, and

synthesizing information in content area texts (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007). This is

especially true for many secondary students who are low income, minority, and/or

English language learners, as their reading test results continue to fall below their white,

Asian American, and/or more affluent peers (NCES, 2009; Rampey, Dion, & Donahue,

2009).

One promising approach is to assist content teachers in using discipline specific

reading instructional approaches instead of more general reading strategies that can be

utilized across content areas. Using discipline specific approaches supports the learner in

focusing on the distinct literacy-related tasks and demands embedded within a discipline,

such as in history, math, or science (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

However, this is not the first time that instructional approaches focused on reading across

the curriculum have been tried in teacher education. To enhance the impact of such

approaches, teacher education programs should consider important questions about their

students – the preservice teachers (PSTs). Specifically, what role do PSTs'
understandings of disciplinary reading and texts play in their instructional decisions?
Furthermore, as PSTs learn more about disciplinary reading and texts and about
instructional approaches that develop students' skills in this area, what other factors
influence whether, and to what extent, they use these approaches with their students?

Few scholars have researched how PSTs think about and use disciplinary reading
instructional approaches with their students, particularly students who are low-income,
minority, and/or English language learners. Developing a deeper, more nuanced
understanding of these issues could lead to more effective methods for strengthening
PSTs' knowledge and use of discipline specific reading instructional approaches. And
this, consequently, could lead to improvements in students' disciplinary reading skills. In
this dissertation I consider how one group of preservice teachers in history and the social
sciences conceived of disciplinary reading and texts in history and the extent to which
these ideas influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their middle
and high school students. I examine how these PSTs' ideas developed across their
teacher education (TE) program, and I highlight the experiences of PSTs who worked
with students traditionally underserved, namely, low-income, minority, and/or English
language learners.

My primary research question is: *How did secondary history and social science
preservice teachers' conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts in history develop
throughout their teacher education program and to what extent did these ideas influence
their instructional decisions?* Related to this orienting question, I also explore the
following sub-questions: *What factors and other conceptions did these preservice*

teachers hold that might have influenced their understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history and their use of discipline specific reading instructional approaches? To what extent did the teaching context influence the preservice teachers' conceptions and use of discipline specific reading instructional approaches?

Rationale and Significance

This study's focus on disciplinary reading is timely, as secondary students' content area literacy skills are receiving increased national attention. The Common Core State Standards (2010) have accelerated and consolidated this attention on content specific literacy by their inclusion of standards for literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects. The Council of Chief State School Officers commissioned and approved the Common Core State Standards, which have been adopted by 44 of the 50 states. The authors of the Standards explain that "part of the motivation behind the interdisciplinary approach to literacy promulgated by the Standards is extensive research establishing the need for college and career ready students to be proficient in reading complex informational text independently in a variety of content areas" (p. 4).

Acknowledging that the reading and writing demands within content areas differ, the Standards outline specific competencies in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects that students should develop as they advance through middle and high school. For example, the Standards call for history and social studies students to be able to: "evaluate authors' differing points of view on the same historical event or issue by assessing the authors' claims, reasoning, and evidence" (p. 61). Some scholars might

raise concerns about the discipline specificity of some of the competencies in history and that including history and social studies literacy within the English language arts standards weakens their connection to the disciplines, and might even reinforce the view that literacy is separate from history. However, the identification of these literacy standards begins to at least bring attention to the reading and writing demands unique to history and the other content areas.

Furthering attention to secondary students' content area literacy skills is the Carnegie Corporation's recent report on adolescent literacy, *Time to Act* (2010). Highlighting the challenges adolescent readers face with content area texts, the report explained how the texts used in secondary schools differ significantly from the reading tasks and demands students face in elementary school. For example, not only are texts longer at the secondary level, but the word, sentence, structural, and conceptual complexity increases significantly. In addition, graphic representations play a larger role in the text and require more advanced reading skills to decipher. Moreover, and key to this study, the texts[1] vary increasingly by content area at the secondary level, further escalating the literacy demands placed on middle and high school readers. *Time to Act* called for assisting PSTs in understanding and addressing the challenges adolescent readers face in the content areas. My study is in part a response to this call, as I examine the conceptions the PSTs held about disciplinary reading and texts, particularly as they relate to the reading instructional approaches they used with their middle and high school students.

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[1] I use the word *texts* broadly to reference the range of texts relevant in the history classroom, including but not limited to: print-based texts (such as textbooks, newspaper articles, diary entries), visual images, maps, audio and visual recordings, and statistical data in the form of charts, tables, and graphs.

In this dissertation I focus on history and social science PSTs for several reasons.[2] First, although reading skills are clearly important in all content areas, they are particularly critical in history, where texts play a dominant role in instruction. Second, history education continues to provoke considerable controversy, as politicians, historians, and educators continue to debate what content should be taught and for what purposes (Evans, 2004; Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn, 1998; Ravitch, 1991; Robelen, 2010; Zehr, 2009). In part due to this lack of consensus, history and social studies have garnered less national attention and research dollars, as compared to the spotlight reading, math, and science have received.[3] Consequently, a study of history PSTs is an area ripe for exploration. Third, critics of history instruction in secondary schools have argued that many teachers utilize weak instructional methods, such as an over-reliance on lecturing and the textbook (Cuban, 1991; Paxton, 1999; Ravitch, 1991; Yarema, 2002). This study seeks to deepen our understanding of the types of reading instructional approaches the PSTs learned in their teacher education (TE) program, and I plan to explore the factors that influenced their interest and ability to effectively use these instructional approaches. Finally, I have a personal interest in history and social science teaching and learning; I spent ten years at the elementary and secondary levels teaching in these content areas, and I currently work as a teacher educator with history and social science PSTs.

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[2] I have chosen to use the phrase *social science* instead of *social studies* preservice teachers, as there is contention about the nature of social studies and about what it means to learn and understand in social studies (Leming, Porter-Magee, Ellington, 2003). Secondly, because the majority of PSTs in this study were history majors (69%) and much more is written about disciplinary reading in history as compared to the social science disciplines, I have selected history as the main discipline I will discuss throughout the dissertation.

[3] See Nash, Crabtree, & Dunn (1998) and VanSledright (2002) for a comparative discussion of funding through the National Endowment of Humanities, which supports history education research, and the National Science Foundation, which funds research in math and science.

My analysis in this dissertation includes the entire cohort of PSTs, and I am particularly interested in the experiences of PSTs who worked in schools that primarily served students who were low-income, minority, and/or English language learners. My rationale for this is rooted in both scholarly intent and personal commitment. As noted earlier, the reading achievement gap persists with white, Asian American, and/or more affluent students outperforming their African American, Latino, and/or low-income peers (Rothstein, 2004; Vanneman, Hamilton, Anderson, & Rahman, 2009). As our public schools become increasingly populated by low-income and minority students as well as by English language learners, there is a growing need for teachers who are knowledgeable of and effective at working with these student populations (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Fass & Cauthen, 2008; NCES, 2005; NCES, 2004). My past experience as a teacher in these settings, as well as my commitment to improving teaching and learning for underserved students, serve as further motivation for focusing on the PSTs who worked in these settings. With very limited research on how preservice and new teachers who work with underserved students think about and make instructional decisions (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2001), this study seeks to add to this knowledge base.

Improving the quality of teacher education, particularly as it relates to enhancing prospective teachers' abilities to work with underserved or struggling adolescent students is vital. We know that teachers play a crucial role in student learning (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Sanders & Rivers, 1996); thus, if we are to improve student learning, I argue that we must strengthen our understanding of teacher learning and the knowledge, factors, and influences teachers rely on in making their instructional decisions. Several

universities and colleges, such as Alverno College in Milwaukee (Murrell & Diez, 1997), utilize on-going and comprehensive assessments of their prospective teachers, but there is limited empirical research that examines how PSTs' "knowledge and practices are influenced by what they experience in teacher education programs and even less attention to how teachers are affected over time by their preparation" (Zeichner, 2005, p. 742; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Bransford, Berliner, Cochran-Smith, McDonald, & Zeichner, 2005). Thus, in this dissertation I examine not only the factors influencing the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and its related instructional approaches, but also how the PSTs' ideas developed and changed over the course of their TE program.

Key Concepts

The following concepts and terms play a central role in this dissertation: *disciplines*, *disciplinary literacy*, *disciplinary reading instructional approaches*, and *conceptions*. Critical to this study is the concept of disciplines, which I consider to be knowledge domains, such as history, mathematics, and physics. I situate my understanding of disciplines in the work of Bruner (1960, 1966), Hirst (1974), and Schwab (1978), who used disciplinary structures to understand the complex processes of meaning-making. They considered the structure of the disciplines to include the unique methods each discipline has for developing knowledge, conducting investigations, and working with and producing texts. Their work makes a strong case for why disciplinary structures matter for cognition and consequently for the work of teachers (see Ch. 2 for an extended discussion of disciplines).

Deeply connected to disciplinary structures is the concept of disciplinary literacy, which encompasses both the unique ways of thinking within a discipline and the distinctive language uses and literacy practices needed to both represent and understand these ways of knowing. As Moje (2008) explained:

> Literacy is an essential aspect of disciplinary learning. . . . [Thus], producing knowledge in a discipline requires fluency in making and interrogating knowledge claims, which in turn require fluency in a wide range of ways of constructing and communicating knowledge. Literacy thus becomes an essential aspect of disciplinary practice, rather than a set of strategies or tools brought in to the disciplines to improve reading and writing of subject-matter texts (p. 99).

Moje argued that literacy is not separate from the discipline, but an integral part of what it means to study and work within a discipline. Thus, the discipline shapes the literacy practices required to develop disciplinary understandings. For example, one of history's foundational principles is the importance of context; thus, to think historically the reader must engage in discipline specific reading practices that lead him/her to consider the historical context in which the author is writing. Because context is such a key element in historical thinking, it requires the reader to engage in particular reading practices.

Related to the concepts of disciplines and disciplinary literacy are two other terms I use throughout this dissertation: *disciplinary reading* and *discipline specific reading instructional approaches*. Because disciplinary literacy is a broad concept and my primary interest in this dissertation is the PSTs' ideas about how to engage students in disciplinary reading in history, the terminology I use most frequently is disciplinary reading. This embodies the concept of disciplinary literacy as described above but focuses on the reading practices related to interpreting and working with texts in history.

 I consider *discipline specific reading instructional approaches* to be tightly connected to the discipline of history and its reading tasks and demands. Furthermore,

the teacher recognizes and deliberately uses these instructional approaches to develop students' understanding of history's key features, such as its interpretive, contextual, and inquiry orientations. For example, primary source documents often contain language and phrasing that we in the twenty-first century might consider antiquated. To assist young readers in understanding this language in its historical context, the teacher might place explanations of difficult terminology within the text itself and return to these terms in a class discussion of the text and its context. Another example of a discipline specific reading instructional approach is using an intellectual or historical problem to engage students and focus their work with historical texts. For instance, one of the PSTs in this study used the following question to engage students in an exploration of the factors leading up to WWII: *Was WWII inevitable?* The teacher returned to this question throughout the unit of study, asking students to amend their responses given their current understandings of the time period.

These types of discipline specific reading instructional approaches differ from ones that are content related but are used for more general purposes. For example, a teacher might ask students to compare the Civil Rights Movement to the Women's Right Movement using a Venn diagram. If this is an activity meant to help students extract information from the textbook and is not revisited in class, I would not consider this to be a discipline specific reading instructional approach as it does not focus on developing students' understanding of history's key features or explicitly help the students to make meaning from the text. Thus, the discipline specificity of the approach and the purpose the teacher has for using it influences the extent to which I consider the approach to be discipline specific. I acknowledge that both discipline specific and more general reading

instructional approaches are needed to support students' disciplinary understandings and disciplinary reading skills; however, my primary interest in this dissertation is on discipline specific reading instructional approaches. It is also important to note that I use the term reading instructional *approaches* instead of *strategies*, as I consider the former to be a more encompassing concept than strategies.

Finally, I use the term *conceptions* when I reference the PSTs' knowledge, beliefs, ideas, and views about disciplinary reading and texts. I agree with Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman's (1989) assessment that "it is frequently the case that teachers treat their beliefs as knowledge" (p. 31). For example, when the PSTs in this study discussed disciplinary reading in history, their students, and their instruction, it was often not clear if they were basing their views on their knowledge (or lack thereof) or on their beliefs. To avoid the challenging task of classifying PSTs' statements as reflections of their knowledge *or* beliefs, I have chosen to use the more encompassing term of conceptions.

The Disciplinary Reading and Writing Practices Related to Historical Inquiry

In this dissertation I work from the premise that developing students' disciplinary understandings, particularly about history's interpretive nature and the related inquiry process, should be key aspects of middle and high school history instruction. Thus, it is important to develop students' disciplinary reading and writing skills so that they can more fully engage in historical inquiry. I am not suggesting that teachers should try to mold their students into mini-historians; rather, the goal is to develop students' historical understandings by focusing on the interpretive nature of history, thus moving beyond the common emphasis on memorizing events, dates, and names, what Lévesque (2008) called

"memory-history." Emphasizing history as interpretation means that students will need more than general reading and writing skills to be able to interrogate texts and build arguments. Thus, the disciplinary reading and writing practices of history become central to developing disciplinary understandings. As Moje (2008) suggested, disciplinary thinking develops *along* with disciplinary reading and writing skills.

But what are the reading and writing practices needed in history and how do they relate to what it means to engage in historical inquiry? To makes this more explicit, I briefly summarize the historical inquiry process and some of the reading and writing practices required to engage in this type of disciplinary thinking.[4] Although I focus in this dissertation on disciplinary reading and texts, in the following section I discuss both disciplinary reading and writing to enable the reader to gain a more complete understanding of how my conception of the literacy skills needed in history relates to the historical inquiry process. My description is over-simplified so that I can also show how teachers' work with students reflects, but is different from, historians' work.

Historical inquiry involves:

1) Crafting an historical question worthy of investigation.

2) Finding texts that relate to the historical question.

3) Analyzing these texts, which may take a variety of formats, such as print-based texts, visuals, audio recordings, statistical data, and maps.

4) Crafting an argument based on one's interpretation of the textual evidence and prior knowledge.

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[4] My description here is in part based on Lévesque's (2008) discussion of the historical inquiry process (p. 35-37) and on VanSledright's (2009) discussion of historical thinking. I extend their ideas by specifying the reading and writing practices relevant at each stage of inquiry and by making explicit comparisons between historians' and teachers' work.

5) Sharing the argument and evidence with an audience.

6) Refining the argument based on audience response and additional reflection and analysis.

7) Sharing the refined argument and evidence with a broader audience.

Historical inquiry begins with a question or problem that historians consider worthy of investigation. This sense of worthiness is based on historians' prior knowledge and reading, and is often a question overlooked in previous research or one historians believe worthy of re-investigation based on "new" evidence. When teachers engage their students in historical inquiry, they often provide their students with the historical question, because of the high level of content knowledge needed to develop such questions and the differing goals of historians and teachers.

Second, historians seek texts that help them to address their historical question. This might include more traditional print-based texts, such as newspaper articles, political essays, and eyewitness accounts; visual images, such as photographs and paintings; audio recordings; statistical data; and maps. Again, due to the skill level and time needed to acquire relevant texts, teachers often provide their students with texts. Furthermore, whereas historians seek as many relevant texts as possible, teachers may chose to only use one text, or several, depending on numerous factors including their instructional goals and the students' literacy levels.

Third, historians then analyze these texts, evaluating the authors' (or artists' or geographers') arguments while engaging in discipline specific reading practices. Wineburg (1991) referred to these practices as sourcing, contextualizing, and corroborating. In terms of sourcing, this means considering: who created the text; what

the historian already knows about this person and his or her previous work; and, what might have been the author's motivation for creating the text. Historians then place the text in its historical context, considering what was happening during this period in history that might have influenced the text's formation and content. Contextualizing also includes thinking about the particular audience for this text, whom the author wanted to read or see it, and how the audience might have responded to the text. Finally, historians corroborate across texts, considering how this text speaks to and compares to other texts. Although I have described this process rather linearly, it is an iterative process, requiring historians to continually evaluate what they are reading based on their prior knowledge and their evolving understanding of the text's value in relation to the historical question they are trying to address. Because students – as their status implies – are just developing their conceptions of history and their content knowledge, it is often challenging for them to independently and fully engage in the reading analysis process that historians utilize. Thus, the teachers' role and the types of supports they offer are critical.

Fourth, as historians are analyzing the texts, they are also developing arguments in response to the historical problem. Historians base their arguments on the textual evidence they have as well as their prior knowledge, considering places where other scholars may agree and disagree, and seeking additional texts and evidence as the analysis process warrants. There is less extant writing describing the process of moving from reading analysis to argument formulation than there is about the ways in which historians read and analyze texts. Because this process is less visible and few non-historians have had opportunities to fully engage in this process, teachers may find it challenging to teach students how to move from reading and analyzing texts to creating

an argument. Because creating an evidence-based argument requires sophisticated disciplinary literacy skills in evaluation and synthesis, in addition to writing or presenting information orally, teachers may model this process for students and provide them with multiple opportunities to develop arguments based on close textual analysis.

Fifth, another key feature of historians' work involves presenting their arguments, and the evidence upon which they are based, to an audience. The presentation may take multiple written or oral-based formats. Numerous literacy skills are necessary to clearly articulate, organize, warrant, and present one's ideas, whether the format is an essay or an oral presentation. Although these literacy skills build upon those needed when analyzing texts and crafting an argument, they are different. For example, a student (or an historian) may be skillful in analyzing texts, but struggle with presenting his or her ideas in writing. This necessitates teachers providing their students with additional scaffolding and support as they learn to write and speak about their historical understandings in ways that are persuasive and based on evidence.

Sixth, the next step in the creation and vetting of an historical argument involves refining the argument in response to feedback from an audience. This may require returning to the textual evidence the historian has already analyzed and/or seeking additional evidence. Similar to the process of creating an argument, there is not much research that makes visible what is involved with refining an argument. Because of this, and the time constraints common in secondary schools (e.g., common use of pacing charts), teachers do no often engage students in this aspect of historians' work. In addition, teachers seldom have students share their refined arguments with a broader

audience, the final step in the process I have outlined above. For historians, this may be a formal presentation or a written publication.

In summary, it should be clear from this discussion that there are multiple steps involved in historical inquiry, each requiring particular disciplinary reading and writing practices and skills. Those which seem most relevant to the work teachers may do with their students and on which my dissertation focuses are related to analyzing and working with historical texts. Of all the aspects of the historical inquiry process, the PSTs placed the most emphasis on reading and texts in history making this a fruitful area for me to explore in this dissertation.

Dissertation Outline

In this first chapter I have highlighted the rationale and significance of this study with regards to teacher education. I have illustrated the connection between the disciplines and literacy and explained how engaging in historical inquiry requires discipline specific reading practices and skills.

In Chapter 2, I describe the theoretical framework for this study and review research upon which this study builds. Activity theory (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999) provides an overall framework, assisting me in exploring the multiple contexts in which these prospective teachers learned about disciplinary reading and teaching. Research about disciplines and disciplinary literacy (Bain, 2000, 2006; Bruner, 1960, 1966; Hirst, 1974; Moje, 2008; Schwab, 1978; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Wineburg, 1991, 2001) helps me to make sense of the discipline's influence on the PSTs' conceptions and instructional approaches.

The interactive reading model (Rumelhart, 1977, 2004; Snow, 2002) offers a complex, multi-dimensional view of what the reading process entails. To inform my exploration of how the prospective teachers' conceptions changed over time, I also utilize two cognitive development models – the reflective judgment model (King & Kitchener, 1994) and a model of prospective teachers' belief and knowledge growth (Hollingsworth, 1989). I also review past research and ongoing conversations about teacher education by exploring literature related to the knowledge base for teaching and to the role of preservice teachers' prior beliefs and experiences in learning to teach.

In Chapter 3, I provide detail about my research design, data collection, and analysis methods. I begin with an explanation of how my theoretical framework influenced the design of this study. I then describe the research context, providing more detail about my involvement with this cohort of PSTs and about the teacher education courses and field experiences in which they participated. Next, I explain my data sources and the larger research project related to these data, highlighting how my involvement with this research project influenced my own ideas about disciplinary literacy, particularly, my ideas about disciplinary reading and texts in history. Finally, I explicate my data analysis process, detailing how I progressed from analyzing the data sources for individual PSTs to seeking patterns across all of the PSTs and across time.

Chapters 4 and 5 highlight the findings of this study. In Chapter 4 I explore the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, describing how their ideas ranged along five dimensions of disciplinary reading. I then illustrate the intellectual progression – from general to developing to discipline specific – in the PSTs' ideas about these dimensions. To demonstrate how and why the PSTs' conceptions changed over

time, I look closely at the changes in two PSTs' conceptions, and I discuss the factors that may have influenced these changes. I conclude this chapter with a discussion of how the PSTs' early experiences with history as students themselves might have influenced their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history.

In Chapter 5 I explore to what extent the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. I begin by showing how the PSTs' instructional ideas related to the dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts I explored in the previous chapter. Next I examine the PSTs' orientation toward students, which proved to be an additional factor that significantly influenced some PSTs' reading instructional approaches. I define the features of their orientation that seemed to be most significant with regards to the instructional approaches they used. Finally, I highlight three PSTs, whose orientation toward students had different effects on the reading instructional approaches they used with their students.

In Chapter 6, I offer an integrated discussion of the findings I discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. In particular, I consider the implications for teacher education, emphasizing how we might prepare prospective teachers, particularly those working with underserved students, to effectively use discipline specific reading instructional approaches in history. I conclude by outlining how I might continue with this line of inquiry in my future work.

Chapter 2:
Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

> The phrase learning to teach rolls easily off the tongue, giving the impression that this is a straight-forward, easily understood process. In fact, we do not have well-developed theories of learning to teach and the phrase itself covers many conceptual complexities. . . . Knowing what good teachers do, how they think, or what they know is not the same as knowing how teachers learn to think and act in particular ways and what contributes to their learning (Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996, p. 63).

Understanding how novices develop the rich, contextual knowledge of effective, experienced teachers remains a challenge for teacher education. This study seeks to add to TE's understanding of how prospective teachers learn to teach. I approach this study with the conviction that learning is a socially situated activity, influenced by the cultural, historical, and affective context in which the learning occurs (Lewis, Encisco, & Moje, 2007; Wertsch, 1985; Wertsch, 1991). I also argue that an individual's prior knowledge and experiences, which are socially and culturally-based, play a role in how a learner makes sense of new information and becomes skilled in a practice, in this case, using discipline specific reading instructional approaches in history (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000).

Theoretical Framework

The theories, research, and models that I draw upon to assist me in understanding the process of learning to teach reflect this conception of learning, as well. These include: activity theory (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman,

Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999); research on the disciplines and disciplinary literacy (Bain , 2000, 2006; Bruner, 1960,1966; Hirst, 1974; Moje, 2008; Schwab, 1978; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Wineburg, 1991, 2001); the interactive reading model (Rumelhart, 1977, 2004; Snow, 2002); the reflective judgment model (King & Kitchener, 1994); and, a model of PST belief and knowledge growth (Hollingsworth, 1989). Activity theory serves as an overall conceptual framework for this study, assisting me in situating the multiple factors and contexts influencing the PSTs' developing ideas about disciplinary reading and instruction. One of these factors is the discipline of history itself; research on the disciplines and disciplinary literacy shapes my exploration of the PSTs' conceptions of reading and texts in history. Also contributing to my understanding of the PSTs' conceptions is the current model of the interactive reading process.[5] Similar to activity theory, it acknowledges how multiple factors, namely, the reader, the text, the activity, and the context, interact in complex ways to influence how the reader engages with the text and the message he or she creates from it.

Although activity theory and the interactive reading model acknowledge the role of the learner, they do not focus on young adult learners or on how learners' ideas develop over time.   Thus, I turn to two cognitive development models that focus specifically on learners from adolescence through adulthood. These models reflect activity theory's perspective on learning as a contextual, social, and cultural experience, but they focus not just on the learning of a *practice*, as activity theory does, but explicitly on how learners' *conceptions* and epistemology develop over time. The reflective

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[5] The original interactive reading model (Rumelhart, 1977, 2004) focused on the cognitive processes that occur when a reader engages with a text. More recent models now include the influence of the activity and context on the reading process (Snow, 2002). The latter model is the one I reference throughout this dissertation.

judgment model provides me with a complex stage theory for understanding how young

adult learners' conceptions of knowledge – and the relationship between this

epistemology and their judgments – develop over time. With an explicit focus on

prospective teachers, Hollingsworth's model of PST belief and knowledge growth offers

me a slightly different perspective on the cognitive development process, as it depicts

teacher learning as a dynamic, fluid process that does not proceed in predictable stages.

Figure 1 depicts how these theories, research, and models inform the process of learning

to teach with a focus on disciplinary reading and texts in history.

Learning to teach with a focus on disciplinary reading – as well as the teaching

act itself – is a complex process. As illustrated in Figure 1, both the preservice teacher

and his or her students have particular understandings of history, disciplinary literacy,

and the reading process, which are related to their cognitive stage of development. The

context of learning, including classroom level factors such as the norms for reading in

history and the structure of the activity, as well as broader factors such as the socio-

political context, influence both the PST's and students' learning. Although my primary

interest in this dissertation is the preservice teachers' conceptions of disciplinary reading

in history and the instructional approaches they use related to this, students and their

cognitive development are the key focus of teacher's work, thus I have included them

here.[6] As the overlapping circles indicate, the PST's understanding of *students'*

knowledge of the discipline, disciplinary literacy, and the reading process interacts with

the PST's own understanding of these topics, influencing the type of reading instructional

approaches the PST utilizes. Represented by the oval and the arrows in the figure, the

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[6] Although I have only one circle depicting student learning, each student has his or her own "circle," representing his or her understanding of these topics.
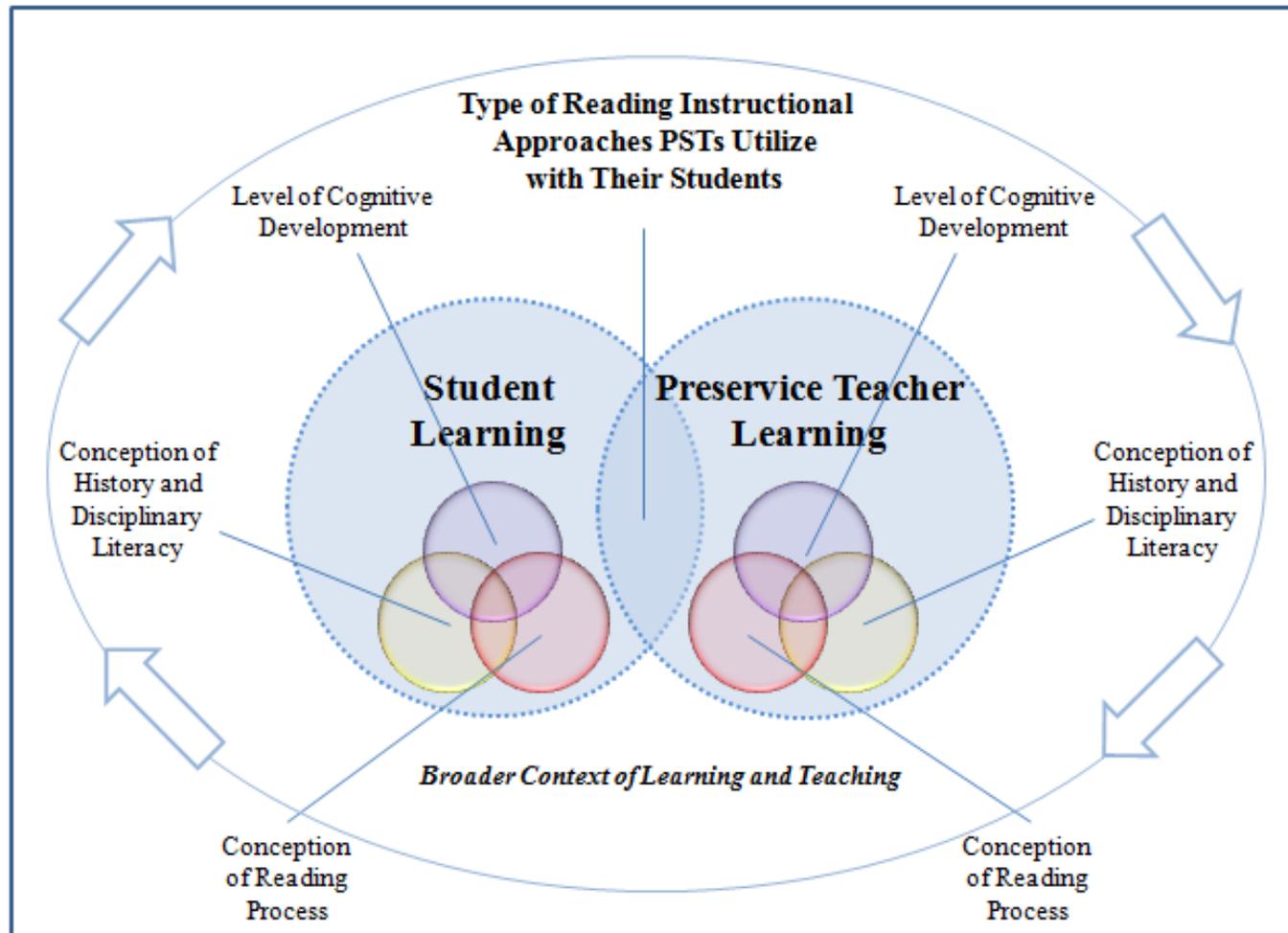
Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of the Type of Reading Instructional Approaches Preservice Teachers Utilize with Their Students.

PST's and students' learning continues to change and develop over time, further influencing the PST's instructional approaches.

This depiction of the process of learning and teaching takes into account: the context (activity theory, the interactive reading model, and disciplines/disciplinary literacy); the learner (the interactive reading model, the reflective judgment model, and the model of growth in PSTs' knowledge and belief); and the activity or the process of learning to teach (activity theory and the interactive reading model). I explicate each of these components of the theoretical framework in the next sections.

Activity Theory

Activity theory is an appropriate framework for this study, because it offers me an approach for considering the numerous factors and influences on PSTs as they developed their teaching practices. According to activity theory, the activity – in this case learning to teach – is a dynamic, socially mediated phenomenon influenced by the cultural and historical use of mediating tools or artifacts (Engeström, 1999; Lompscher, 2006). Engeström (1999) described activity theory as, "deeply contextual and oriented at understanding historically specific local practices, their objects, mediating artifacts, and social organization" (p. 378).

Engeström's (1993) model of an activity system includes six interdependent elements: subject, object, tools, community, division of labor, and rules (Figure 2). The *subject* is an individual or group involved in the activity, in this case, the individual PSTs and their cohort. The *object* or goal of the activity is transformed by the subjects' use of tools, and thus constitutes the outcome of the activity. The object in this study is the PSTs' effective use of discipline specific reading instructional approaches in history

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                        TOOL


                                    transformation
    SUBJECT ————— OBJECT    ——————————▶  OUTCOME
                                         process




  RULES ————— COMMUNITY ————— DIVISION
                                OF LABOR
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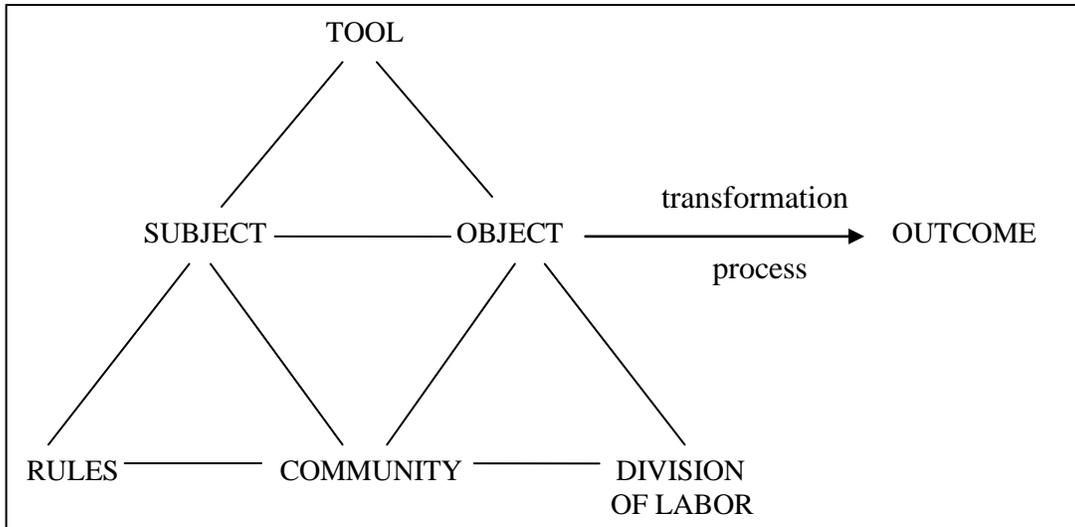
Figure 2: Basic Structure of an Activity (Engeström, 1993).

(which in turn influence the reading practices of middle and high schools students).

Perhaps the most central element of the activity system for this study is *tools* – the mediating artifacts or concepts that the subjects use to accomplish tasks related to the activity. Furthermore, any tool involves the use of language. The following passage highlights the central role that tools play in the activity system:

> Tools are created and transformed during the development of the activity itself and carry with them a particular culture – the historical remnants from that development. So, the use of tools is a means for the accumulation and transmission of social knowledge. It influences the nature, not only of external behavior, but also of the mental functioning of individuals (Ryder, n.d., para. 6).

The PSTs in this study used a variety of tools, including the literacy strategies in one of their main texts, "the Buehl book"; practical tools such as placing synonyms behind difficult terminology in primary source texts; and, metacognitive tools such as think alouds to demonstrate to students how to consider context when reading an historical text. They often adapted these tools, with varying degrees of fidelity to the actual tool. In

addition, PSTs, through their education coursework, learned the language related to disciplinary reading in history, and the interviews and assessments contain numerous examples of how they began to appropriate this language over time.

Another element of the activity system is *community*, which Engeström described as a group of individuals who share the same general objective with regards to the activity. The PSTs belonged to several distinct communities whose focus was teaching and learning, such as, the university teacher education program, the middle and high schools where PSTs had their field experiences, and the cohort of peers with whom they advanced through the TE program. Each of these communities had its own activity system, sharing some elements with the others. Although these communities had the same ultimate objective – advancing student learning – depending on the community and its members, sometimes these communities had different conceptions about the use and worth of discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

For example, research in content area literacy (e.g., Angell, 1994; Bean & Zulich, 1992; Linek et al., 1999) suggests that teacher educators and cooperating teachers (CTs), with whom PSTs work in the field, often have differing conceptions of literacy and its relation to the content area. This has consequences for how PSTs conceive of and use discipline specific reading instructional approaches. Another issue related to community is that some PSTs might view themselves, or are considered by other community members, to be only peripheral members. This might limit the extent to which the PSTs can pursue the activity's object – using relevant and effective discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students.

The final two elements of the activity system – *division of labor* and *rules* –

reflect the multiple settings of this study. Engeström (1993) described two components to the division of labor: a horizontal division that separates tasks between the community members and a vertical division that defines issues of power and status. These take on different meanings in this study depending upon the community being discussed. For instance, when working in their field placement sites, the PSTs' status as novice teachers often limited what the cooperating teachers would allow them to do instructionally. These issues of power also impact the *rules*, or norms and conventions that guide interactions within the activity system. For instance, in the field context there were particular "rules" that PSTs had to follow, as they sought to earn respect from their cooperating teachers. The "rules" often differed by teacher and by class, suggesting that PSTs might have needed to use different tools in pursuit of the object based on the specific context in which they were teaching.

According to Engeström (1993), an activity system is open to continuous change as "human beings not only use instruments, they also continuously renew and develop them, whether consciously or not. They not only obey rules, they also model and reformulate them" (p. 67). The inner contradictions that result from these actions are a natural part of the activity system, leading to transformations within it. For example, if a PST was working in a field context in which the CT suggested that he spend twenty minutes on a reading activity that he had originally planned for an entire class period, the PST would likely adapt the strategy or use another one to fit his context. Thus, the subject may use different tools, based on the community's division of labor and rules, to reach an outcome that he has also modified to fit the reality he now faces.

To further elaborate upon the idea of learning as situated in particular

communities, I initially considered work emerging out of studies of communities of

practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Although this work is certainly

powerful and instructive, Lave and Wenger's conception of community is not as germane

as activity theory's to the actual learning contexts in which these PSTs participated. As

mentioned previously, the PSTs belonged to multiple communities, each for a relatively

short duration of time. This differs from the community experiences that Lave and

Wenger described where group members, such as the Yucatan midwives and meat

cutters, belonged to *a* community of practice, sometimes for decades. In addition, the

communities of practice model does not directly acknowledge issues of power – which

activity theory considers as aspects of the division of labor – that might have influenced

the extent to which the PSTs were able and willing to appropriate and contribute to the

shaping of practice. Finally, communities of practice does not attend to the influence an

individual's prior knowledge and experiences play in the learning process, whereas

activity theory recognizes the subject's role in the activity.

Activity theory applied to the process of learning to teach.   The work of

Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999) provides an example of how an activity

theory framework applies to the process of learning to teach. In the following passage,

they explained the benefits activity theory offers teacher education researchers:

> Because it emphasizes the social settings in which concept development occurs,
> activity theory has the potential to illuminate how teachers' progression through a
> series of contexts can mediate their beliefs about teaching and learning and,
> consequently, their classroom practices. Activity theory can, therefore, help
> account for changes in teachers' thinking and practice, even when those changes
> differ from case to case. Rather than seeking a uniform explanation for the
> reasons behind teachers' gravitation to institutional values, an approach grounded
> in activity theory is more concerned with issues of enculturation and their myriad
> causes and effects. From this theoretical perspective, then, the question is not to

discover a single cause that accounts for all change, but rather to ask, "Under what circumstances do particular kinds of changes take place? (p. 4)

I concur with this description of activity theory's affordances, particularly the emphasis Grossman and colleagues placed on how activity theory is able to account for the multiple influences and factors impacting PSTs' conceptions about teaching and learning.

Grossman and colleagues expand my understanding of activity theory by describing how three elements of the activity system are particularly relevant to the process of learning to teach: activity settings (communities), tools, and appropriation (which reflects the ultimate outcome of the activity system for this study). In terms of activity settings, they argued that each setting has its own history and culture, and PSTs interpret these settings in different ways based on their own personal histories. Furthermore, Grossman and colleagues asserted that:

> The more activity settings that are available, the greater the prospects are for incompatible goals to coexist, each competing for primacy. With each participant involved in overlapping activity settings, the likelihood that all will wholeheartedly pursue the same goals is diminished. In cases where there is consistency of purpose across activity settings, the overall congruence is likely to be much stronger (p. 12).

This is certainly relevant to my study, as PSTs were learning about teaching in a variety of settings.

Another key issue related to settings that Grossman and colleagues raised is how different contexts require different types of identities, and these identities may or may not be compatible with one another. For instance, within the same day, the PSTs in this study had an identity as undergraduate students in the university context, while they took on identities as teachers in their field-based classrooms. In the university setting, PSTs were often in the mode of "studenting," working towards meeting the requirements of each course in an effort to receive a high grade. In contrast, during the student teaching

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semester, PSTs' actions resulted in very real consequences for other people – their

students. These identities reflect differing objectives and outcomes, and being successful

in one setting does not necessarily transfer to being effective in the other. Grossman and

colleagues argued that because most novice teachers value their identities as teachers

more than that as students, they give more weight to the learning they gain in their field

settings.

This has implications for the types of tools PSTs use in their instructional

practice. Grossman and colleagues distinguished between *conceptual* and *practical* tools,

with PSTs being most likely to learn about conceptual tools solely in the university

setting and practical tools in both the university and field settings. Grossman and

colleagues described conceptual tools as the:

> Principles, frameworks, and ideas about teaching, learning, and [subject matter]
> acquisition that teachers use as heuristics to guide decisions about teaching and
> learning. Conceptual tools can include broadly applicable theories, such as
> constructivism . . . and concepts, such as instructional scaffolding, that can serve
> as guidelines for instructional practice across the different strands of the
> curriculum (p. 14).

Practical tools, on the other hand, are instructional practices and strategies that teachers

may use regularly with their students. Examples include journal writing, graphic

organizers, and whole class discussions. According to Grossman and colleagues,

practical tools may have a foundation in conceptual tools, but novice teachers may not

recognize the conceptual basis, appropriating only the practical tool.

This example relates to the concept of appropriation, or the degree to which a

learner uses a tool in particular settings. Grossman and colleagues outlined five levels of

appropriation, which were useful for me to consider as I analyzed the PSTs' descriptions

and usage of discipline specific reading instructional approaches (tools). Many beginning

teachers, according to Grossman and colleagues, do not use a tool at all, regardless of whether they learned about it in the field or in their TE program. This may be due to the fact that the learner is not developmentally ready, does not have experience with the tools, or does not have a conceptual framework for including it. It is also possible that the PST may reject the tool, even though he or she may understand its conceptual basis. The second level of appropriation is label usage, indicating a superficial knowledge of the tool but perhaps not its features or when to use it appropriately.

According to Grossman and colleagues, as PSTs gain more experience, they may appropriate a tool's surface features, the third level of appropriation, without understanding the concept behind the tool. For example, in history PSTs might ask their students to consider the context and audience of a historical document, but not demonstrate to their students what this means, why it is significant, or how to do it. The fourth level of appropriation is when a learner understands the conceptual basis for the tool and is able to use it in new situations; however, he or she may not know its label. Finally, Grossman and colleagues described the highest level of appropriation as achieving mastery, the ability to use the tool effectively in a variety of contexts. This, they argued, takes years to accomplish and probably will not be captured during the preservice years.

Grossman and colleagues asserted that several factors impact the level of appropriation: 1) the social context of learning; 2) the individual characteristics of the learner, such as his or her beliefs and knowledge about the content; and, 3) "the congruence of a learner's values, prior experiences, and goals with those of more experienced or powerful members of a culture, such as school-based teachers or

university faculty" (p. 15). These factors interact in complex ways, affecting how PSTs make sense of, adapt, and utilize the tools that teacher education and the field espouse. Furthermore, because learners actively "reconstruct the knowledge they are internalizing, thus transforming both their conception of the knowledge and, in turn, that knowledge as it is construed and used by others," any tool that the PSTs use will have varying degrees of fidelity to the conceptualized version of the tool (p. 15).

As the work of Grossman and her colleagues illustrates, activity theory provides an appropriate framework for considering the multiple factors influencing to what extent PSTs used discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. As activity theory asserts, learning to teach is situated in particular contexts, and one context of particular relevance to this study is that of the discipline.

Disciplines and Disciplinary Literacy

As I began to describe in the introductory chapter, disciplines are significant as they shape not only the nature of knowledge within a content domain but how investigations are conducted, warrants are made, and knowledge is constructed. This in turn has consequences for the literacy practices needed to engage in the discipline. Given the focus of this dissertation, it should be evident that the work related to disciplines and disciplinary literacy plays a critical role in shaping my thinking about the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history. Here I expand on my initial explanation of these concepts, describing work related to the structure of the disciplines and indicating how this work relates to disciplinary literacy and the work of history teachers.

Central to disciplinary thinking are the concepts disciplines use to make sense of

world. Highlighting the importance of concepts, Hirst (1974) argued that, "[T]he mind is

. . . not a passive recipient of ideas which bring understanding from the external world. It

is rather that we achieve understanding through the use of categorical and conceptual

apparatus" (p. 23). Thus, the distinctive concepts of each discipline aid the learner in

sense-making. Beyond conceptual differences, disciplines have other ways of

constructing knowledge. Hirst (1974) explained that each discipline has a distinct logic

for connecting concepts; methods for establishing warrant; and, ways of conducting

inquiry, including its methods, skills, and techniques (p. 44). Similar to Hirst, Schwab

(1978) referred to a discipline's substantive and syntactic structures. Substantive features

are the "conceptual devices which are used for defining, bounding, and analyzing the

subject matters they investigate," in essence, the central concepts of the discipline (p.

246). Syntactic features, on the other hand, are the logic structures of the discipline – its

means for establishing truth and justifying conclusions and its modes of inquiry.

Building upon these ideas, Shulman (1987) claimed that to help students, teachers

need to know both the substantive and syntactic structures of the discipline:

> [A teacher] must understand the structures of subject matter, the principles of
> conceptual organization, and the principles of inquiry that help answer two kinds
> of questions in each field: What are the important ideas and skills in this domain?
> And, how are new ideas added and deficient ones dropped by those who produce
> knowledge in this area?   . . . The teacher also communicates, whether
> consciously or not, ideas about the ways in which 'truth' is determined in a field
> and a set of attitudes and values that markedly influence student understanding.
> This responsibility places special demands on the teacher's own depth of
> understanding of the structures of the subject matter (p. 9).

Thus, by knowing and using a discipline's structure, teachers can help students improve

the ways they access, use, and make sense of information. Using this approach should

assist students with comprehension and retention, because, as Bruner (1960) warned,

"knowledge one has acquired without sufficient structure to tie it together is knowledge that is likely to be forgotten" (p. 31). Furthermore, understanding the fundamental principles of a discipline may aid in learning transfer (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Bruner, 1960).

Related to the structures of the discipline approach to understanding teaching and learning, though often overlooked, are the ways disciplines develop unique language uses and require discipline specific literacy skills. Schwab (1978) spoke to this relationship in the following passage:

> Critical understanding of structure is . . . a condition for flexible application of principles, and the skills of reading and interpretation are, in turn, conditions for the acquisition of the skills of critical understanding. For the structures of the disciplines are made accessible through language; hence, the importance of skills which penetrate language to arrive at the purport which that language is intended to convey (p. 241).

Schwab highlighted here the mutual relationship between the discipline's structure and the discipline specific reading skills necessary to build disciplinary understandings. One of the implications of this is that disciplinary knowledge must be developed *along* with disciplinary literacy skills.

Wineburg's (1991) original expert/novice study about reading historical texts further illustrates the relationship between disciplinary understanding and discipline specific reading practices. Using a think-aloud protocol, he examined how historians from several specialty areas compared to advanced high school students in their ability to read and analyze historical documents and images related to the American Revolution. Wineburg found that the students rarely offered more than a surface level interpretation. He stated that, "For students, reading history was not a process of puzzling about authors' intentions or situating texts in a social world but of gathering information, with texts

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serving as bearers of information" (p. 76). In contrast, the historians, regardless of their specialty area, corroborated among sources, questioned the authors' intentions, and attempted to situate the documents in broader historical contexts. Wineburg argued that the historians' disciplinary ways of thinking influenced the ways they approached texts; although he did not refer to this as "disciplinary literacy," the historians in his study clearly had a deeper understanding of disciplinary literacy in history and more sophisticated disciplinary reading skills than the high school students did.

Building on this work, Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) investigated the reading process that historians, mathematicians, and chemists utilize. They found that each disciplinary expert approached the text in ways reflective of his/her discipline. For instance, the mathematician in their study described how he relied on re-reading and did not necessarily consider the text's author – which the historian considered key to the reading process in history – because it is careful and precise reading that matters most when interpreting mathematical texts. As is evident from these examples, disciplinary literacy is an integral aspect of gaining, utilizing, and applying disciplinary knowledge.

What do these conceptions of disciplines and disciplinary literacy mean for history teachers, who are the focus of this dissertation, and the reading instructional approaches they use with their students? Several studies in history education and content area literacy illustrate the interconnectedness of the discipline's structure and its related literacy skills (e.g., Bain, 2000, 2006; Hynd, Holschuh, & Hubbard, 2004; Pace, 2004; Pace & Middendorf, 2004; Wineburg 2001; Yeager & Davis, 1995). For example, agreeing with Schwab that disciplines differ in their ways of thinking and in the literacy skills required to develop disciplinary knowledge, a group of faculty members at Indiana

University worked together to create and implement an approach to teaching undergraduates, a model they called "Decoding the Disciplines" (Pace & Middendorf, 2004). Recognizing that many college students struggle to make sense of the different forms of reading and writing required in the variety of disciplinary courses they take across the university, these faculty members made a commitment to develop and share "strategies for introducing students to the culture of thinking" within their respective disciplines (p. 3).

Thus, addressing the challenges in learning specific content implies taking up the literacy challenges, which are often hidden from teachers, even teachers who have deep content knowledge. Consider, for example, historian David Pace discussing the challenges his students face when reading in his history courses:

> The instruction 'read' has such a radically different meaning in the context of courses in physics, accounting, English, or history that we probably do students a disservice by even using the same word. This is a particularly difficult problem in history, where students often face hundreds of pages of reading and where several different forms of reading may be required in the same course (Pace, 2004, p. 13).

Pace noted that the main challenge his students confronted in his courses was that they had not developed historical reading skills, but rather treated reading as a generic practice. Thus, he began to focus explicitly on what it means to read in history throughout his course, sharing with students what experts in the field do as they read; modeling his own reading process through think alouds; and, providing students with opportunities to practice these skills and to receive feedback about their progress. To critics who suggest that teaching discipline specific reading skills limits the amount of content he can teach, Pace responded, "If my students do not understand the basic language of history, my presentations are pointless . . . Absolutely nothing real has been

lost if the content that has been sacrificed was not being understood in the first place" (p. 20).

Similarly, Hynd, Holschuh, and Hubbard (2004) illustrate how a short-term unit of instruction can lead to epistemological shifts in college students' understanding of history as a discipline and in their ability to use discipline specific reading practices. In a course titled *Learning to Learn*, the instructors facilitated a unit geared toward expanding college students' understanding of history as a discipline and of its related reading approaches. Course instructors provided students with explicit instruction in how to source, corroborate, and contextualize texts in history. Pre and post-unit questionnaires and interviews explored the students' knowledge and beliefs about the work of historians, the nature of history, and what it means to read and analyze texts in history. Findings indicated that all students, regardless of disciplinary major, increased their understanding of history as a discipline and their use of discipline specific reading practices in history.

Bain's work (2006) also demonstrates how epistemological beliefs about history impact the types of reading and writing skills required to interpret and create texts within the discipline. When he was teaching ninth grade world history, Bain found that his students viewed history as static and factual and textbooks as depositories of "the facts." Because of this, students read to acquire information, not to seek answers to questions, as historians do. Because many history and social studies teachers rely primarily on the textbook, over time students begin to see history as just a recording of facts, which in turn does not necessitate the use of sophisticated or discipline specific literacy skills.

Recognizing the importance of the discipline's structure, Bain chose to challenge students' assumptions about history and to expand their literacy skills by making the

textbook one of many voices in his classroom. He described in detail how he structured a unit about the Bubonic Plague, which required students to analyze and interpret multiple sources of evidence before reading the textbook. For the culminating assessment, students wrote to the textbook editor about the shortcomings of its section on the Bubonic Plague. Bain's description of his teaching and student learning demonstrate the close linkage between a discipline's structure and the literacy skills and strategies associated with it.

It should be evident from this discussion the integral relationship between history and the disciplinary reading skills and practices needed to engage fully with the discipline. But history and disciplinary literacy are not the only factors influencing how the learner approaches and works with disciplinary texts. The interactive reading model highlights some additional factors.

Interactive Reading Model

Widely accepted in educational scholarship, the current interactive reading model (Snow, 2002) contends that reading is a multi-dimensional, complex interaction between the reader, the text, the activity, and the context (Figure 3). The reader brings not only reading skills to the text, but prior knowledge and conceptions related to the text's structure, features, and content. Also influencing how the reader engages with the text is the activity, or the methods and purposes of instruction. When readers find the instructional activity and purpose valuable and interesting, they are likely to engage more deeply with the text. A final dimension of this model is the context in which the activity occurs. This context includes the disciplinary area discussed in the text; contextual variables at the classroom level, such as norms for content reading; and, larger scale
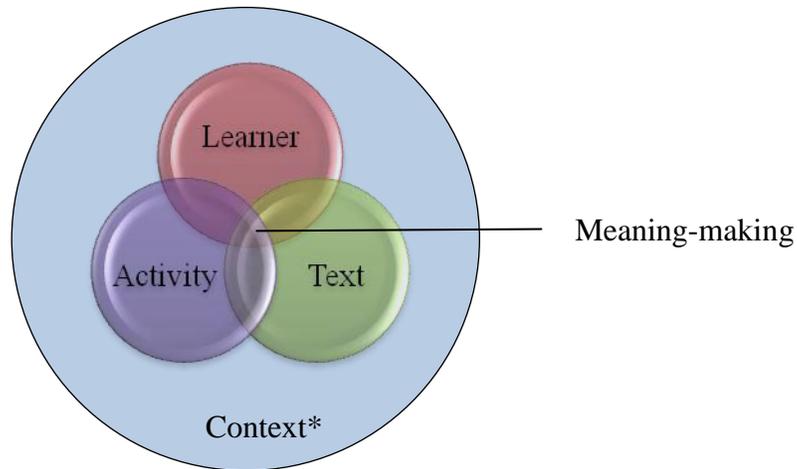
Figure 3: The Interactive Reading Model.

*Context references the broad environment in which meaning-making occurs, including but not limited to, the disciplinary context, classroom context, and socio-political context.

variables, such as the political, socio-cultural context in which the reader, text, and activity come together. For example, a reader in the 1960's confronted with a text about civil disobedience will likely have a different reading experience and construct a different meaning from the text than a reader in another political climate. Meaning-making happens at the intersection of the reader, the text, the activity, and the context.

This theoretical model of reading is relevant to my study for several reasons. First, this model does not view reading as a strictly mechanical process, as it gives explicit and significant acknowledgement to the influence of context on shaping meaning. As activity theory attends to the activity settings in which a person learns a practice, the interactive model of reading recognizes that multiple contextual factors shape how the reader engages with and constructs meaning from a text. Secondly, the teacher education program in which these PSTs participated promoted this model of reading and

encouraged PSTs to use it to inform their instructional planning. Thus, it is important

that I am mindful in my data analysis of how this model's features might appear in the

PSTs' commentary about disciplinary reading and instruction. Finally and perhaps most

significantly, this model of reading attends to many of the same factors I consider in my

study. During the data analysis process for this study, I was mindful of how the PSTs

conceived of the reader, the text, the activity, and the context and of how the PSTs

attended to these dimensions in the reading instructional approaches they used with their

students.   However, my primary focus is on the PSTs' conceptions of texts and the

contextual factors that influenced what the PSTs learned about disciplinary reading and

instruction in history.

Although the interactive reading model assists me in understanding the dynamic

factors that influence the process of reading, including attention to the learner, it does not

attend explicitly to the cognitive development of adult learners, who are the focus of this

dissertation. Thus, in what follows I explore the affordances that King and Kitchener's

(1994) reflective judgment model and Hollingsworth's (1989) model of knowledge and

belief change in prospective teachers offer my work.

Reflective Judgment Model: Cognitive Development in Adolescents and Adults

There are several theories of cognitive development related to this study's focus

on teacher learning, but the most relevant is King and Kitchener's (1994) reflective

judgment model.[7] This model concerns the "developmental progression in the ways that

people understand the process of knowing and in the corresponding ways that they justify

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[7] See Love & Guthrie (1999) for a review of several cognitive development models focused on college students.

their beliefs about ill-structured problems" (p. 13). This is a useful model for my study, because I examine both the PSTs' developing conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts – which reveal some of their epistemic assumptions – and the extent to which these conceptions influenced their instructional decisions – their professional judgments.

With regards to epistemology, my exploration of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts reveals some of their ideas about how knowledge is constructed and how one develops knowledge. For instance, PSTs with generic, content-neutral conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts viewed texts as warehouses of information; the reading instructional approaches they used focused on having students retrieve information from texts as opposed to questioning the author's perspective or the contextual factors influencing the texts' creation. Furthermore, this group of PSTs had a basic understanding of history as a discipline, emphasizing the importance of historical events and people instead of history's interpretive and contested nature. These examples suggest that these PSTs viewed knowledge as coming from authorities and not something that is co-created with active participation from students, texts, and the teacher. King and Kitchener might characterize these PSTs' development as pre-reflective (see pp. 42 – 43 for an extended discussion of the pre-reflective stage).

In terms of judgment, King and Kitchener refer specifically to "ill-structured problems" for which an outcome is not certain, requiring the learner to make a judgment about how best to proceed. With regards to this study, teaching presents PSTs with numerous problems to manage, one of the most daunting of which is instructional planning, as there is not a one-size-fits-all approach. In their TE program, PSTs learned to consider a variety of instructional approaches and practices, to weigh the advantages

and limitations of each, and to select the one(s) with the most potential for helping

students to reach the instructional goals.

The work of several education researchers highlights how making judgments is a

key component of teachers' work. Lampert and Ball (1999) explained:

> Teachers must know if something they are doing is working. They must know
> when to move on and when to spend more time on an idea. They must know what
> a student's comment means . . . Calling these judgments 'knowledge' highlights
> the sense in which teachers observe, interpret, reach conclusions, and act based on
> what they know in the situation. The knowledge is uncertain, provisional,
> evolving. . . . What they must know is much more than what they can know in
> advance; they must know in the context of practice (p. 38).

This knowing in the context of practice necessitates making judgments. Kennedy's

(1999) discussion about current reform efforts in teacher education also reflects the

importance of judgment in teaching: "the kind of teaching that reformers want requires

teachers to encourage students to develop their own ideas, and then to respond

intelligently to those ideas. This kind of teaching requires a lot of spontaneous

judgments" (p. 56). The critical role that making reasoned judgments plays in teaching

warrants my use of a model that focuses on a learner's developing sense of judgment.

The reflective judgment model has its foundation in Perry's (1968) earlier work

on how people's assumptions about knowledge change over their lifetimes. Perry was

the first to note that epistemological assumptions about knowledge make a difference in

college students' reasoning. Based on his analysis of a large set of survey and interview

data collected during each year of students' experiences in college during the 1950's and

early 1960's, Perry created a developmental scheme to characterize cognitive growth.   In

all, Perry defined nine positions, grouping them into three major categories: dualism,

multiplicity, and relativism.[8] He found that the vast majority of students in his study

entered college having already moved away from a simplistic dualism, acknowledging

that right and wrong are not clearly delineated and absolute truths are questionable.

Students in the stages of multiplicity recognized that there were often competing

arguments and approaches to "truth" and everyone was entitled to his own opinion.

Eventually, Perry found that most college students reached a level of relativism,

recognizing that "truth" depended on one's perspective and context.   Those students

reaching position nine, the highest level in Perry's scheme, developed a commitment to

relativism in which the student recognized his or her own epistemological understandings

and was open to considering the validity of other viewpoints.

King and Kitchener's reflective judgment model, although based in Perry's work,

differs in three distinct ways. First, King and Kitchener argued that there is

epistemological growth after relativism, a point raised by other scholars, as well (e.g.,

Broughton, 1978). Perry's scheme does not have a component equivalent to King and

Kitchener's final stages of reflective thinking, in which the learner sees knowledge as

uncertain and related to context and evidence. Second, as noted previously, King and

Kitchener based their model on the relationship between epistemology and judgment, not

epistemology and ethical development as is Perry's work. Third, the reflective judgment

model applies specifically to "ill-structured problems," an issue that Perry's model did

not address. King and Kitchener maintained that their model of adult learning is unique

because it acknowledges that "epistemic assumptions affect the way individuals resolve

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[8] For a detailed explanation of each stage, see Perry (1968), Chapters 5, "The Developmental Scheme."

ill-structured problems and that true reflective thinking occurs only when people are engaged in thinking about problems that involve real uncertainty" (p. 41).

Intrigued by Perry's work yet noting its shortcomings, King and Kitchener explored further both the intellectual growth and critical thinking of adolescents and adults. Over the course of fifteen years of research and study, King and Kitchener developed and refined their theory of reflective judgment. Based on longitudinal and extensive interviews with more than 1700 adolescents and adults, King and Kitchener sought to understand how people's epistemic beliefs develop and relate to the ways they made judgments about complex, ambiguous problems. To elicit this information, King and Kitchener created the reflective judgment interview, which contained four complex problems about a range of intellectual issues, such as, *How did the Egyptians build the pyramids?* (p. 100). After the trained interviewers read aloud the problem, they then asked a set of structured follow-up questions to elicit information about the interviewees' epistemological understandings and about how they justified their solutions to the given problem. Analysis of these interview transcripts led King and Kitchener to create a seven stage developmental framework to explain how reflective judgment develops over time.

They characterized the learner's growth along a continuum as: pre-reflective (stages 1-3), quasi-reflective (stages 4 & 5), and reflective (stages 6 & 7).[9] In describing these stages, King and Kitchener noted that the learner's view of knowledge and concept of justification are tightly connected, with growth in one area most often coinciding with development of the other. For instance, King and Kitchener characterized a student's understanding of knowledge in stage one as absolute and concrete; thus, it follows that

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[9] For a detailed explanation of each stage, see King and Kitchener (1994), Chapter 3, "The Seven Stages of Reflective Judgment."

beliefs need no justification since beliefs are in fact reflections of the "truth." In stage two students begin to recognize that knowledge can be obtained from authorities, not just direct observation. Consequently, justifications are related to direct observation or to information from authorities. By stage three, students acknowledge that temporary uncertainty about knowledge may exist until a more absolute knowledge is known from authorities. The learner links justification for uncertain knowledge to an individual's personal opinion.

In the quasi-reflective stages of development, the learner starts to view knowledge as "idiosyncratic to the individual" and also contextual (p. 14). Thus, the learner justifies his or her ideas by often using evidence that fits his or her beliefs or by concluding that the context dictates the value of the evidence. By the final stages of reflective thinking, King and Kitchener explained that the learner acknowledges that there are multiple sources of knowledge whose "truth" value resides in their effective use of evidence and in the fit to solving ill-structured problems. The learner ultimately comes to believe that knowledge is "reevaluated when relevant new evidence, perspectives, or tools become available" (p. 15). Beliefs then are justified by comparing multiple sources of evidence for their value and applicability to solving ill-structured problems. By these final stages, King and Kitchener argued that the learner's understanding of knowledge and concept of justification become inextricably linked, and the learner is both willing and able to critique his or her own beliefs using sound rationales and multiple forms of evidence.

Although I did not categorize the PSTs' conceptions and instructional ideas about disciplinary reading and texts according to the reflective judgment developmental stages, this model made me more mindful of: a) the ways in which the PSTs viewed knowledge

and how this influenced their conceptions of history and disciplinary reading; and, b) the ways in which the PSTs linked their disciplinary reading conceptions to their instructional decisions. Furthermore, the reflective judgment model aided my thinking about how to analyze and define the different levels of PSTs' cognitive development. For example, when distinguishing between the various levels of PSTs' understandings, I considered their epistemic assumptions underlying their conceptions about reading and texts. Despite the usefulness of the reflective judgment model in encouraging me to consider the PSTs' epistemological understandings, it focuses on general cognition as opposed to the more domain specific knowledge necessary for teaching. Thus, I turned next to cognitive development models focused on the process of learning to teach to see if there were additional factors and structures that I should consider in my research design and analysis.

Model of Knowledge and Belief Change: Prospective Teachers as Learners

There are numerous and varied development models of teacher learning, founded on different conceptions of knowledge and reflecting different knowledge bases for teaching (Richardson & Pacier, 2001).[10] Furthermore, these models have a variety of foci, ranging from the development of teacher expertise (e.g., Berliner, 1994) to professional identity (e.g., Knowles, 1992) to cognitive and moral development (e.g., Sprinthall, Reiman, & Thies-Sprinthall, 1996). However, few specifically address teachers' cognitive changes during the preservice years, which is the focus of this study.

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[10] There are multiple conceptions of teacher change described in the literature, including, "learning, development, socialization, growth, improvement, implementation, cognitive and affective change, and self-study" (Richardson & Pacier, 2001, p. 905). For this study, I use the terms *learning*, *development*, and *growth* interchangeably to describe the ways in which the PSTs' conceptions about teaching and learning changed over the course of their teacher training and during the first years of the focal PSTs' teaching.

The most relevant model in terms of its focus on PSTs is Hollingsworth's (1989) depiction of how PSTs' beliefs and understandings of literacy instruction changed throughout their teacher training. Hollingsworth's analysis of the PSTs' cognitive changes suggested a fairly fluid conception of stages, where movement between stages was not necessarily sequential and was heavily dependent upon context. Thus, Hollingsworth's model provides me with another perspective for making sense of changes in the PSTs' understanding of disciplinary reading.

In her study of 14 preservice elementary and secondary teachers, Hollingsworth investigated changes in these PSTs' knowledge and beliefs about reading instruction before, during, and after their teacher education training. She based her analysis of teacher development on three knowledge bases about which, she argued, there is general consensus in the teacher education literature: "a) subject matter – both content and subject-specific pedagogy; b) general pedagogy or management and instruction; and, c) the ecology of learning in classrooms" (p. 162). Hollingsworth described ecology of learning as the ability to "merge knowledge of human learning, subject, and pedagogy into specific academic tasks" that "facilitate student knowledge growth across varying subjects and classroom contexts" (p. 163). Hollingsworth considered this a difficult task, but one that is central to learning to teach. In terms of my study, all three of these knowledge bases are relevant, though my work attends mostly to Hollingsworth's first category, content and pedagogical content knowledge.

After analyzing data from the first year of her longitudinal study, Hollingsworth found that the PSTs followed a similar growth trajectory. These results suggested:

> That preprogram beliefs served as filters for processing program content and making sense of classroom contexts, that general managerial routines had to be in

place before subject specific content and pedagogy became a focus of attention, and that interrelated managerial and academic routines were needed before teachers could actively focus on students' learning from academic tasks in classrooms (p. 168).

Based upon her analysis, Hollingsworth proposed a dynamic model of teacher development that accounts for PSTs' prior beliefs and experiences while also attending to the contexts that may encourage or inhibit knowledge growth (Figure 4).
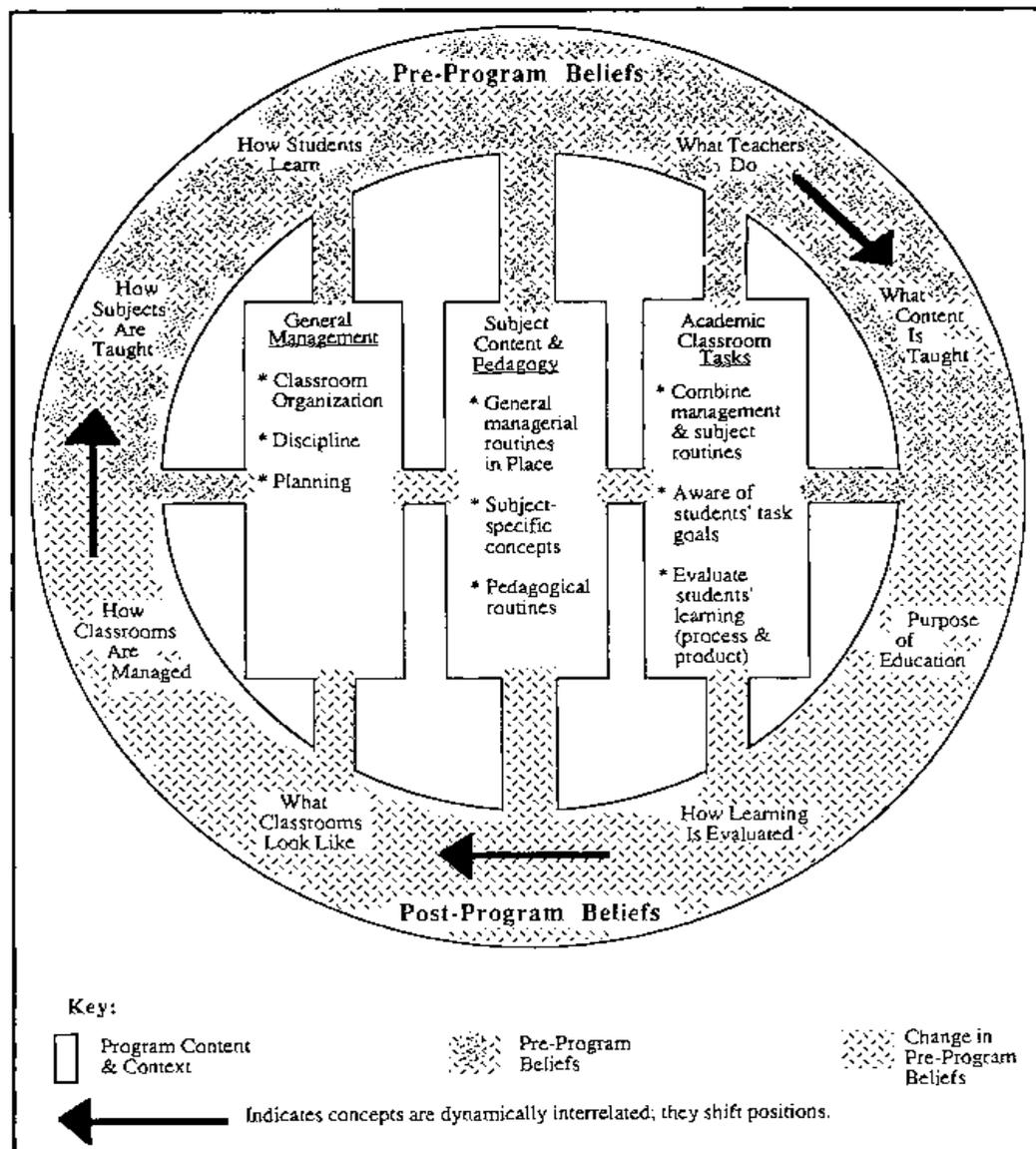
Figure 4: A Model of Learning to Teach (Hollingsworth, 1989, p. 169).

The outer ring of the figure illustrates how PSTs' preprogram beliefs about how students learn, how subjects are taught, what teachers do, and what content is taught serve as filters for making sense of the three knowledge areas in the circle's center: general management, subject content and pedagogy, and academic classroom tasks. The knowledge PSTs' gain about these areas through their TE coursework and field experiences helps to reshape the PSTs' beliefs. This in turn impacts the PSTs' views on how classrooms are managed, what classrooms look like, how learning is evaluated, and what they believe are the purposes of education. Hollingsworth recognized that each PST's knowledge growth will differ somewhat, based on the prior beliefs and experiences he or she brings to the program and the types of field experiences in which he or she is involved. Thus, Hollingsworth proposed a model of teacher learning that is fluid, iterative, and cognizant of context, instead of one with predetermined stages through which the PSTs advance more systematically.

Subsequent research on preservice teacher learning has not focused specifically on Hollingsworth's model. However, past and on-going research (e.g., Feiman-Nemser, 1983; Richardson, 1996; Richardson & Pacier, 2001) supports Hollingsworth's finding that preprogram beliefs have a significant influence on how PSTs make sense of their teacher education and field experiences.[11] In addition, other research supports Hollingsworth's finding that novice teachers move from teacher-centered concerns to those more focused on student learning as they gain more experience and confidence as teachers (e.g., Fuller, 1969; Berliner, 1994). Receiving less attention in ensuing TE research is Hollingsworth's finding that PST' prior beliefs about teaching and learning

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[11] See pages 74 – 86 of this chapter for a more in-depth discussion of the literature on prospective teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

changed with the support and guidance from their CTs and field supervisors.

I found Hollingsworth's model to be useful to me in several regards. First, this model focuses explicitly on preservice teachers, as opposed to the longitudinal career trajectory that the vast majority of other teacher development models portray. Second, the model's recognition of the multiple systems at play in teacher learning reflects activity theory's emphasis on the importance of the learning context. Finally and perhaps most significantly, Hollingsworth's model depicts learning to teach as an iterative process that does not necessarily proceed in pre-determined stages. I was mindful of this conception of learning throughout my analysis, being cautious not to force the PSTs' understandings to fit into an ever-advancing categorization scheme.

Literature Review

Although activity theory, research on disciplines and disciplinary literacy, the interactive reading model, the reflective judgment model, and the model of PST belief and knowledge growth provide me with a framework for what to consider as I explored my research questions, I also considered additional literature in teacher and history education, content area literacy,[12] and multicultural education.[13] Given my research

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[12] Researchers in content area literacy have traditionally used the phrase *content area literacy* although *disciplinary literacy* is becoming more common. When discussing a particular scholar's work, I use the phrasing he or she utilizes. Otherwise, I use *content area literacy* when discussing research in this area.

[13] *Multicultural education* is the term most commonly used in the literature to reference research that focuses on the education of minority, low-income, and/or English language learners; however, most of this literature focuses on minority students whose ethnic and cultural heritage is not European-American. An explicit focus on low-income students is rare in these studies, with many authors conflating minority with low-income status. ELLs are sometimes included in the category of *minority* or under the umbrella of *multicultural education*, but this is not consistent across studies. Therefore, when discussing a scholar's research, I use the term he or she uses. However, when I am discussing this group of students in general, I use the expression *underserved*, since writing "minority, low-income, and/or English language learners" is cumbersome and may lessen readability.

questions and the theoretical models described above, I found it vital to explore these research areas, as they offer me further insight into the process of learning to teach. Because "a teacher's knowledge and beliefs are both the *objects* or *targets* of change and important *influences* on change" (Borko & Putnam, 1996, p. 675), in the subsequent literature review I explore questions related to how prospective teachers' knowledge and beliefs develop and influence their instructional decisions. More specifically, I address: What is meant by content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), knowledge of context, and knowledge of learners? Why are these knowledge domains significant, and what do we know about how PSTs' develop an understanding of them? Furthermore, how do prospective teachers' beliefs, prior experiences and conceptions of the content, disciplinary reading, and students matter? What teacher education program components are promising for strengthening PSTs' knowledge and for working with, and countering when necessary, PSTs' beliefs about the content, literacy, and students?

This review grounds this study in ongoing conversations about teacher education and identifies areas where my study might add to our understanding of how to prepare prospective teachers to effectively use reading instructional approaches specific to history. I have organized the literature review into two main sections. First, I explore literature related to the knowledge base for teaching with an explicit focus on content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of context, and knowledge of learners. I provide examples from history, content area literacy, and multicultural education research to illustrate how these constructs matter for teaching and learning, and I explicate how my study extends this knowledge base. I argue that one of the missing elements in the knowledge base for teaching is a focus on disciplinary literacy and its

related instructional approaches. Furthermore, I note an absence of studies that examine how PSTs' knowledge of the teaching context influences their knowledge of learners and subsequently their instructional decisions with regards to disciplinary reading in history.

Second, I examine the extant research on prospective teachers' beliefs[14], seeking evidence of how these beliefs influence both PSTs' engagement in their teacher education and the instructional approaches they use with their students. I highlight general teacher education research as well as studies focused on history, content area literacy, and multicultural education. Although there is consensus in all of these research areas that PSTs' beliefs matter with regards to how they take up their teacher education, few studies look longitudinally at how PSTs' beliefs change[15] and fewer examine how PSTs' beliefs and knowledge interact to inform their instruction. My study begins to address these gaps.

Knowledge Base for Teaching

> The advocates of professional reform base their arguments on the belief that there exists a 'knowledge base for teaching' – a codified or codifiable aggregation of knowledge, skill, understanding, and technology, of ethics and disposition, of collective responsibility – as well as a means for representing and communicating it (Shulman, 1987, p. 4).

Since Shulman penned these words almost twenty-five years ago, a substantial amount of research and scholarship has moved us towards "codifying" the knowledge base for teaching (e.g., Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Murray, 1996; Reynolds,

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[14] I acknowledge, as Richardson (1996) did, that it is often difficult to separate knowledge from belief and the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature about prospective and practicing teachers. However, because the literature on teacher education is commonly divided by research focused on knowledge and research focused on beliefs, I organize this review similarly. I attempt to illustrate what each area adds to our understanding of the process of learning to teach. When there is overlap between these constructs, I note this.

[15] For exceptions, see for example: Hollingsworth, 1989; Martell, 2011.

1989). Much of this work has its roots in the Knowledge Growth in a Profession project

conducted by Shulman and his colleagues in the 1980's. Based on the project's

investigation of prospective teachers' learning, Shulman identified eight knowledge areas

necessary for teaching: 1) knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their

philosophical and historical grounds; 2) knowledge of contexts, ranging from the

workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to

the character of communities and cultures; 3) knowledge of learners and their

characteristics; 4) general pedagogical knowledge; 5) content knowledge; 6) curricular

knowledge; 7) pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987, p. 8). These knowledge

areas continue to be the foundation of the knowledge base for teaching.

    Although all of these knowledge areas are relevant in terms of the teacher

preparation program in which this study's PSTs participated, content and pedagogical

content knowledge are particularly important to my study as my research questions focus

on the conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts that the PSTs held (content) and on

the instructional practices they used with their secondary students (PCK). In addition,

knowledge of the school and community context and knowledge of learners also come to

the foreground in my study as the PSTs' knowledge of these areas seemed to have a

significant influence on the PSTs' instructional decisions. In what follows, I briefly

describe Shulman's contributions to each of these areas, and I draw upon additional

studies in teacher education, history education, and content area literacy to illustrate how

my study builds upon and extends this work.

    Content knowledge for teaching. Shulman (1986) considered content

knowledge to be the "missing paradigm" in teacher education, as much teacher research

and many teacher assessments at the time focused on other aspects of teacher's work, such as general pedagogies, classroom management strategies, and understanding children. According to Shulman, content knowledge is the foundational knowledge base for teaching, influencing how the teacher conceives of the purposes for teaching the content area, how she makes sense of students' perceptions and experiences with the content, as well as what instructional practices she uses with her students. Content knowledge is more than understanding the key ideas, facts, and concepts of the discipline; it also means understanding how the discipline is structured, its organizing principles, and the ways in which knowledge is created. This reflects the structure of the disciplines approach to knowledge that Bruner (1960, 1966), Hirst (1974), and Schwab (1978) advocated (see pp. 31 – 32 of this chapter for a discussion of their contributions).

In the following passage, Shulman (1986) described how the content knowledge necessary for teaching is more specialized and comprehensive than the general knowledge of a subject area that a lay person may hold:

> The teacher need not only understand that something is so; the teacher must further understand *why* it is so, on what grounds its warrant can be asserted, and under what circumstances our belief in its justification can be weakened and even denied. Moreover, we expect the teacher to understand why a given topic is particularly central to a discipline whereas another may be somewhat peripheral. This will be important in subsequent pedagogical judgments regarding relative curricular emphasis (p. 9).

Thus, teachers need to understand the *what* of the content area as well as the *why*, as this knowledge informs what they do instructionally with their students.

There is widespread agreement among scholars and policymakers that a solid and nuanced understanding of the discipline's structure or "ways of thinking" provides teachers with a foundation for making instructional decisions that should ultimately

improve student learning (e.g., Bain & Mirel, 2006; Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Lee, 2007; Shulman, 1986; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988). Several policies – such as the *No Child Left Behind Act*'s highly qualified teacher provisions – and numerous studies, such as Ravitch's (2000) analysis of the education backgrounds of U.S. history teachers, are based on the premise that teachers' content knowledge matters.

Several studies in history education (e.g., Seixas, 1998; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988) illustrate the relationship between PSTs' content knowledge and the instructional approaches they use with their secondary students. For example, Wilson and Wineburg (1988) found that the disciplinary backgrounds of the PSTs in their study influenced both their knowledge and conceptions of history *and* what they taught in their U.S. history classrooms. For instance, a PST with physical geography and anthropology undergraduate concentrations considered historical causation as linked to geography and human development, whereas a history major stated that historical events do not have singular causes. With regards to instruction, an illuminating case is how a political science major began each of the U.S. history courses he taught with a twenty minute discussion on current events; he coupled this with an emphasis on the political and economic aspects of history in his instruction. Similarly, in Seixas' (1998) study of PSTs' instructional decisions, he found that their understanding of history (or lack thereof) impacted the texts they selected to use with their students; their knowledge also impacted the depth and substance of the questions they asked their students about these texts. This had consequences for what the PSTs' students learned. Seixas concluded that more longitudinal work is needed to examine the types of knowledge and skills PSTs bring to their teacher education programs and how their disciplinary knowledge and

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teaching practices develop during student teaching and into the first years of teaching.

Although there is consensus that PSTs' content knowledge matters with regards to instruction, there are several aspects of the content knowledge literature that are underdeveloped and in some cases rarely addressed. First, there is limited research specifying what content knowledge is needed for prospective history educators (although colleges of education have course requirements and states have content knowledge assessments, which some might consider as proxies for content knowledge). Second, there has not been much acknowledgment in the content knowledge literature that an understanding of disciplinary literacy is an integral aspect of content knowledge. Third, few studies explicitly address PSTs' *knowledge* of disciplinary reading (although numerous studies attend to PSTs' *beliefs* about literacy and content area literacy). This dissertation study attempts to address these issues by: 1) highlighting some aspects of disciplinary reading in history that might be included in the content knowledge necessary for beginning history teachers; and, 2) examining the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history over time. In what follows, I explain in more detail these gaps in the literature, suggesting how this study might address them.

As I mentioned above, educational researchers continue to work on defining the specific areas of content knowledge PSTs in each discipline need to be effective, beginning teachers. The work that has been done in this area is primarily in mathematics (e.g., Adams, 1998; Ball, 1990; Hill et al., 2008; Wilson, 1994), although there is some work related to history and social studies (Harris, Johnson, & Stull, 2011; Lee, P., 2005; Moje & Speyer, 2008). For example, in describing how students perceive history, Lee (2005) argued that both substantive knowledge of historical and social scientific

concepts, such as trade and nation, as well as "second-order" knowledge of key

disciplinary concepts, such as evidence and causation, are necessary to develop a robust

understanding of history. Although Lee focused on students, the implication is that

teachers also need substantive and second-order knowledge of history. Another recent

example is Harris, Johnson, and Stull's (2011) examination of the types of content

knowledge needed to lead a rich, inquiry-based discussion on an historical image. In

addition to an understanding of the historical context, they found that the elementary

PSTs who had sourcing knowledge about the image, knowledge of the image features,

knowledge of the curriculum, and knowledge of their students' content understandings

were more successful in eliciting and facilitating a content-rich discussion about the

historical image.

Furthering our understanding of the content knowledge needed for history

instruction is Moje and Speyer's (2008) study about the types of knowledge necessary for

reading, interpreting, and responding to a text in one U.S. history class. In an eleventh

grade unit on U.S. immigration, Moje and Speyer used a short excerpt from the

Emergency Quota Act of 1921. Their analysis of this text, which is less than 100 words,

indicated that semantic, mathematical, historical, geographical, discursive, and pragmatic

knowledge were all necessary for fully comprehending the passage (p. 188). Although

instructive, these studies are too few and limited to fully outline the content knowledge

needed for history education. I attempt to add to this knowledge base with this

dissertation study.

An area rarely addressed in the content knowledge literature is the importance of

disciplinary literacy knowledge. Like Moje, Bain, and others, I contend that disciplinary

literacy is an essential component of content knowledge, as understanding how knowledge is constructed, interrogated, and created in a discipline influences how a person views and approaches texts within it. Several studies in history education, originating with Wineburg's (1991) initial expert/novice study, highlight the relationship between disciplinary understandings and reading practices (e.g., Wineburg, 2001; Yeager & Davis, 1995). For instance, in Wineburg's (2001) examination of how PSTs with different disciplinary majors analyze historical documents, he found that having an academic major in history was not enough to ensure that a prospective teacher had developed historical reading skills. In fact, one of the PSTs with a physics major, Ellen, utilized more historical literacy strategies and considered the historical context more frequently than did Ted, a history major, whose discussion of the texts corresponded directly to the words and language used within each text. Wineburg concluded that there is "no clear-cut relationship between undergraduate major and the ability to create a historical context" (p. 109). Yeager and Davis (1995) reached a similar conclusion in their replication of Wineburg's original expert/novice study. Furthermore, they found that none of the history and social science PSTs in their study had explicit instruction in their academic major coursework on how to read and analyze historical texts.

Both of these studies highlight an on-going challenge in teacher education – how to ensure that prospective teachers gain the content knowledge, including discipline specific reading skills, necessary for teaching. University teacher education programs commonly require prospective teachers to take a specific number of courses in their

certification subject area.[16] Most also require a content area literacy course (with many

of these addressing literacy writ large across multiple disciplines and subject areas as

opposed to an explicit and extended focus on literacy within the PSTs' certification

subject area) (Lenski, Grisham, & Wold, 2006). It is assumed and hoped that these

courses offer prospective teachers the content knowledge they need for teaching. But as

Wineburg, Yeager, and Davis illustrated, we cannot assume that coursework or an

academic major equates to deep content knowledge and skill in using history specific

reading approaches let alone in translating this knowledge and skill to one's work with

secondary students. Substantiating this are meta-analyses of the effects of disciplinary

coursework on PSTs' instructional decisions and teacher effectiveness, which indicate

mixed results in part because most studies used the *quantity* – not *quality* – of

disciplinary courses as a proxy for knowledge (Floden & Meniketti, 2006; Wilson,

Floden, & Mundy, 2001). Heeding the message from this research, I examined more than

the PSTs' academic majors and minors in this study, seeking evidence of their

understandings of disciplinary literacy in their interview and assessment responses.

    Unlike the numerous assessments created to measure prospective teachers'

content knowledge, such as the Praxis exam required for teaching certification in many

states, there is nothing comparable at a state or national level to measure PSTs'

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[16] The majority of courses related to a PST's academic major are taught by instructors housed in the college of arts and science, and there is rarely a focus on pedagogical considerations for those seeking to teach at the K-12 level (Levine, 2006; Mirel, 2011). Researchers, such as Bain and Mirel (2006), suggest that this might be problematic for PSTs, who must translate the knowledge they gain in their academic coursework to the knowledge they need for teaching. To assist PSTs in making these connections, Bain and Mirel advocate for building closer partnerships between history and education departments and for team teaching core academic and methods courses.

knowledge of disciplinary or content area literacy.[17] Furthermore, few studies

specifically examine PSTs' knowledge of disciplinary literacy, although recent work by

Rackley and Birdyshaw (2011) is an exception. They explored PSTs' conceptions of

disciplinary texts in three content areas, examining their understandings across two of

their three semesters in a TE program. They found that the social studies PSTs in their

study considered textbooks to be more "considerate" or user-friendly than primary

sources, though the former lacked rich historical knowledge and was less likely to engage

the reader.

The vast majority of other studies that look at PSTs' knowledge of content area

literacy focus on the extent to which a content area literacy course influenced the PSTs'

understandings (Bean & Zulich, 1990; Freedman & Carver, 2007; Linek et al., 1999;

O'Brien & Stewart, 1990). These studies revealed that the PSTs' understandings of

literacy and its relationship to the disciplines they planned to teach grew over the duration

of the course. However, none of these studies examined the PSTs' knowledge of content

area literacy across their time in their teacher education program[18] nor did they explore

the extent to which the PSTs' understandings influenced the instructional approaches

they used with their students. I take up both of these issues in this dissertation.

The research I have reviewed in this section is based on the premise that teachers'

content knowledge matters because it influences their instructional decisions. But what is

known about the relationship between content knowledge and pedagogy? What do we

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[17] I argue that any measure of content knowledge should include disciplinary literacy, but this is rarely the
case in state and national assessments. A local exception is the teacher education assessment created as
part of the Advancing Literacy Project, University of Michigan (see Appendix D).

[18] Exceptions include: Hollingsworth's (1989) study, though she focuses more on beliefs than knowledge;
and, Rackley & Birdyshaw's (2011) examination of PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary text across three
disciplines, tracking PSTs' understandings across two of their three semesters in a TE program.

know about how history teachers use their knowledge of the discipline to inform their instructional decisions? And how do we effectively teach prospective teachers to translate their content knowledge into instructional practices that are effective at developing middle and high school students' understandings of the content and at strengthening their discipline specific reading skills?

Pedagogical content knowledge. Based in Dewey's attempts to bring commonly viewed dichotomous concepts together (e.g., *The Child and the Curriculum*, 1902; *Experience and Education*, 1938), Shulman bridged the divide between content and pedagogy with the concept of PCK – an understanding of how to structure, modify, and represent content for instructional purposes. According to Shulman, to engage in this type of instructional practice means that teachers need to understand the ideas and preconceptions that students may hold about the topic under investigation, as well as the range of instructional strategies and practices that acknowledge the learners' current understandings and are appropriate for the content area.

As cognitive research reveals (e.g., Altmann, 2002; Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Gardner, 1983), individuals approach new situations with a:

> Range of prior knowledge, skills, beliefs, and concepts that significantly influence what they notice about the environment and how they organize and interpret it. This, in turn, affects their abilities to remember, reason, solve problems, and acquire new knowledge (Bransford et al., 2000, p. 10).

Thus, if students' previous understandings are accurate, calling forth this knowledge will assist them in relating the new knowledge to what is already understood, which increases learning. However, if students' previous understandings are inaccurate or naive, it is necessary to provide experiences that challenge these ideas in ways that lead them to modify their prior understandings. Working with students' preconceptions in this way is

one aspect of PCK.

Utilizing her understanding of her students' prior knowledge and experiences with the content, the teacher then must select strategies that assist the students in developing their own content knowledge. This involves knowledge of general strategies, such as how (when and why) to organize students for small group work, as well as an understanding of content specific strategies, in this case related to history. This is no easy task. As Shulman explained, it involves knowing how to use "the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations" of key content ideas to foster student learning (p. 9). In deciding on what content specific instructional strategies to use, the teacher's content knowledge is clearly important, as is her knowledge of these students' prior experiences and understandings of the content. The synthesis of these knowledge domains results in PCK.

Grossman (1989), one of Shulman's former students, expanded upon his notion of PCK, describing four central components of it. She defined these as: 1) conceptions about the purposes for teaching a subject area; 2) knowledge of curriculum and related materials in a subject; 3) knowledge of students' preconceptions and experiences with the content; and 4) knowledge of instructional practices, strategies, and representations for teaching particular topics within the content area (p. 25). Shulman's original knowledge domains for teaching contain all of these areas, though in more generalized terms. Grossman linked these knowledge areas specifically to PCK.

In terms of her first category, Grossman considered the prospective teacher's purpose for why it is important to teach a subject as foundational to a teacher's approach to instruction. She explained what this might mean for an English teacher:

Beliefs about the goals for teaching a subject function as an organizing framework, or conceptual map, for instructional decision-making, serving as the basis for judgments about textbooks and curriculum materials, classroom objectives, appropriate assignments, and evaluations of student learning. Teachers' subject-specific goals for students and their beliefs about the central purposes for studying English [or other content areas], as well as their knowledge and beliefs about the nature of English as a secondary-school subject, compose their overarching conceptions of what it means to teach English (p. 26).

In her study of six first-year English teachers, Grossman (1989) found that although they held similar conceptions about English as a discipline, they had differing ideas about English as a school subject, resulting in the teachers utilizing different instructional practices.

Grossman's second component of PCK is curricular knowledge, an understanding of the variety of materials available for teaching a subject area and how the topics of a subject are organized for instruction. With regards to the six novice teachers in her study, Grossman learned that they linked their ideas about the curriculum, as well as their curricular choices, with their conceptions about the purposes of teaching the content area as well as their understanding of their students' interests and knowledge of the content. In terms of my study, although I did not examine the PSTs' conceptions of the history curriculum in general, I attended to the PSTs' conceptions of the role texts play in the curriculum.

The third component of PCK that Grossman described is knowledge of students' content specific understandings. She explained that this aspect of PCK does not focus on what students generally know or how they learn in general, but instead on what they know about a *specific* subject area and topic and the affordances and challenges of learning about that topic. Several of the novice teachers in Grossman's study struggled to find ways to elicit their students' ideas about the topic under study, and when they did

have this information, they were unsure of how to use it to inform their practice.[19]

Grossman's final category of PCK is knowledge related to instructional practices and strategies that are subject specific. As Borko and Putnam (1996) explain, this category is the most reflective of Shulman's original conceptualization and is perhaps the most studied aspect of PCK (p. 677). This is also the most relevant to my study, as I specifically explore the reading instructional approaches the PSTs used with their students and the degree to which these were history specific. In this way, I extend Grossman's conception of subject specific instructional practices to include *discipline specific reading* instructional approaches. Of the research in history education and content area literacy which describes or illustrates the PCK necessary for history educators, few attend explicitly to discipline specific reading instructional approaches[20] and none explore how PSTs' pedagogical content knowledge in this area develops across their teacher education.[21] With this study, I seek to add to this knowledge base.

PCK for secondary history teachers. After Gudmundsdottir and Shulman's (1987) initial illustration of the PCK needed for social studies, most subsequent work has focused on particular content areas in history and the social sciences (e.g., Harris (2008) and Harris & Bain's (2011) work in world history; Shreiner's (2009) work in civics) or on examining the interplay between content knowledge, PCK, and the instructional approaches PSTs utilize with their students (e.g., Martell, 2011; Monte-Sano, 2011;

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[19] For examples of studies related to students' historical understandings, see Ashby, Lee, and Shemilt (2000), Barton (1997), and VanSledright (2002).

[20] Exceptions are Bain (2000, 2005), Moje & Speyer (2008), and Schwab (1978).

[21] Although focused on English instruction, Grossman, Valencia, Evans, Thompson, Martin, & Place (2000) did examine changes in PSTs' and novice teachers' PCK over their final teacher education year and into their first years of teaching.

Monte-Sano & Cochran, 2009). Of the literature related to PCK in history, Bain and

Mirel (2006) provide perhaps the clearest and most comprehensive argument about the

knowledge and skills history PSTs need in order to be effective beginning educators.

Acknowledging both content knowledge and PCK, they argued that "prospective history

teachers must have a robust understanding of history's details, ways in which historians

acquire and structure those details, and how teachers can make the subject accessible and

worth knowing for students" (p. 1). Bain and Mirel contended that having a strong

understanding of history's structure does not necessarily translate into effective

instruction for middle and high school students. Echoing Lampert and Ball (1999), Bain

and Mirel argued that prospective teachers need to understand content *in* the context of

teaching.

This involves several knowledge bases and skills sets. Acknowledging the work

of Shulman (1986), Grossman (1989), and their colleagues, Bain and Mirel asserted that

knowing how to successfully elicit, assess, and work with students' prior experiences and

ideas about history is essential. Second, as a way to meaningfully engage students in the

content, PSTs should understand how to "restructure standards and texts with regard to

the fundamental problems and enduring questions" of history (p. 4). Finally, PSTs

should know how to utilize various forms of evidence or texts, recognizing the potential

challenges in them and how to support students as they work with these documents. To

assist PSTs in gaining these understandings and skills, Bain and Mirel advocated that

PSTs have access to teachers who have successfully met the above challenges.

Furthermore, they suggested that content and methods courses should be taught together,

in contrast to the common practice in most undergraduate programs where PSTs take

history in the college of arts and sciences and history methods in the college of education.[22]

What might it look like in a classroom context when a history teacher has well-developed content and pedagogical content knowledge? Schwab (1978) offers one of the earlier illustrations of this. He explained:

> [The structure of the disciplines] would be represented by examples of the uncertainties, the differences of interpretation, and the uses of principle which characterize the disciplines. Narratives of enquiry would end in doubt or in alternative views of what the evidence shows. Two or more historical works displaying wide differences in the interpretation of important periods, men, and events would replace – in part – the single, indoctrinal history (p. 270).

Here Schwab called for creating units of instruction around historical questions that lead students to explore, puzzle, and debate more than one form of evidence, a point that Bain and Mirel advocated. In such a classroom the textbook is not the sole voice or authority; multiple texts as well as students' ideas take a prominent position as students seek explanations to historical questions.

Schwab continued with this history example, arguing that the following approach might be used with "some upper fraction of the student population:"[23]

> Now original, first-order materials would begin to displace the narrative of enquiry . . . units of such material would present the student with memorials and documents of a place and time. Some such units would invite the student's own interpretation, a writing of his own history, of this time and place. Other, similar units of historical raw materials would accompany an historian's interpretation of

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[22] For an example of such efforts, see McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000.

[23] I take issue with Schwab's suggestion that this approach is only appropriate for upper level, advanced students. VanSledright's (2002) work on elementary students' historical inquiry and disciplinary reading skills and Ashby, Lee, and Shemilt's (2000) work on young students' historical understanding show that students as young as fourth grade can interpret historical texts in a sophisticated way when teachers provide support through modeling and scaffolding. It is beyond the scope of my study to provide a more extended argument as to why Schwab may be underestimating students' capabilities for participating in this type of history instruction; however, I want to acknowledge that other research does not support this aspect of Schwab's claim.

times, places, or events and challenge the student to trace the selections of data and the particular bent of interpretation put on them by the historian (p. 270).

Here Schwab explained that the students would use different forms of historical evidence, not just narratives; the implication being that these other text forms will necessitate more sophisticated interpretation skills than those required of narratives. Students would also analyze historians' arguments and produce texts, such as their own interpretation of the historical data. In this sense, students engage in some of the practices of a historian, evaluating the merits of the accessible and relevant evidence and then creating a conjecture based on this analysis. The type of instruction that Schwab described here calls for sophisticated content and pedagogical content knowledge.

What Schwab did not acknowledge is the importance of understanding students' prior conceptions and experiences with the content. Bain's (2000, 2005) work addresses this aspect of PCK and further illustrates what it means for classroom instruction when teachers actualize a strong understanding of PCK that includes discipline specific reading instructional approaches. For instance, with his ninth grade world history students, Bain (2000) began the year with an exploration of students' beliefs about history itself, an approach that Grossman (1989) acknowledged in her explication of PCK and that cognitive research supports (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). In general, Bain's students viewed history as "static" and "formulaic," which helped him build the case for an opening unit on the nature of history as a discipline (p. 337). Bain recognized the multiple challenges this instructional focus might present to students unaccustomed to questioning texts, so he used discipline specific strategies and tools to assist students in developing their historical literacy skills. For example, he had students summarize key aspects of historical thinking, such as criteria for determining significance, by creating

charts to be displayed within the classroom and used as references in their daily work with texts. He also included daily informal journal writing to help students think through historical questions. Furthermore, recognizing that history requires specific reading instructional practices, Bain taught his students to utilize the reading and discussion roles of sourcing, corroborating, and contextualizing.

The work of Schwab and Bain offer us portraits of what instruction might look like when teachers have a robust knowledge of history and its related instructional approaches. But how do prospective teachers develop this knowledge, particularly as it relates to disciplinary reading in history? And what factors seem to support or hinder PSTs' development of PCK? There is limited research addressing these questions, but the work of Martell (2011) and Monte-Sano and Cochran (2011) indicates several factors that seem to influence to what extent PSTs incorporate historical inquiry practices into their teaching. For instance, Martell (2011) found that PSTs seemed to understand conceptual tools, such as the importance of considering the context for a historical reading, but they did not have the practical tools to teach students how to engage in this practice. Thus, Martell called for increased attention in TE programs to the practical tools associated with teaching students discipline specific reading approaches. In addition, Monte-Sano and Cochran's (2009) in depth analysis of two PSTs in history showed that these PSTs entered the TE program with particular strengths, with one having strong disciplinary knowledge and the other a strong understanding of students. Although both PSTs' knowledge of the content and of students grew across their time in the TE program, the instructional approaches the PSTs used with regards to disciplinary reading reflected their original strengths. Monte-Sano and Cochran concluded that one

way to develop PSTs' knowledge of the content *and* of learners is to have a more concentrated focus on students' learning and thinking across the TE program.

As with the literature related to the content knowledge needed for history teaching, these studies are informative but only begin to describe how PSTs develop pedagogical content knowledge related to disciplinary reading in history. My study adds to this knowledge base by examining the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading across their time in the TE program, the factors influencing changes in their conceptions, and the types of instructional approaches the PSTs used with their students.

In addition to content knowledge and PCK, two other knowledge areas that Shulman identified have relevance to this study: 1) knowledge of context, particularly of school and communities; and, 2) knowledge of learners and their characteristics, which Monte-Sano and Cochran (2009) found to be particularly significant in their study.

Knowledge of context and of learners. In contrast to content knowledge and PCK, knowledge of context and of learners has been less in the research limelight, although there is consensus in the literature that these are significant knowledge domains (e.g., Ball & Cohen, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Reynolds, 1989). For example, in the most recent compilation of the knowledge base for teaching, *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World* (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005), knowledge of context is interwoven into the conceptual framework for understanding teaching and learning and knowledge of learners comprises one of the three main components of the framework (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p. 10 for a more detailed description of the conceptual framework). Furthermore, the importance of these knowledge areas to teaching is also evident in teacher education programs and some state certification

departments who require PSTs to take courses in social foundations or multicultural

education and in educational psychology (Neumann, 2010).[24]

What is of particular interest to me in this study is not the *separate* knowledge

domains related to the teaching context and to learners, but in the intersection of these

areas. Specifically, what do PSTs know and believe about underserved students and the

school and community context in which students are educated? To what extent to do

these knowledge and beliefs influence what PSTs do instructionally when working with

underserved students?

There is an acknowledgment by education scholars that PSTs need both general

knowledge about learners and how they develop as well as more specific knowledge

about how students' culture, race, ethnicity, language, gender, and economic status can

influence students' schooling experiences (e.g., Ball & Cohen, 1999; Banks, 2006;

Cochran-Smith, 2000; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2000; Nieto, 2002; Villegas &

Lucas, 2002). For instance, in Darling-Hammond and Bransford's (2005) synthesis of

the research on what teachers should know and be able to do, they devote an entire

chapter to research on "teaching diverse learners" (they also include students with

exceptionalities under this heading, where I do not). The work Darling-Hammond and

Bransford review highlights some of the challenges of teaching underserved students; the

need for teachers to understand the experiences of students whose backgrounds differ

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[24] Social foundations or multicultural education courses typically examine the historical, socio-political, and economic teaching context, with a focus on how these factors influence teaching and learning. In addition, there is sometimes an exploration of how these contextual factors influence minority, low-income, and English language learners (Neumann, 2010). Courses in educational psychology explore issues surrounding students' development and may also highlight issues that students from diverse backgrounds encounter in schools. Additional coursework that focuses on learners' exceptionalities and English language learners is becoming more common, as well. Despite the prevalence of these courses across teacher education programs, there is far less agreement on what these courses, particularly social foundation and multicultural education courses, should entail and on the influence of these courses on PSTs' instruction (Neumann, 2010).

from their own; and, the concept of culturally responsive teaching that takes students' demographic backgrounds into account and positions students as knowledgeable resources in the classroom. Despite a plethora of work calling for PSTs to be knowledgeable about underserved students, there is not much empirical evidence indicating the specifics of what PSTs should know, how PSTs develop their knowledge about underserved students, and how this knowledge influences their instruction (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Sleeter, 2001). In my study, I address some of the factors influencing PSTs' developing ideas about underserved students, and I explore how these ideas ultimately influenced the instructional approaches they used in their classrooms.

Another aspect of the literature related to knowledge of underserved students has to do with the effectiveness of teacher education *approaches* for developing PSTs' knowledge in this area. For example, well-structured urban field experiences and cross-cultural immersion experiences, in which PSTs have adequate support, show the most promise in developing PSTs' awareness and understanding of cultural differences (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Hollins and Guzman, 2005; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997; Sleeter, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Well-structured field experiences are those in which there is a deliberate attempt to match PSTs with cooperating teachers who are knowledgeable and effective educators of minority students (Darling-Hammond, 2001). According to Zeichner and colleagues (1998), providing guidance and support to both the PST and cooperating teacher is essential for ensuring that the experience is fruitful and positive for both parties. If not well planned and supported, the field experience may reinforce, instead of disrupt, the PSTs' potential misconceptions about minority students (Darling-Hammond, 2001).

The empirical evidence also suggests that stand-alone courses or one-time field experiences do not provide PSTs with the types of knowledge and experience they need to fully develop their capacity as teachers of minority students (Nieto, 2002; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Gay & Howard, 2000). As Hollins and Guzman (2005) explained, individual courses may provide some short-term gains in PSTs' knowledge and commitment towards working with minority students, but there is little evidence to suggest that PSTs sustain these gains throughout the program or reflect this in their teaching practices. Sleeter's (2001) meta-analysis of 80 studies, which examined various strategies teacher education programs use, supports this claim; furthermore, she noted a glaring absence of research investigating how PSTs' preparation impacts subsequent teaching. Hollins and Guzman (2005) noted that although many teacher education programs employ some approaches related to preparing teachers to work successfully with minority youth, few have carefully crafted *programs*. Exceptions include the comprehensive approach that the University of Alaska-Fairbanks, Indiana University's American Indian Cultural Immersion Project, and Alverno College take towards this work (Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997).

The empirical evidence about other TE program features is extremely sparse, although there is some consensus among multicultural education scholars about other program design components.[25] One of these is the importance of identity work (Banks, 2006; Cochran-Smith, 2004; Nieto, 2002; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Gay & Howard, 2000; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997). Zeichner and colleagues (1998), Banks (2006), and others contend that PSTs need to understand that everyone is a cultural being who belongs to

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[25] For an extended examination of the teacher education design features supported by many multicultural education scholars, see Zeichner et al., 1998, "A research informed vision of good practice in multicultural education: Design principles."

multiple communities. The way in which we view ourselves and the world around us is related to our cultural identity. To more fully appreciate the perspectives, worldviews, and identities of students, these scholars contend that PSTs need to understand their own identities, values, and biases. Autobiography work, life histories of others, and cultural immersion experiences can help to foster this self-knowledge. According to these scholars, once PSTs have this foundation, learning about how cultural identity impacts learning and thus teaching can be more fruitful.

A second program design component that numerous multicultural education scholars support is the necessity of helping PSTs translate knowledge about minority students and how best to work with them into effective teaching practices (Ball, 2006; Gay & Howard, 2000; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997). Zeichner and colleagues (1998) argued that PSTs rarely use instructional strategies and assessment procedures that are sensitive to cultural and linguistic variations, despite articulating the importance of doing so. Furthermore, other research suggests that PSTs struggle to adapt classroom instruction and assessment to accommodate the cultural resources that their students bring to school (Ladson-Billings, 2000; Nieto, 2002). Explicit instruction that illustrates how to engage in such warranted practice is necessary if PSTs are to translate their developing understandings into effective instructional practices. Three of the four model programs mentioned above incorporate such explicit instruction into their programs (Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997). In my study I examine some of the TE program features that might have supported or impeded PSTs as they strengthened their knowledge of underserved students.

Moje and Speyer's (2008) description of an instructional unit they planned and

facilitated with their eleventh grade, predominantly Latino/a students offers us a teaching

exemplar of what instruction might look like when teachers utilize strong knowledge of

underserved students, of content (disciplinary reading in history), and of PCK (discipline

specific reading instructional approaches). Acknowledging the role that motivation and

student interest plays in learning, Moje and Speyer purposely began a U.S. history unit on

immigration by posing questions relevant to the current immigration policy debates

frequently in the news and relevant to the school's community. The work of numerous

scholars in multicultural education such as Ladson-Billings (1994; 2000), Delpit (1995),

and Nieto (2002) supports eliciting and building on students' cultural knowledge in this

way. By tapping into the students' funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, &

Gonzalez, 1992), Moje and Speyer purposefully positioned students as knowledgeable, as

they sought to elicit students' prior knowledge and build on their interest in the topic.

Once they had engaged the students through this discussion, Moje and Speyer had

students examine a variety of texts to address a historically significant question – how

have U.S. immigration policies developed over time? More specifically, how did the

U.S. respond to immigration issues in the early twentieth century? Furthermore, Moje

and Speyer purposefully used texts that presented conflicting data as they wanted

students to confront their intense beliefs about immigration and to use evidence to refine

their positions. Noting the challenges and possibilities created through this approach,

they stated:

> How can teachers draw from and expand on young people's passion and
> conviction while also teaching the dispassionate stances often valued in the social
> and natural sciences? Modeling how to challenge one's passionate beliefs by
> confronting conflicting data could be one of the most useful content literacy
> teaching practices teachers enact in high school classrooms (p. 201).

The work of Schwab (1978), Bain (2000, 2005), and other history education researchers promotes the use of historical and intellectual questions and of using multiple and opposing texts.

As students worked with different texts formats, ranging from excerpts from federal policies to charts and graphs depicting immigration data, Moje and Speyer offered students scaffolded support. This ranged from whole group think alouds about significant concepts in the texts, to class discussions of key content terms, to explicit instruction in reading charts and graphs (p. 202 – 206). Work in content area and disciplinary literacy (e.g., Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Buehl, 2002; Conley, 2008) calls for the use of scaffolded supports like these.

This is a strong illustration of what it means to bring robust knowledge of content, of discipline specific pedagogies, and of underserved students to bare on the planning and facilitation of instruction. Yet Moje and Speyer, like all teachers, did not rely on their knowledge alone, as their *beliefs* about history, disciplinary literacy, the role of teachers and students, and numerous other factors influenced what they did instructionally. This begs the question: how do teachers' beliefs influence their teaching practices and what is the relationship between knowledge, beliefs, and action? Although Shulman and Grossman discussed the importance of the beliefs prospective teachers hold about their content area, the larger literature base on teacher beliefs provides additional insights into the importance and challenges of working with preservice teachers' prior beliefs and experiences. In reviewing this literature, I show how my work extends our understanding of the relationship between teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and instruction.

Role of Preservice Teachers' Beliefs in Learning to Teach

> The cultural beliefs about the nature of knowledge, how teaching should occur, and how children should learn are so widespread and deeply rooted that they steer the thinking of policymakers, practioners, parents, and citizens toward certain forms of instruction (Cuban, 1993, p. 14).

As Cuban alluded to here, prospective teachers hold numerous beliefs about teaching and learning that influence their instructional ideas and decisions. There is a vast literature related to the beliefs about teaching and learning that PSTs bring with them to their teacher education programs (e.g., Cuban, 1993; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hollingsworth, 1989; Lortie, 1975; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998).[26] Because PSTs spend many years as students observing the ways in which their own teachers operate, they enter teacher education programs with beliefs about teaching and learning that have developed and strengthened over time (Lortie, 1975). It is well-accepted that these beliefs influence how PSTs engage with their teacher education (Olson, 1993; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Richardson & Pacier, 2001).

With regards to history education, there is consensus that PSTs' views about history as a discipline and about what it means to be a history teacher influence their ideas about history instruction (e.g., Adler, 1982; Angell, 1988; Chiodo & Brown, 2007; Doppen, 2007; Virta, 2002). Some of this research indicates that courses in history and in history methods that focus on historical inquiry positively influence PSTs' instructional ideas (Fragnoli, 2005; Mayer, 2003). However, there is less research on

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[26] See Richardson (2004) for a thorough review of the teacher beliefs literature.

I acknowledge that teacher beliefs is a "messy construct" (Pajares, 1992), and I use Richardson's (1996) distinction between belief and knowledge by relying "on the standard 'truth condition' found in the philosophical literature: beliefs, as propositions, do not have to satisfy a truth condition, but knowledge claims do" (p. 885). Nonetheless, Richardson's review of the teacher belief literature reveals that not all researchers follow this definition, as studies on teacher knowledge are often about beliefs. I have attempted to limit my review here to literature that speaks most directly to beliefs instead of knowledge.

how these beliefs become actualized in classrooms, with some studies suggesting that even when PSTs believe in an historical inquiry approach to instruction, they do not always use these instructional ideas in student teaching (vanHover & Yeager, 2002; Wilson, Konopak, & Readance, 1994). For example, in Wilson, Konopak, and Readance's (1994) focused study of one secondary social studies PST, they found that the beliefs he espoused before student teaching did not reflect the instructional approaches he used with his students. For instance, before student teaching, the PST explained that he saw the textbook as one source among many; however, he increasingly relied on it overtime in his teaching as the sole text.

Often complicating PSTs' beliefs about history instruction are their beliefs about literacy and its relationship to history. Too often PSTs' perceive their content area and literacy as separate domains, not recognizing how unique literacy skills and strategies are embedded within each discipline (Moje, 1996; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990). O'Brien, Stewart, and Moje (1995) argued that for many PSTs "content seems to exist for content's sake and literacy is part of content's proliferation of itself" (p. 449). However, several studies show how a content area literacy course can positively influence PSTs' beliefs about literacy within the disciplines they planned to teach (e.g., Bean & Zulich, 1990; Freedman & Carver, 2007; Linek et. al, 1999). Although there are fewer studies that look longitudinally at how PSTs' beliefs about content area literacy change across their time in the TE program (Hollingsworth; 1989; Powers & Zippay, 2006), these studies suggest that the PSTs' field experiences have a powerful effect on their instructional ideas related to literacy. Furthermore, similar to studies in history education, PSTs who seem committed to content area and disciplinary literacy do not always use

these ideas in their instruction due to contradictory beliefs they hold about teaching, learning, and students, and the structural constraints of schooling (Bean, 1997; Bean & Zulich, 1992; Hall, 2005; Harlin, 1999; Hollingsworth, 1989; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990; O'Brien, Stewart, & Moje,1995; Powers & Zippay, 2006; Stewart & O'Brien, 1989; Zulich et. al, 1992).

For example, in one of the earlier studies about PSTs' content area literacy beliefs, O'Brien and Stewart (1990) set out to determine why so many of their secondary, preservice teachers seemed to resist using content area literacy practices. At the beginning of the course, they found that many students had misconceptions about what they were to learn in the course and about what content area literacy was. By the end of the course, the PSTs no longer held these initial misconceptions; however, many PSTs exhibited views that O'Brien and Stewart considered more problematic. Those PSTs who did resist using literacy strategies and practices cited their beliefs about students, their role as teachers, and the routines in schools as reasons for why they were reluctant to use disciplinary literacy instructional practices in their classrooms. O'Brien and Stewart argued that these more deeply held convictions are more difficult to counter and require more than a one-time literacy course.

As some of the research in content area literacy suggested, I argue that teachers' beliefs about students, particularly students who are low-income, minority, and/or English language learners also influence the instructional approaches they use with their students. This is substantiated by a line of work that demonstrated how teachers' deficit beliefs about underserved students, particularly minority students, led the teachers to lower their expectations for student performance and to use more rote learning techniques

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and spend less time with these students than with their white peers (e.g., Rist, 1970, 2000; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968). This resulted in a self-fulfilling prophecy with the minority students doing less well academically than their white peers.

Studies which address *prospective* teachers' beliefs about underserved students generally focus on their beliefs about multicultural education and diversity in schools (e.g., Causey, Thomas, & Armento, 2000; Gomez, 1993; McAllister & Irvine, 2002; Milner, 2006; Santoro & Allard, 2005; Taylor & Sobel, 2001). In general, this research suggests that PSTs are an overall homogenous group, predominantly middle class, white females, with limited experience with minority youth. Moreover, many PSTs think of minority students in terms of deficits and express uncertainty about how to effectively work with minority students (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Of the studies related most directly to PSTs' beliefs about underserved students, much of it focuses on PSTs' ideas before and after a multicultural education course.

However, unlike similar studies in history education and content area literacy, these studies suggest that the influence of multicultural education courses on PSTs' beliefs is mixed (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Middleton, 2002; Weisman & Garza, 2002; Sleeter, 2001), with some demonstrating positive benefits (e.g., Capella-Santana, 2003; Johnson, 2002) and others showing far less impact (e.g., Greenman & Kimmel, 1995; Mueller & O'Connor, 2009). Although there are few studies that look longitudinally at PSTs' beliefs about underserved students and multicultural education (e.g., Akiba, 2011; Mueller, 2004), these studies indicate that numerous factors, ranging from the PSTs' prior experiences with underserved students to the depth of reflection in which they have engaged about their own cultural backgrounds, influences their perceptions of

underserved students. I found no current research on how PSTs' beliefs about underserved students, besides their expectations for students, influence the instructional approaches they use in their classrooms.

Although all of this literature is informative, I contend that it lacks an integrated and comprehensive examination of PSTs' beliefs, how these beliefs change over time, and how these beliefs influence their instruction. First, the literature attends to PSTs' beliefs about history, content area literacy, *or* minority students separately, not exploring the complex relationships among these beliefs. Secondly, most of these studies focus on PSTs' beliefs at the beginning of the TE program or before and after a course, but few examine changes in PSTs' beliefs over the duration of the TE program. Finally, few studies examine how PSTs' beliefs influence their instructional decisions with regards to disciplinary reading in history. In this study, I take both a an integrated and longitudinal examination of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history, exploring to what extent their conceptions influenced the instructional approaches they used with their students, particularly with students who are underserved.

Problem of enactment with regards to disciplinary literacy in history. Of the few studies that investigate the influence of beliefs on instruction, there is some agreement that there are often intervening factors in the relationship between instructional beliefs and actions. Just because a PST seems to understand what it means to take a historical inquiry approach to instruction in her classroom, for example, does not necessarily mean that the instructional approaches she uses will reflect this stance. Kennedy (1999) described this as the "problem of enactment;" novice teachers may have strong content knowledge and believe in using certain instructional approaches, in this

case with regards to disciplinary reading in history, but the instructional approaches they utilize with students do not reflect the PSTs' knowledge and beliefs.

McDiarmid and Vinten-Johansen's (2000) work in a history methods course illustrates how even when PSTs' increase their knowledge about historical inquiry, they do not necessarily use this information in their instructional planning. To strengthen PSTs' understanding of history's structure and its implications for learning and teaching, the professors engaged the PSTs in historiographic research and then asked the students to apply this understanding of history to the creation of a unit plan to be used with secondary students. Although the PSTs' knowledge about history and its structure grew by the end of the course, McDiarmid and Vinten-Johansen concluded that the course did not impact the PSTs' views on how to teach history in middle and high school. PSTs complained that the type of instruction that results from taking history's structure seriously was not what they saw in schools, and they felt compelled to create lessons reflective of their current field placements. In essence, while the course was engaging and did improve the PSTs' knowledge of history, the PSTs did not see it as helpful in preparing them to teach on Monday.

Research in history education, content area literacy, and teacher education more generally indicates that the following factors influence the extent to which PSTs' beliefs and knowledge about their discipline and literacy influence their instructional choices: a) the subculture of the disciplines in secondary schools (Bean & Zulich, 1992; Grossman & Stoldosky, 1995; Moje, 1996; Virta, 2002); b) the complexity and culture of secondary schools (Bean & Zulich, 1992; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990; O'Brien et al., 1995); c) workplace constraints, such as time (Cuban, 1993; Stewart, 1990; Warren Little, 1999;

Wilson et al., 1994); d) the PSTs' field-based experiences, particularly the cooperating teacher and her instructional practices (Angell, 1998; Bean & Zulich, 1992; Hollingsworth, 1989; Linek et al., 1999; Wilson et al., 1994); and, e) being a novice (Doppen, 2007; Virta, 2002; Wilson et al., 1994).

First, as described earlier in this review, each discipline has its own ways of thinking, its own concepts and modes of inquiry that make it distinctive. Tightly connected to a discipline's structure is a set of literacy skills that enable the learner to interpret, create, and make sense of information within the discipline. These disciplinary practices and norms create what Grossman and Stoldosky (1995) refer to as a subculture. Their research looked at disciplines as represented in secondary schools. Similar to Hirst (1974), they recognized that school subjects are not synonymous with the disciplines, as schools have objectives that shape what is emphasized within each discipline. Furthermore, Grossman and Stoldosky argued that school subjects foster subcultures that influence the work of teachers. In their study of 400 teachers from five core school subjects, they described how history and math compare. They found that history: a) has a less defined subject area; b) is less static; c) is less likely to have vertical coordination between school courses; d) is less likely to track students; and, e) and is less likely to use a common assessment across courses than is true of math. All of these issues affect what it means to be a history teacher and have consequences for the instructional approaches that teachers use with students.

Secondly, these subject area subcultures also exist within a larger school context that tends to divide the school curriculum by content area, leading many PSTs to see their teaching responsibilities as aligned with their content area, rather than with other aspects

of student learning, such as literacy development (O'Brien et al., 1995). O'Brien, Stewart, and Moje (1995) also noted that the predominant mode of instruction in secondary schools is teacher-centered, and this is particularly true in the history classroom, where the textbook-lecture approach dominates (Cuban, 1991; Paxton, 1999; Ravitch, 1991). Thus, PSTs tend to resist instituting literacy strategies that encourage the students to make their own meaning from the text, as beginning teachers typically emulate the practices of more veteran teachers, many of whom, Stewart (1990) also argued, primarily use didactic instructional practices.

Third, part of the secondary school context is the constraints of the workplace, among which many PSTs highlight "lack of time" as most prominent (Cuban, 1993; Wilson et al., 1994). As Stewart (1990) explained, many PSTs stated that they were not able to engage in disciplinary reading instructional approaches given the instructional time required to implement them. With 50-55 minute class periods the norm, many PSTs saw covering content as more important than developing their students' literacy skills, suggesting that they viewed the two tasks as unrelated. Stewart found that few PSTs articulated that developing students' literacy skills might increase student learning and might enable students to use class time more productively when engaging in reading and writing tasks.

Fourth, the strong influence of the field experience also may lead to a lack of coherence between PSTs' espoused ideas on disciplinary reading and texts and their instructional practices. In their examinations of different settings for a content area literacy course, Linek and colleagues (1999) found that the course most closely connected to a field experience and conducted at the field setting site had the most impact

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on what the PSTs learned about literacy and subsequently on the instructional practices they used when teaching. Linek and colleagues concluded that most PSTs tended to utilize the instructional approaches their cooperating teachers used; thus, if the cooperating teacher engaged in discipline specific reading instructional practices, the PST was more likely to do so, and vice versa. Angell (1994) reached a similar conclusion in her study of two elementary social studies PSTs, both of whom adopted the instructional approaches of their supervising teachers. Bean and Zulich's (1992) analysis of three secondary PSTs' literacy beliefs and practices also emphasized the role of the field experience, suggesting that the relationship between the PST and cooperating teacher had a significant influence on the PST's instructional practices. In addition, the focal PST in Wilson, Konopak, and Readance's (1994) study claimed that he did not use the student-centered practices he learned in his TE program – even though he thought they were a good idea – because his cooperating teacher preferred that he rely instead on the textbook.

A final factor suggested by education researchers that helps to explain the disconnect between PSTs' beliefs and actions is their status as novice teachers. Most PSTs enter their teacher education program with limited to no teaching experience. Considering that the PSTs are also trying to "fit into" the professional community of teachers, they may be hesitant to utilize a teaching practice that they have not seen teachers in the field utilize. Doppen (2007) found this to be true in her study of secondary history and social science PSTs, all of whom expressed support for historical inquiry instructional approaches. However, only three PSTs in the cohort used such approaches during student teaching; the other PSTs cited a lack of experience with the

practice as a reason for not using it. The work of Virta (2002) and Wilson and colleagues (1994) shows that when PSTs become overwhelmed – which is typical during the student teaching semester – they resorted to a textbook/lecture approach, even though they supported more student-centered instructional approaches.

The above reviewed research suggests that there are numerous factors making it *unlikely* that PSTs will enact the instructional approaches that their teacher education programs espouse. However, few of these studies examined the instructional approaches of PSTs whose TE programs emphasized disciplinary reading in history. The PSTs in my study did experience such a program, and I wondered if this influenced the instructional approaches they used in their history classrooms. In this dissertation study, I examine the influence of the PSTs' TE coursework, their disciplinary understandings, and their field experiences on these PSTs' understandings and usage of discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

Preservice teacher beliefs and teacher education. Given the range of variables influencing teachers' beliefs, it is not surprising that altering them and ultimately PSTs' actions through teacher education is challenging (Ball, 1989; Kennedy, 1999; McDiarmid, 1990; Olson, 1993; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Richardson & Pacier, 2001). Nonetheless, surfacing, working with, and contesting where necessary PSTs' prior beliefs and conceptions is essential if teacher education is to influence PSTs' approaches to instruction. Within the teacher education literature, and substantiated by the TE recommendations present in the multicultural education literature, there is some consensus on the principles and pedagogical approaches that are most effective in influencing PSTs' beliefs and ultimately actions.

First, as Kagan (1992) argued in her review of the learning-to-teach literature, teacher educators need to attend explicitly to PSTs' prior beliefs, assisting them in reflecting on their prior experiences and how these have shaped their views of themselves as teachers and their students as learners. This reflects to some extent the attention to identity work that scholars in multicultural education advocate (Banks, 2006; Cochran-Smith, 2004; Nieto, 2002; Villegas & Lucas, 2002; Gay & Howard, 2000; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997). Research suggests that educational autobiographies (and revisiting these periodically), reflective journals, and class discussions can help to elicit and work with the ideas PSTs bring to their teacher education (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). However, if these pedagogies are used as short-term strategies or only within *a* teacher education course, many education scholars argue that these interventions will be insufficient for altering the most deeply held convictions of PSTs (e.g., Richardson, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Secondly, as Richardson (1996), Kennedy (1999), Hollingsworth (1989), and other researchers have noted, working with and expanding upon PSTs' prior beliefs is necessary but is particularly difficult when these ideas have not been previously contested. Kagan (1992) argued that teacher education must disrupt PSTs' previous understandings that are incompatible with what we know about effective instruction; otherwise, teacher education risks that the PSTs' preconceived notions will become more solidified by the field, a point supported by other researchers (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Furthermore, as Borko and Putnam (1996) warned, "Many of the beliefs about teaching, learning, learners, and subject matter that may serve as personal impediments to change pervade the culture of schools" and

make it increasingly difficult for prospective teachers to alter their beliefs once they are more fully engaged in the field (p. 90). This raises the significance of structuring field and cultural-immersion experiences that are well-supported and that, where necessary, challenge PSTs' beliefs about underserved students (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Hollins and Guzman, 2005; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997; Sleeter, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and what it means to work on students' literacy development in ways meaningful to the discipline (Bain, 2000; Kagan, 1992; Moje & Speyer, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).

Finally, both the TE (e.g., Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996, 2004) and multicultural education literature (e.g., Gay & Howard, 2000; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Nieto, 2002; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) argue that stand-alone courses are not enough to alter the most strongly held convictions of PSTs. While short-term gains might be present, these are often not sustained across the PSTs' teacher education. Carefully constructed TE programs that attend explicitly and systematically to PSTs' beliefs about content, literacy, and underserved students are necessary, as is research that explores the effectiveness of these strategies over time (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Kagan, 1992; Richardson, 1996). On-going work that sends a consistent message about effective instructional practices across the duration and multiple contexts of the teacher education program is one avenue to pursue.

Angell's (1988) work exemplifies the importance of consistent messages, as she showed how one of her focal elementary PSTs, Margaret, received similar messages about teaching social studies from her previous school experiences, education coursework, and field experiences. This made it easier, in a sense, for Margaret to

appropriate these teaching practices than it was for Holly, another focal PST, whose own

schooling and field work offered her different and sometimes conflicting messages.

Thus, Angell concluded that sending "overlapping messages" throughout the teacher

education program increases the potential impact it can have on PSTs' instructional ideas

and practices. In my study, I explored the messages PSTs received from the various

settings in which they learned about disciplinary reading in history and its related

instructional approaches.

Summation of Literature Review

This review of the relevant literature makes it quite apparent that prospective

teachers' knowledge and beliefs about the content they plan to teach, about the

relationship between literacy and their subject area, and about their students'

demographic backgrounds matter for how PSTs take up their teacher education and for

what they do instructionally with their middle and high school students. This literature

review also reveals that there are several aspects of learning to teach with a disciplinary

reading focus that need further investigation. Foremost, I argued that the literature on

content and pedagogical content knowledge has overlooked disciplinary literacy as a

form of content knowledge and discipline specific reading instructional approaches as a

form of PCK. Secondly, there has been little current work exploring how PSTs'

knowledge and beliefs about students' demographic backgrounds influence the

instructional approaches – with regards to disciplinary reading in history – that they use

with their students. Third, I demonstrated that there are few studies that look in an

integrated way at PSTs' beliefs about the content, literacy, and students. Fourth, of the

limited studies that explore how PSTs' beliefs influence their instruction, most indicate

that the TE program had little influence on the PSTs' instructional approaches. Finally, in the literature related to PSTs' knowledge and beliefs, there is little attention to how PSTs' knowledge and beliefs change across the duration of their teacher education programs.

With this dissertation study, I attempt to address these gaps in the literature base by: a) focusing specifically on disciplinary reading and texts in history; b) examining how several factors, including the PSTs' disciplinary understandings, TE coursework, field experiences, and orientation towards students influenced the PSTs' instructional decisions with regards to reading in history; and, c) taking a longitudinal perspective on how the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history and their orientation toward students developed across their time in the TE program.

Chapter 3:
Research Design and Methods

This dissertation studies one cohort of secondary preservice teachers in history and the social sciences in the University of Michigan's undergraduate teacher certification program. Although my analysis includes 16 of the 17 members of this cohort, I highlight the experiences of PSTs who worked in schools that primarily served students who were low-income, minority, and/or English language learners. The main data sources include a series of interviews and assessments, which occur over the duration of the preservice teachers' training. Using constant comparative analysis, I sought evidence of how these PSTs' conceptions about disciplinary reading and instruction in history developed over the course of their three semesters in the TE program, considering the influence of several factors, including their disciplinary understandings, education coursework, and field-based experiences.

In this chapter, I provide detail about this study's research design, the research context, my data sources, and my data analysis process.

Research Design

I approach this study with the understanding that learning to teach is a complex, socially situated, and mediated activity that occurs in multiple contexts and involves numerous people and activities, all of which change over the course of the PSTs' teacher education program. My research questions, the theories, research, and models that shape

my understanding of these factors led me to take a qualitative approach to exploring this complexity. For this study, I often took the role of a participant observer, as this enabled me to deepen my understanding of the multiple contexts and factors influencing these PSTs' conceptions about disciplinary reading in history and about instruction.

Acknowledging the main tenets of activity theory, I use a relatively small sample size – one cohort of PSTs – so that I can explore in-depth the numerous contexts in which these PSTs learned about and engaged in teaching. In addition, I collected and examined multiple types of data, recognizing that "different kinds of data give different views or vantage points" (Strauss, 1987, p. 27). I examined: a) interviews in which the PSTs discussed their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history; b) TE program assessments that measured PSTs' understanding and commitment to disciplinary literacy in history; c) field notes related to the PSTs' leading instruction in the field; d) videos of the PSTs' teaching in their field classrooms; and, e) TE course syllabi and assignments.

Guided by the cognitive development models I use to frame this study – King and Kitchener's (1994) reflective judgment model and Hollingsworth's (1989) model of knowledge and belief change in prospective teachers – I collected data from multiple time points during the PSTs' teacher education. I have data sources for each of the 16 PSTs' three semesters in the TE program. The longitudinal nature of this study is fairly unique, as there are few studies examining how preservice teachers make sense of their teacher education over time[27] and none that I could find that explore how PSTs' ideas about disciplinary reading and texts change across their teacher education program.

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[27] For studies that focus on how PSTs make sense of their teacher education over time, see for example: Grossman, 1989; Grossman, Valencia, Evans, Thompson, Martin, & Place, 2000; Hollingsworth, 1989; Levine, 2003.

Research Participants and Context

Research Participants

Of the 17 PSTs in this cohort, 16 consented to participate in a larger study, the Advancing Literacy (AL) Project, from which this dissertation study evolved (I provide more detail about this Project in the following sections). These 16 PSTs constitute the participants for my study. All of these PSTs were 20 or 21 years old at the start of the TE program, all were native English speakers, and 8 were male and 8 female. The majority of PSTs self-identified as Caucasian, with one identifying as African American, one as Caucasian/Latino, and one as Arab American. Only two of these PSTs described attending under-resourced K-12 schools, with the others describing their schools as "middle class." The distribution of their academic majors is as follows: History (8); Social Studies (4); History and Social Studies (2); History, Social Studies, and English (1); and Political Science (1). (See Appendix A for descriptions of TE program requirements for each of these majors and see Appendix B for a chart detailing this demographic information as well as information about each PST's field placement context).

Given my interest in how PSTs think about instruction for underserved student populations, I selected three focal PSTs, Kathy, Jared, and Mark, each of whom spent their student teaching semester and first years of teaching working with underserved students. My original intention with the dissertation was for these PSTs to be the focus of my analysis and findings; however, once I began the data analysis process, I found that some of the more interesting and significant patterns involved members of the larger cohort (such as the significance of the PSTs' orientation toward students). I had also

originally planned to follow these three PSTs' into their first years of teaching. Although I have interview data and sample lesson and unit plans from their first two years of teaching, all three were teaching out of state, making it unfeasible for me to observe their teaching. Thus, I do not report in this dissertation on the data related to these PSTs' first years of teaching; instead, my analysis and findings relate to the overall cohort and their three semesters in the TE program. However, I highlight, as the findings warrant, the conceptions and experiences of these three PSTs in Chapters 4 and 5. Table 1 summarizes the focal PSTs' disciplinary backgrounds and provides some contextual information about their field experiences and first years of teaching. (I provide more detail on these topics in Chapter 4-6).

My research questions and the study's design necessitated that I seek study participants whom I could get to know in the multiple contexts of their teacher education. Thus, I selected this cohort as I worked with them in a variety of capacities. First, I served as their practicum field instructor during their first two semesters in the TE program, and I worked with six of these PSTs during their student teaching semester (three of whom are the focal teachers for this study). As a field instructor, I worked with them on lesson and unit planning and observed them teach several times each semester. I also facilitated meetings between the cooperating teachers, PSTs, and myself, where we discussed the PSTs' progress and offered suggestions for improvement. During the first two semesters of the program, I led bi-monthly seminar sessions in which I worked with understanding of these PSTs' conceptions and understandings as well as the influence of their field context.

Second, these PSTs were involved in a larger research project, the Advancing

Table 1: Focal Preservice Teachers.

	Academic Background	Field Placement Semester 1	Field Placement Semesters 2 & 3	Year 1 of Teaching	Year 2 of Teaching
Jared Male, Caucasian	Major: History Minor: Political Science	8th grade U.S. History. Large, suburban middle school in small suburb. CT's instructional approaches*: Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies; some projects	8th grade U.S. History; 6th grade World Studies. Large, urban, under-resourced middle school in large city. CT's instructional approaches: Heavy reliance on textbook; writing test preparation.	9th grade World Geography. Considered the social studies inclusion teacher, so half of his students had IEPs. Large, Title I high school near Austin, TX.	9th grade World History & Geography; 12th grade AP U.S. Government. Large, Title I high school near Austin, TX. Same school as year 1 of teaching.
Kathy Female, Caucasian	Major: Social Studies Minor: Political Science & Psychology	10th grade U.S. History. Mid-sized, under-resourced high school in small city CT's instructional approaches: Heavy reliance on textbook; read text aloud in class; answer textbook questions for each section; watch historical movies.	10th grade U.S. History. Mid-sized, under-resourced high school in small city. Same school as semester 1 though different teacher. CT's instructional approaches: Limited use of text; emphasis on role playing and simulations	9th grade World History; 11th & 12th grade Economics. 11th & 12th grade Sociology. Large Title I high school in Kissimmee, FL.	9th-12th grade, all subjects. Leader of impact lab, supporting students who have failed a course to complete it via a computer program. Large Title I high school in Kissimmee, FL. Same school as year 1 of teaching.
Mark Male, Caucasian /Latino	Double Major: History & Social Studies Minor: None	9th grade U.S. History; 11th & 12th grade Sociology (2 different CTs). Small, urban, under-resourced charter high school in large city. CT's instructional approaches: History CT: Often used textbook and other forms of text; some general reading strategies; differentiated instruction. Sociology CT: Heavy reliance on textbook and discussion; some general literacy strategies.	7th grade Eastern Hemisphere Studies. Mid-sized, diverse middle school in small city. CT's instructional approaches: Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; end of unit culminating projects.	11th grade 20th Century U.S. History; 12th grade Political Science. Small, urban charter middle and high school in Chicago, IL.	No longer teaching. Began a graduate program in urban planning, which was one of his long-time interests.

*Description of cooperating teachers' common instructional approaches is based on my observations and preservice teachers' comments.

Literacy (AL) Project, of which I was a research team member. (I describe this project and my involvement in more detail in the "Data Sources and Methods of Collection" section). The AL Project studied secondary PSTs' developing ideas about literacy instruction in the disciplines (i.e., English/language arts, history and the social sciences, mathematics, science, and world languages) through a series of interviews and assessments that occurred over the duration of the PSTs' teacher education program. My research questions for this dissertation study evolved from and are connected to my participation in the AL Project.

Finally, I was a graduate student intern in these PSTs' *History and Social Science Methods* course, observing each class session and analyzing their submitted course assignments. As a participant observer in this course, I gained knowledge of the course curriculum and of the PSTs' uptake of these ideas. In sum, because of my interest in developing a deep, nuanced understanding of how PSTs think about disciplinary reading and texts and how these conceptions influenced their instruction, it made sense for me to focus on this cohort of PSTs about whom I have extensive background knowledge.

Secondary Teacher Education Program

The undergraduate secondary teacher education program at the University of Michigan included three semesters of coursework and field placements (Table 2).[28] The TE program the PSTs in this study experienced was slightly different than the standard program for PSTs in other disciplines. Unlike other disciplinary majors, this group of history and social science PSTs: a) took their *Content Area Literacy* course together as a

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[28] In addition to their education coursework, the PSTs were also taking courses in the College of Language, Science, and Art to fulfill the requirements of their academic majors and minors. Although these courses are not the focus of my study, I do reference them as warranted by the findings and in relation to the PSTs' commentary.

Table 2: Teacher Education Program Coursework and Field Experiences.

Semester I	Semester II	Semester III
Education in a Multicultural Society	*Content Area Methods for Teaching*	Student Teaching Professional Development Seminar
Content Area Literacy	*Educational Psychology and Human Development*	
Practicum Seminar	Practicum Seminar	Practicum Seminar
Field Experience: 2 half days per week	Field Experience: 2 half days per week	Field Experience: Full-time student teaching

Note: Course titles are italicized.

cohort; b) had the same field practicum instructor (me) for two or three semesters; and, c) spent their practicum 2 and student teaching semesters in the same field classrooms. In what follows, I describe the standard program and provide more detail about how the program differed for the PSTs in this study.[29]

During semester one, all PSTs took three courses in the School of Education: *Education in a Multicultural Society*, *Content Area Literacy*, and a field practicum seminar. All PSTs took *Education in a Multicultural Society* with other PSTs from a range of disciplinary majors, whereas enrollment for *Content Area Literacy* differed. In the standard program, PSTs from all disciplinary backgrounds enrolled in the same *Content Area Literacy* course, meaning that biology, English, and math majors were all in

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[29] Although some elements of the TE program that this cohort of history and social science preservice teachers experienced differed from the standard program, it is beyond the scope of this study to assess the influence of the program modifications. What I include here is meant to be descriptive, as I do not explore how the program differences impacted these PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and its related instructional practices as compared to PSTs in the standard program.

the same class. This made it difficult for course instructors to concentrate on disciplinary reading instructional approaches distinct to each discipline. In contrast, the history and social science PSTs in this study were all in the same section of the literacy course, enabling the instructor to focus all semester on disciplinary reading and writing as they pertain specifically to history and the social sciences.

In addition to traditional coursework, all PSTs also participated in a practicum seminar with other PSTs in their teacher certification area: English, science, math, world languages, and history and the social sciences. Typically, instructors held seminar sessions bi-monthly, assisting the PSTs in connecting their education coursework and field experiences. As the instructor for the practicum seminar in which the history and social science PSTs in this study participated, I made consistent efforts to assist the PSTs in making sense of disciplinary reading in history and its related instructional approaches. It is not known if other practicum instructors had a similar focus. All PSTs spent two half days per week in a middle or high school field placement classroom related to their teacher certification area; they were in pairs for this experience. The PSTs' involvement in their field classrooms varied, but all taught at least a one-day lesson and analyzed student work.

During the second semester of the program, all the PSTs took three additional courses: *Content Area Methods, Educational Psychology*, and a practicum seminar. In both the standard program and the one experienced by this study's PSTs, all sections of these courses were open *only* to PSTs in the same discipline; thus, the PSTs had all three of their education courses together. Similar to semester one, PSTs spent two half days in their field placement classrooms with varying levels of participation in teaching;

however, the program placed all PSTs individually in classrooms this semester. Furthermore, unlike the PSTs in other disciplines, the history and social science PSTs remained in these same classrooms for the student teaching semester, as well.

During their final semester in the TE program, all of the PSTs student taught full-time, assuming responsibility for lead teaching for at least eight weeks of the semester. They also participated in a practicum seminar and a series of professional development workshops. In addition, the TE program required PSTs to create, teach, and analyze their teaching of a two to three week unit of instruction. Assignments in all three semesters encouraged the PSTs to make connections between their TE coursework and their field placement sites.

The TE program recruited CTs from area middle and high schools. In the standard program, the field placement supervisor randomly paired PSTs with a CT for their practicum one and two experiences; this also was true for the history and social science PSTs during their first semester. However, because the history and social science PSTs were with the same CT for their practicum two and student teaching experiences, the field placement supervisor asked PSTs to share with interested CTs a resume, cover letter, and letter of intention prior to their second semester in the program. In the letter, PSTs shared their academic areas of interest as well as the type of instruction about which they were interested in learning more. The field placement supervisor then sent these materials to interested CTs, who had an opportunity to meet the PSTs prior to agreeing to work together.

TE coursework and disciplinary reading and texts in history. As mentioned previously, two of the PSTs' core education courses, *Content Area Literacy* and *History*

and Social Science Methods, emphasized the concept of disciplinary literacy as it applies to history. To help the reader understand the purpose and goals of these courses and the possible influence of these courses on the PSTs' conceptual understandings and instructional ideas, I provide some additional information here about these two courses.

The course instructors worked together as they developed and refined their courses, making a concerted effort to build more explicit connections between the courses. The purpose of the literacy course was to: "examine both the possibilities and challenges for students as they use and produce texts in the disciplines in middle and high schools" (ED 402 syllabus). In addition, students learned about the reading and writing processes related to social studies and about pedagogical approaches to assist students in using and producing content area texts. Core class assignments included: development of a school-student-text study; construction and administration of a content reading inventory; creation of three literacy-related social studies lesson plans; and, facilitation and written reflection on one of these three lesson plans.

The methods instructor purposefully built upon what the students had learned about lesson planning and about literacy in his course. The course centered around three related teaching problems, namely: a) "What are the social studies?" b) "What are the dilemmas in teaching the social studies in secondary schools?" and, c) "How can developing teachers make social studies content accessible to all students?" (ED 432 syllabus). Core assignments in the methods course included: a unit plan created using backward design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) to be taught the following semester; a concept formation lesson plan to be taught in the field this semester; and a descriptive "guide" to history or one of the social science disciplines.

Both courses included instruction about theoretical frameworks and teaching principles, what Grossman and colleagues (1999) referred to as conceptual tools. In the literacy course, these included principles such as the importance of learning about the teaching context and the students one teaches and the significance of critically examining the texts one is planning to use with his or her students. In the methods course, PSTs learned about conceptual tools such as the need for eliciting, working with, and building upon students' prior knowledge and skills.

In addition to conceptual tools, both course instructors provided instruction about specific instructional approaches and strategies, the practical tools, relevant to reading in history. In the literacy course this included instructional practices such as how to create, administer, and use content reading inventories as well as what criteria to consider when analyzing texts a teacher might use with students. The methods instructor also introduced the PSTs to a range of discipline specific reading strategies, such as ways to modify primary texts and how to design and use concept formation lessons to strengthen students' understanding of key concepts in the discipline (see Appendix C for a chart detailing which tools were most apparent in the PSTs' commentary).

In this dissertation, I consider these conceptual and practical tools to be *reading instructional approaches*. In Chapter 5, I focus explicitly on the reading instructional approaches the PSTs discussed using with their students, and there is evidence that the PSTs used both conceptual and practical tools.

TE coursework and working with underserved students. The TE program in which these PSTs participated did not have an explicit focus on preparing teachers to work successfully with underserved students, although it utilized some of the research-

supported components discussed in Chapter 2.[30] For example, the instructors in the

PSTs' *Content Area Literacy* course and in their field based seminars directly addressed

how to design instructional activities and assessments that take into account students'

cultural and linguistic differences. In these and other courses, PSTs did some culture

identity work, although this was not systematic or integrated across the program. All of

the PSTs took a course titled, *Education in a Multicultural Society*, which took an

historical and sociological approach to discussing how race, ethnicity, culture, socio-

economic status, and language impact students' schooling experiences; however, the

course did not explicitly address how to use this knowledge to create effective

instructional practices for underserved students. Although some of the PSTs benefitted

from working with cooperating teachers who were experienced, effective educators of

underserved students this was not necessarily by program design. In my study I examine

some of the TE program features that might have supported or impeded PSTs as they

strengthened their knowledge of underserved students.

Data Sources and Methods of Collection

AL Project Data Sources

As I mentioned previously, the majority of data sources for my study emanate

from the larger body of data collected for the AL Project.[31] The Project's overall goals

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[30] This section is meant to be descriptive and not a critique of how this TE program compares to the research recommendations I reviewed in Chapter 2.

[31] The primary investigator on the Advancing Literacy Project was Dr. Elizabeth Moje, with Dr. Robert Bain, Dr. Deanna Birdyshaw, and Dr. Patricio Herbst as key instructional faculty. Consulting faculty included, Dr. Deborah Loewenberg Ball, Dr. Hyman Bass, Dr. Terry McDonald, and Dr. Edward Silver. Graduate students who worked on the project in varying capacities included: Emily Douglas, Tuf Francis, Brian Girard, Amy Jeppsen, Cathy Johnson, Eric Rackley, and me. For an extended discussion of the Advancing Literacy Project and its objectives, see Dr. Moje's website: http://www-personal.umich.edu/~moje/advlit.htm.

were to strengthen secondary prospective teachers' knowledge of discipline specific literacy instruction and assessment approaches and to encourage the PSTs to use these instructional approaches in their field placement sites with their middle and high school students. To study the PSTs' developing ideas about literacy instruction in the disciplines (i.e., English/ language arts, history and the social sciences, mathematics, science, and world language), the AL team gathered several forms of data across the PSTs' time in the TE program:

- 4 Teacher education program assessments from each PST

- 3 Semi-structured interviews from a sub-sample of PSTs

- Field observation notes related to the PSTs' teaching each semester

- Videotapes of PSTs leading instruction from a sub-sample of PSTs

- Syllabi, assignments, and field notes from observations of TE courses

Teacher education program assessment. The TE program assessment sought to measure PSTs' understandings and beliefs about literacy in relation to their respective disciplines. All secondary PSTs took the program assessment four times – once before they started their education coursework and then at the end of each of the three semesters in the TE program. The assessment consisted of four components (see Appendix D for the complete assessment), in which students:

1) Indicated their level of agreement/disagreement with a series of statements about their literacy responsibility and about reading and writing in their content area;

2) Explained what type of information they would need to know about their teaching context, students, and text to effectively plan a lesson in

their content area;

3) Analyzed and evaluated a discipline specific text; and,

4) Analyzed student work.

For this dissertation study, I focused on the PSTs' responses to the second and third components of the assessment, as this is where they provided extended responses which highlighted their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and their ideas about instruction in history.

There were two versions of the assessment; the PSTs took the first version before they started the TE program and then at the end of their first semester (Administrations 1 & 2). They took the second version at the end of their second and third semesters in the TE program (Administrations 3 & 4). What varied between the versions were the student texts and the student work samples that we asked the PSTs to analyze (the third and fourth items on the list above). All of the question prompts remained the same.

The first component of the assessment was a survey, where PSTs responded to 46 statement prompts. The Likert scale for the survey ranged from 1-7, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly agree." Examples of prompts are as follows:

- A social studies teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading abilities.

- Teachers who want to improve students' interest in reading should model their own use of reading to obtain information in social studies.

- The social studies text contains all the information needed by the reader to understand the idea or concept.

These 46 prompts remained the same on all four versions of the assessment. For this dissertation study, I used the PSTs' survey responses as contextual data, as this data did not relate directly to my research questions.[32]

The second component of the assessment, "Planning for Instruction," contained four writing prompts related to a hypothetical, high school U.S. history class. Those prompts were as follows:

1) It is the beginning of the year and you have just been hired to teach U.S. history to tenth-grade students. Your building principal welcomes you to the school and then informs you that she will expect your first unit plan and accompanying lesson plans one week before classes begin. What kind of information would you need to know in order to begin your planning?

2) What would you need to know about the context in which you'll be teaching?

3) What would you need to know about the texts you'll have as resources for teaching and how would you go about using them?

4) What would you need to know about the students you'll be teaching?

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[32] For the survey component of the assessment, we used the phrase *social studies* to reference all the PSTs seeking certification in history, political science, economics, or social studies as it was too cumbersome to write out all of these certification areas. Although we asked the PSTs to indicate their specific certification area on the survey, it is unclear how the PSTs interpreted the phrase *social studies* and what specific discipline they might have been considering when responding to the survey statements. If time and resources had allowed, we discussed as a project team creating discipline specific surveys for those not seeking certification in history and social studies, as disciplinary literacy in political science and economics (the other possible academic majors for those seeking certification in the social sciences at the University of Michigan) is not synonymous with disciplinary literacy in history. Rick, the only PST with a major in political science, raised this issue in the interviews, which I address in Chapter 4.

For the other components of the assessment, we focused explicitly on U.S. History, as PSTs seeking certification in history or in social studies often teach this course. Thus, the student texts and work samples were all related to history. As with the survey, for those seeking certification in political science or economics, it would have been more discipline specific to use student texts and work samples specific to these disciplines.

For questions 2 – 4, PSTs also addressed a series of sub-questions, which were meant to elicit more details about the PSTs' conceptions. For example, for question 3 above there were seven sub-questions, such as: "What types of texts will you incorporate into your instruction?" and "What kind of support will you provide to students to help them produce the texts you assign?" For this study, I did analyze in detail the PSTs' responses to these questions.

For the third component of the assessment, "Analyzing Texts," PSTs analyzed two written texts about the same historical time period, one a primary source and the other a textbook passage. For Administrations 1 and 2, the PSTs read "Why Women Should Vote" by Jane Addams and a textbook passage that discussed industrialization's influence on the workplace. For Administrations 3 and 4, the PSTs read "The Alien and Sedition Acts" and a textbook passage about political developments during President John Adams' tenure. For each of these texts, PSTs responded to two sets of questions. The first set, eight questions in total, related to the content and organization of the text, such as "What are the key ideas or concepts in the text?" The second set, seven questions in total, asked PSTs to discuss the text's challenges and to explain how they might support students in working through these challenges. A sample prompt was, "What knowledge does the author seem to assume a reader will bring to this text?" For this study, I analyzed in detail the PSTs' responses to these questions.

Finally, the last component of the assessment, "Assessing Student Work," required the PSTs to analyze students' written responses to journal and essay prompts related to the historical topic of the texts in the third section of the assessment. PSTs also responded to the following prompts:

- What feedback would you provide for each of these students' responses?

- What additional information would have helped you in your ability to give appropriate feedback?

- How would these responses inform your next steps instructionally?

For Administrations 1 and 2, PSTs analyzed one student's responses to two journal prompts and to a final essay about the legacy of the Progressive Era. For Administrations 3 and 4, PSTs analyzed three students' final essays addressing, "Who was the most effective leader of the New Republic?" For this study, I reviewed the PSTs' responses to these prompts, but I did not find them to be as detailed as the PSTs' commentary in the interviews. Thus, the PSTs' responses about student work did not figure prominently in my analysis.

PSTs took the assessments on-line as part of their requirements for the TE program. In addition, their responses to the assessment they took at the end of their first semester in the TE program (Administration 2) also served as their final exam for the *Content Area Literacy* course. Perhaps as a result of this being graded, the PSTs' responses to this assessment were the most complete and robust of all the assessment administrations. It is also important to note that there was a wide range of responses to Administrations 3 and 4. Some PSTs responded to prompts with comments such as "See my response to previous questions," while others wrote only a few sentences. Although some PSTs did offer complete responses to the assessment prompts, the overall responses were less complete and detailed than they were during the first two administrations. The AL project team speculated that some PSTs began to see the assessment as repetitive and

perhaps not a valuable learning exercise. Thus, I focus my analysis more heavily on the first two assessment responses.

AL semi-structured interviews. In addition to the assessments, a sub-sample of PSTs in the history and social science cohort agreed to participate in a set of three, semi-structured interviews – one occurring near the end of each of their three semesters in the TE program (Interview 1 = 13 respondents; Interview 2 = 12 respondents; Interview 3 = 8 respondents). Seven of the 16 PSTs completed all three interviews (Table 3). Similar to the assessment, the interview questions focused on the PSTs' conceptions of literacy, their discipline, and literacy instructional approaches related to their content area (see Appendix E for the interview protocols).

Because PSTs had the option to participate in the interviews, there was the potential for some self-selection bias, namely, that the more dedicated PSTs or those more interested in disciplinary reading and texts volunteered more often than their peers, potentially skewing the data. Recognizing this, I purposefully sought out interviews with a few PSTs who did not originally volunteer for the interviews and whom I thought could add to our understanding of how PSTs' think about and use discipline specific reading instructional approaches. In general, these PSTs seemed less engaged during course sessions and were more resistant to incorporating disciplinary literacy approaches in their instruction than were their peers. I also acknowledge that participating in the interviews themselves served as part of the PSTs' teacher education, perhaps making the interviewees more mindful of discipline specific reading instructional approaches in history. However, because of the emphasis on this topic across the PSTs' teacher education coursework, the potential influence of the interviews might be less than we

would otherwise anticipate. I kept both of these issues in mind during the data analysis process.

Although the overall topic of the interviews was consistent, about half of the questions remained the same with the other half varying across the three interviews. The AL project team decided to keep some questions consistent to better enable us to analyze the extent to which the PSTs' ideas about particular topics changed over time. In general, the interview prompts that remained the same focused on the PSTs' ideas about instruction. For example, across the interviews we asked the following question and sub-questions:

> How would you go about choosing and using appropriate text for your students, particularly in a classroom with a mix of reading and writing ability levels? How have your teacher education courses helped you think about that? How have your field experiences helped you think about that?

To help determine which interview prompts to keep consistent and which to change, the AL team did a preliminary analysis of the interview responses before creating the next interview protocol. As a result, the AL team deleted, added, or changed the wording of prompts to increase our understanding of particular aspects of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and writing and of instruction in their discipline.

For instance, the first interview had a series of questions focused on the PSTs' personal literacy practices and on how the PSTs' coursework had influenced their skills and ideas about literacy. From the AL team's preliminary analysis of the interviews, it became clear that we needed more information about the PSTs' disciplinary backgrounds and their conceptions of the discipline(s) they planned to teach. Thus, in the second interview, the AL team did not ask as many questions about the PSTs' literacy practices, instead adding questions that focused on their disciplinary understandings. The AL

team's preliminary analysis of the second interviews led us to focus extensively on the PSTs' ideas about reading and writing instruction in history during the final interview (see Appendix E for all of the interview protocols). The PSTs' interview responses serve as the focal data for my dissertation study, as they offer the most insight into the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history and into their instructional ideas and decisions.

AL contextual data sources. The AL Project also collected a range of contextual data, including field observation notes, videotapes of PSTs' leading instruction, field notes in TE courses, and TE course syllabi and assignments. The field observation notes and videotapes provided us with additional insight into the PSTs' instruction and into the factors that might have assisted or hindered the PSTs' usage of discipline specific reading instructional approaches. I wrote the majority of the field notes as I was the field instructor for all of the PSTs during their first two semesters in the TE program and for six of the PSTs during their student teaching semester. The field observation notes focused on how well the PSTs led instruction, including commentary about the content, the literacy aspects of the lesson, students' involvement in and understanding of the lesson, and the effectiveness of the instructional approaches the PSTs utilized. The AL team also asked all 16 PSTs to videotape themselves teaching a literacy related lesson, and a sub-sample of PSTs submitted videotapes (Semester 1 = 9 videotapes; Semester 2 = 8 videotapes; Semester 3 = 5 videotapes).

To provide further information about the main TE courses related to disciplinary literacy, the *Content Area Literacy* and the *History and Social Science Methods* courses, members of the AL team took field notes in these courses and collected and reviewed

student assignments.   I took the field notes in the methods course, where I summarized the main topics discussed, recorded any references to disciplinary reading and writing, and noted the literacy related questions raised by the content or by PSTs. The AL team also collected syllabi and assignments from all of the TE courses, which we analyzed to assist us in making sense of some of the PSTs' commentary in the interviews and assessments.

Benefits of my participation in the AL Project. As a member of this research project, I participated in numerous conversations and collaborative work that influenced my own understanding of disciplinary literacy and of the literacy tasks and demands related to history. For the AL Project, I primarily worked with the interviews, assisting in the development of interview protocols; scheduling and conducting interviews with PSTs of all disciplinary majors; transcribing the interviews; and doing the initial analysis of the semester one interviews for the history and social science PSTs. I also assisted with facilitating assessment sessions, analyzing assessments, and developing and refining an assessment rubric.

In my work with developing interview protocols, I was able to craft questions that were both pertinent to the AL Project but also addressed the research questions for my study. For example, with this dissertation I wanted to explore to what extent the context of teaching influenced the PSTs' instructional ideas. In the AL Project, we were also interested in how the PSTs thought about their students' literacy abilities. To address both of these areas, I extended one of the questions that was originally proposed for the third interview. Instead of only asking, "What are your students like?" I suggested that we add a series of sub-questions to ensure that we gathered demographic information

about the PSTs' students and to probe their ideas further. These sub-questions included: "What are the racial/ethnic/gender/class distributions in your classes? What's the range of abilities? Do you have any sense of what's contributing to differences among students? How do you deal with that range of abilities?" Thus, these questions helped the AL project collect information about the PSTs' perceptions of their students' literacy abilities and assisted me in gaining further insights into the PSTs' perceptions of their students and their teaching context.

My work conducting and analyzing the interviews enabled me to develop a more nuanced awareness of how PSTs with different disciplinary backgrounds perceived of literacy in relation to their teaching certification area. For example, many of the PSTs seeking certification in math had a difficult time defining literacy in relation to their discipline. Some discussed reading story problems or deciphering mathematical symbols, and many of these PSTs struggled to identify how writing might be meaningfully integrated into a middle or high school math class. On the other hand, many of the PSTs seeking certification in history and the social sciences explained that history could not be taught without texts. They viewed reading as an essential aspect of developing historical understandings, thus, most of these PSTs defined literacy in relation to reading. Like their counterparts seeking certification in math, the history and social science PSTs had a more difficult time describing discipline specific *writing* tasks and approaches, although they were able to name writing activities they might do with their students, such as free writes, journal entries, and responses to essay questions. Seeing these differences across various disciplines made me more mindful of the influence of the different disciplinary backgrounds of the PSTs and made me wonder about the influence of their academic

minors (a topic I address in Ch. 4).

In addition to my work with the interviews, I also benefited from the collaborative work I did with the AL project team related to the assessments. We created assessment rubrics that sought to measure the PSTs' disciplinary understandings as well as their pedagogical content knowledge. Using the rubrics, we did a preliminary analysis of the assessment data for a sub-sample of PSTs, working at times individually and then collectively to assure inter-rater reliability. The group conversations the AL project team had during this work with the assessments led me to a deeper awareness of how the PSTs' understanding of disciplinary reading and texts developed and changed across their semesters in the TE program. For instance, I was not aware through my interview work of how the PSTs' attention to the language and structure of texts was more discipline specific after their first semester in the TE program than it was by the end of the program. This new awareness encouraged me to explore the interview and contextual data sources in more detail to explore what factors might have influenced this change. This collective work also influenced how I categorized the progression in PSTs' understanding of disciplinary reading and texts, as I now saw it as critical to consider the PSTs' disciplinary *and* pedagogical understandings and where they overlap (see Table 6, p. 125 where I outline the intellectual progression of PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history).

In addition to collaborating with and learning from colleagues at the University of Michigan, I also participated in a site visit to the University of Illinois, Chicago (UIC). Here Dr. Deanna Birdyshaw and I met with other scholars, including Dr. Cynthia Shanahan, who were creating instructional tools – based on how disciplinary experts read

– to support students' disciplinary learning in history. This experience reinforced for me the importance of making strong connections between the ways in which historians approach text and the types of instructional tools we might use with students to assist them in developing similar approaches to texts in history. I was particularly struck by our UIC colleagues' commitment to providing underserved students with access to a range of instructional tools that enabled the students to develop both their disciplinary understandings and discipline specific literacy skills.

My Study's Data Sources

Given my research questions and my interest in exploring the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and text and how these conceptions influenced their instruction, I used the AL Project interviews as my focal data, as PSTs explicitly addressed both of these topics here. I also explored in depth the AL Project assessments, in particular the sections on planning for instruction and analyzing texts (questions two and three). The assessments provided an additional perspective on the PSTs' understandings of disciplinary reading and texts and gave me some indication of what the PSTs were thinking about in terms of related instructional approaches. Furthermore, because the topics covered in the assessments and interviews were similar, I found the assessments particularly useful in corroborating or disconfirming patterns from my interview analysis. For example, in the assessments the PSTs explained how they might assist students in making connections between two historical texts; similarly, in interview one, we asked the PSTs to share how they might use texts with students (see Appendix D for assessment questions and Appendix E for interview protocols).

To further corroborate or disconfirm any patterns that emerged in my interview

and assessment analysis and to provide additional background information, I also analyzed the AL Project's contextual data sources. Because of the multiple roles I had in the TE program, I had a number of informal conversations with PSTs that enabled me to gain additional information about their personal backgrounds. Thus, I have more information about some of the PSTs' backgrounds and experiences than I do about other PSTs. Because this information was not collected systematically from everyone, I do not report on it in this dissertation.

Although I analyzed the data related to all of the PSTs, my most rigorous analysis focused on the seven PSTs with complete data sets: Jared, Kathy, Mark, Christa, John, Myron, and Rick (Table 3). It is important to note that there are more males represented in this group with complete data sets than we might anticipate given the equal number of male and female research participants in the group as a whole. However, based on my analysis and knowledge of these PSTs, there does not appear to be a gender-related rationale for the greater number of males than females with complete data sets.

In addition to the AL Project data, I conducted two more interviews with each of the three focal PSTs at the end of their first two years of teaching, and I also collected lesson and unit plans related to these years. As I noted previously, I do not include this data in this dissertation study.

Data Analysis Methods

To analyze this data set, I engaged in constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987), analyzing the interviews and assessments from each PST multiple times to seek patterns in their comments within and across individuals and

Table 3: Interview and Assessment Data by Preservice Teacher.

	I 1 End of Sem. 1	I 2 End of Sem. 2	I 3 End of Sem. 3	I 4 & 5 End of Year 1 & Year 2	A 1 Before TE program	A 2 End of Sem. 1	A 3 End of Sem. 2	A 4 End of Sem. 3
Jared	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kathy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Mark	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Christa	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
John	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Myron	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Rick	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
Alex	X	X			X	X	X	X
Bethany*	X	X			X	X	X	X
Georgia+	X	X			X	X	X	
Howard	X	X			X	X	X	X
Michelle	X	X			X	X	X	X
Stacey	X				X	X	X	X
Ameena			X		X	X	X	X
Jessica					X	X	X	X
Scott					X	X	X	X

I = Interview   A= Assessment

The first 7 PSTs with their names in bold had complete data sets, thus I focused my most rigorous analysis on them.

* Bethany spent only her first semester with this cohort, as she deferred her second semester to complete some of her academic major requirements. However, she did participate in the second interview and the third and fourth assessments as a member of a different cohort, who had the same TE program components as this cohort did. For the purposes of this dissertation, I only analyzed her data sources related to her participation with this cohort.

+ Georgia was not able to complete her student teaching semester, so she did not do the Administration 4 assessment or Interview 3.

within and across semesters. My goal was similar to that articulated by Strauss (1987): "to generate a theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior which is relevant and problematic for those involved" in the activity (p. 34). In this case, how did the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and text and their ideas about discipline specific reading instructional approaches change over the course of their TE program? And what seems to account for these changes? My analysis proceeded in two main phases with an initial focus on individual PSTs and then on each semester in the TE program (Table 4).

Taking a layered case study approach (Patton, 1990), I first created participant case reports within a semester based on my analysis of the interviews, assessments, and contextual data for *each PST* during *each semester* in the TE program (see Appendix E for an excerpt from a participant case report). To help me focus my analysis on the PSTs with the most complete data sets, I organized the PSTs into three groups:

- Group 1 participants – the three focal PSTs: Jared, Kathy, and Mark

- Group 2 participants – the four remaining PSTs with complete data sets: Christa, John, Myron, and Rick

- Group 3 participants – the nine remaining PSTs for whom I had data for some semesters but not others: Alex, Bethany, Georgia, Howard, Michelle, Stacey, Ameena, Jessica, and Scott.

For each semester's data sources, I began by analyzing the data for the focal PSTs, moving to the other 4 PSTs with complete data sets, and finally to the remaining PSTs.

After completing case reports for each PST for each semester, I turned to creating semester case reports (see Appendix G for an excerpt from a semester case report). Because not all PSTs participated in the interviews – the richest data source related to my

Table 4: Overview of Data Analysis Process.

Phase 1 – Participant Case Reports	Phase 2 – Semester Case Reports
For each semester's data sources, I followed this process to create participant case reports: 1. Group 1 Participants (3 focal PSTs: Jared, Kathy, Mark). Analyzed all data sources for each of these PSTs for a semester. Identified emerging codes. Created participant case reports for each PST. 2. Group 2 Participants (4 PSTs with complete data sets: Christa, John, Myron, Rick): Using the emerging codes from my analysis above, analyzed all data sources for these PSTs for the same semester. Based on this analysis, refined codes and returned to 3 focal PSTs' data sources to substantiate these codes. Created participant case reports for each PST in this group. Refined case reports for focal PSTs as this analysis warranted. 3. Group 3 Participants (9 remaining PSTs). Using the refined codes from the previous step, analyzed all the data sources for the 9 remaining PSTs for the same semester. Based on this analysis, further refined codes and returned to data sources from the above 7 PSTs to substantiate these codes. Created participant case reports for each PST in this group. Refined case reports for the other 7 PSTs as this analysis warranted.	After completing the participant case reports, I then turned to semester case reports, using the following process: 1. Analyzed all participant cases for Semester 1. Based on core codes that emerged, created a Semester 1 case report. 2. Analyzed all participant cases for Semester 2. Based on core codes from Semester 1 and any new core codes from this semester, created a Semester 2 case report. 3. Compared Semester 1 and 2 case reports. Refined Semester 1 and 2 case reports as needed. Recorded preliminary findings on a cross-semester analysis chart. 4. Analyzed all participant cases for Semester 3. Based on core codes from Semester 1 & 2 and any new core codes from this semester, created a Semester 3 case report. 5. Compared Semester 1, 2, and 3 case reports. Refined all case reports as needed. Recorded preliminary findings on a cross-semester analysis chart.

research questions – I only included in my semester case reports PSTs for whom I had

interview and assessment responses (Table 3, p. 113). Thus, the number of PSTs

included in the semester case reports fluctuated each semester (semester 1 = 13 PSTs;

semester 2 = 11 PSTs; semester 3 = 7 PSTs). To create the semester case reports, I read

across the participant case reports for those PSTs with complete data sets, seeking patterns about the group's conceptions and instructional ideas related to reading and texts in history. I engaged in this same process for each semester's data sources, completing within semester analyses before doing a final cross-semester analysis (see Appendix H for an excerpt of a cross-semester analysis).

Based on my research questions, I sought evidence each semester of the PSTs': 1) conceptions of reading and texts in history; 2) ideas about instruction related to reading and texts in history; 3) understanding of their field context, including their understanding of their students' literacy abilities and demographic backgrounds; and, 4) perceptions of what was influencing these conceptions (i.e., disciplinary coursework, TE coursework, field experiences, understanding of their students). The initial analyses I did for the AL Project and my collaborative work with the AL team on the assessment rubric made me attentive to early emerging codes such as the ways in which the PSTs used disciplinary language. For example, did the PSTs use the term "primary sources" and if so, did they provide an explanation of the term or were they just appropriating the language? As a result of my initial analysis, numerous codes emerged related to the four broad areas I noted above, ranging from the PSTs' use of disciplinary language to the reading approaches they discussed wanting to teach their students to use.

Furthermore, as I proceeded with my analysis of the three groups of participants and through each semester's data sources, these codes became further refined (Table 5). For example, with regards to conceptions of disciplinary literacy, I noted that the PSTs focused much of their commentary on their conceptions of disciplinary texts and about instructional practices related to using texts in history. My subsequent analysis resulted

Table 5: Sample Initial and Refined Codes.

Open Coding	Axial Coding	Selective Coding
Conceptions of disciplinary literacy	Conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history	5 dimensions to their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts: - Types of disciplinary texts - Roles of disciplinary texts - Approaches to disciplinary texts - Role of students in Disciplinary reading - Reading challenges students may face with disciplinary texts
Use of disciplinary language	Three categories: - Appropriate just the term - Use the term appropriately with general explanation - Use the term appropriately with discipline specific explanation	Did not use in this format in final analysis, but it became embedded in the continuum I created related to the progression in PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts (see Ch. 4).
Disciplinary texts	Five categories: - Conception of text - Criteria for selecting text - Ways to use texts - Textbook critiques - Textbook uses	Examine PSTs' commentary regarding each of these areas to determine where their conceptions fell on the general to discipline specific continuum.
Reading approaches	Two categories: - Ways to teach students to read like historians - Reading activities related to the before-during-after reading framework	Examined PSTs' commentary regarding each of these areas to determine where their conceptions fell on the general to discipline specific continuum.

in the following axial codes: PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary texts; criteria for selecting

disciplinary texts; ways to use disciplinary texts; critiques of history textbooks; and ways

to use history textbooks. I noticed that the PSTs' ideas about each of these categories fell

within a range from quite general and content neutral to discipline specific. Further

analysis resulted in selective codes that reflected the discipline specificity of the PSTs'

conceptions of each of these refined codes.

There were, of course, codes that emerged early on that at first seemed promising

but that I did not pursue in my final rounds of analysis. For example, I initially analyzed

the PSTs' general conceptions of literacy in addition to their conceptions of disciplinary

reading in history. Although it was interesting to see how the PSTs' conceptions of

literacy broadened over time including more than just reading and writing, my research

questions focus specifically on disciplinary reading in history, not on their general

conceptions of literacy. Because of the large amount of data related to this dissertation, it

became clear to me as I proceeded with my analysis that I needed to focus my final

rounds of analysis on those codes most germane to my research questions. Thus, I did

not focus explicitly on the PSTs' ideas about literacy writ large unless warranted by the

PSTs' commentary (e.g., see Rick and Kathy in Ch. 4).

Although Tables 4 and 5 might make it seem like my analysis followed a linear

path, it was an iterative process, requiring me to return to the PSTs' interviews and

assessments numerous times as new codes emerged and as I sought to refine these codes

(Strauss, 1987). For example, during my analysis of Group 2's interview responses from

semester one, I began to see that some PSTs provided rationales for their instructional

ideas, while others did not. Because I thought this might be a promising avenue to pursue

across all of the PSTs' responses, I returned to Group 1's interview responses (which I

had analyzed previously) to determine the extent to which they also provided rationales.

As a result, I had to amend their case reports in response to this "new" emerging code. I

engaged in a similar iterative process numerous times throughout my analysis.

Ethical and Validity Considerations

With regards to this study, I acknowledge that there are several potential ethical and validity considerations. First, my analysis of the data reveals that several of the PSTs talked in the interviews about negative experiences they had with their past teachers, cooperating teachers, and/or university instructors. I chose to include this information when it seemed to influence the PSTs' conceptions and instructional approaches related to disciplinary reading and texts in history. However, I did not include PSTs' negative comments about individuals. Above and beyond the goals of this study, it is important that I do not put other people's reputations and work in jeopardy; further, I need to retain a positive working relationship with the cooperating teachers and university instructors due to my responsibilities outside of this dissertation study.

To increase the validity of this study and its findings, I have taken several measures. As mentioned previously, I used constant comparative analysis, seeking additional evidence as needed to confirm or disconfirm my evolving findings. I triangulated the data by analyzing both the focal and contextual data sets. As part of this analysis, I looked for disconfirming cases, ensuring that I amended my interpretations and findings based on this evidence. For example, one of my initial findings was that the PSTs' orientation towards students was a significant influence on their use of discipline specific reading instructional approaches. However, closer analysis revealed that this was not a significant factor for *all* of the PSTs. Thus, I returned to the data to seek both confirming and disconfirming cases, and I amended my findings accordingly.

In addition to these measures, I provide a detailed description of my data analysis and findings, so that readers may evaluate for themselves the validity of my work. I have

also been explicit about my biases and perspectives on the issues related to this study. My role as a field instructor, AL Project team member, and former classroom teacher afforded me the perspective of an "insider," as I was familiar with these PSTs, with their TE coursework and field contexts, and of what it means to work with under-served students in challenging circumstances. I believe these experiences enabled me to holistically consider the influences on these PSTs. While I consider these multiple roles affordances, I recognize that some readers might be concerned about research bias; thus, I asked colleagues involved with the larger AL Project to offer me their perspectives on my analysis and findings.

I recognize that issues of studenting – trying to provide the "right" answer – as well as the power differential between the study participants and the researcher have the potential to influence the participants' responses. This study's participants were a group of successful college students who wanted to provide the "right" answers, and perhaps even more so when the researcher was responsible for grading them. Acknowledging the potential influences here, I did *not* conduct the interviews with the history and social science PSTs during semesters one and two, the semesters in which I was the PSTs' field instructor. Due to scheduling issues during semester three, I did conduct four of the interviews with the six PSTs for whom I remained a field instructor. I recognize that this might have influenced what the PSTs said – or did not say – during these interviews. Thus, the contextual data sources for these PSTs became an even more significant aspect to my analysis and helped in corroborating the comments and ideas the PSTs expressed in the interviews. Furthermore, the personal relationships I developed with the PSTs,

particularly the three focal PSTs, helped me to determine places in the interviews where they might have been "studenting."

I see fostering a reciprocal relationship with study participants as an integral part of my research and work. Although I have not been as useful to the PSTs in this study as they have been to me, I do make a concerted effort to offer them on-going support and information. I have met with all three of the focal PSTs since their graduation, and I continue to keep in touch with them. To further enhance this trusting partnership, I asked the focal PSTs to analyze my written descriptions of their field contexts, and I used their feedback to revise my descriptions as warranted.

Possibilities and Constraints

The participants and data sources, as well as my personal background, present certain possibilities and constraints to this study's findings. First, my research questions and conception of disciplinary literacy, and more specifically of disciplinary reading and texts in history, necessitated that I have a small sample size of PSTs. This enabled me to explore in detail the PSTs' developing ideas and experiences with disciplinary reading and its related instructional approaches. Although this reduces the transferability of my findings to other contexts and disciplines, it enabled me to examine nuances and subtleties in a way that working with a larger sample would not make feasible. Furthermore, although most of my study's findings are particular to these PSTs, some of the findings related to the general influences on PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading, such as their disciplinary backgrounds and TE coursework, might prove to be relevant to PSTs of other disciplinary and demographic backgrounds.

Second, although my primary data source for this study, a set of semi-structured interviews, provided rich data, there are several cautionary factors I attempted to acknowledge throughout my analysis. As I mentioned previously, the PSTs may have taken a studenting role during the interviews, attempting to provide the "right" answers to the interview prompts. This was sometimes evident by the PSTs' comments, such as, "I was just trying to give you the right definition of literacy." Other times the impact of the interview context and my involvement in their TE program and the AL Project may have had a more subtle influence on the PSTs' comments. To help counter these issues, I analyzed multiple data sources ranging from the TE assessments to field observation notes of the PSTs' teaching. As I outlined in my data analysis plan, the contextual data sources serve as further evidence, either to substantiate or counter the PSTs' interview comments.

Finally, my own experiences, personal background, and theoretical perspective shape what I see and how I make sense of the study's data sources. Because of this, I attend to details that other researchers and readers might not. Throughout this study, I have attempted to make my role with the study participants and my theoretical orientation towards this work transparent, so that the reader can understand my analytic perspective and choices. Throughout my findings chapters, I have included sections of interview transcriptions and assessment responses to illustrate my claims, but also to enable the reader to interpret some of the data for himself or herself.

Chapter 4:
Preservice Teachers' Conceptions of Reading & Texts in History

Understanding the extent to which the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their middle and high school students requires first examining the PSTs' conceptions. With limited research on the ways in which prospective teachers think about disciplinary reading and texts over the course of their teacher education, there are several questions that I explore in this chapter. How discipline specific were the PSTs' ideas about reading and texts in history? To what extent did their conceptions change over time? What level of variance existed among PSTs' levels of understanding? What appeared to influence their conceptions? The answers to these questions are particularly pertinent for teacher educators, whose goal is to encourage and support PSTs in using relevant discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. Knowing what PSTs think about disciplinary reading and texts in history at different points in time will help us as teacher educators to more effectively plan and tailor our instruction to our PSTs.

Based on my analysis, I have identified several broad findings:

- PSTs' conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts varied within and across semesters in terms of their complexity and depth.

- PSTs had a greater understanding of disciplinary reading in history at the end of their teacher education program then they did at the beginning, and their teacher education coursework seemed particularly influential here.

- PSTs' conceptions of literacy and history became more integrated over time.

- PSTs exhibited different patterns of growth with regards to their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, due in large part to their disciplinary understandings.

- Prior to their entry into the TE program, the main influences on PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history appear to be their academic majors and their experiences using disciplinary reading practices themselves as students.

To explore these findings in more detail, I have organized this chapter into three sections. First, I explain the intellectual progression in PSTs' conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts in history. I show how PSTs' ideas ranged along a continuum from general to developing to discipline specific. Second, I highlight two PSTs who exhibited different growth patterns in their conceptions, describing how their ideas changed over time and the factors that may have influenced these changes. Finally, I speculate about how the PSTs' early experiences with history as students themselves influenced their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts.

Before proceeding with my analysis, I want to remind the reader of the distinction I am making between *disciplinary literacy* and *disciplinary reading* in history. As I outlined in the introductory chapter to this study, I consider disciplinary literacy to be a broad concept that relates to the discipline specific ways of interrogating and constructing knowledge and the literacy-related skills and tasks related to this work (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008).[33] I focus in this dissertation on the latter part of this conception – the literacy-related skills and tasks – specifically, the PSTs' ideas about

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[33] See Chapter 2 for an extended discussion of disciplinary literacy in history.

disciplinary reading and texts. All history teachers must make decisions about what types of texts to use with their students, about the role these texts will take in their instruction and student learning, and about how to teach students to approach these texts. Furthermore, history teachers also have to consider the role students will play as they work with texts and the reading challenges associated with particular texts. Of all the dimensions of disciplinary literacy, PSTs discuss disciplinary reading and texts most often and with most detail. Thus, in the remainder of this chapter, I focus my analysis and discussion on disciplinary reading and texts, although I do note at times the broader concept of disciplinary literacy as it relates to the PSTs' commentary.

Intellectual Progression of PSTs' Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts

The PSTs' discussion of disciplinary reading and texts reveals that they have different levels of understanding, both within and across semesters. To help us better understand the progression in PSTs' conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts, I analyzed the degree to which their conceptions were discipline specific. This led me to characterize PSTs' conceptions as either *general*, *developing*, or *discipline specific* along several dimensions related to disciplinary reading and texts (Table 6). In defining these categories, I began by considering the ways in which historians view, approach, and use texts (Collingwood, 1946; Lévesque, 2008; VanSledright, 2009; Wineburg, 1991) and the conceptual tools presented in the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Studies Methods* courses. I was also mindful of the four components of the interactive reading model, the reader, text, and context (Rumelhart, 1977, 2004; Snow, 2002). In addition, I considered the PSTs' epistemological understandings about knowledge and about

Table 6: Progression in PSTs' Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading in History.

Dimensions	*General*	*Developing*	*Discipline Specific*
Types of Disciplinary Texts	Discusses only print-based texts (not images, maps, charts, etc.). No to limited explanation of how these texts are relevant in history. Sees texts as either "primary" or "secondary," and discusses wanting to teach students to label texts as one or the other.	Discusses multiple text formats and provides some explanation as to how they are relevant to history. References primary and secondary sources, provides plausible examples of each, but does not focus solely on labeling texts as one or the other.	Discusses multiple text formats and provides reasonable explanations as to how they are relevant to history. References primary and secondary sources, provides plausible examples of each, and focuses on the affordances of particular texts. Commentary about types of text is integrated with other dimensions of reading in history.
Role of Texts in the Discipline	Focus is on general not discipline specific purposes. Emphasizes role of textbook over other forms of text. May make broad statements about the importance of texts in the history classroom, but provides little explanation.	Focus is more on discipline specific purposes than general ones. Discusses role of textbook and primary sources, with emphasis on the latter. May mention that texts should engage students. Provides some explanation as to the role texts play in history.	Focus is on discipline specific purposes. Discusses the role that multiple forms of text play in historical inquiry. Offers critique of textbooks, but discusses ways to use them in meaningful and discipline specific ways. Commentary about the role of texts is integrated with other dimensions of reading in history.
Approaches to Disciplinary Texts	Focus is on retrieving information from texts, as opposed to making meaning or critically examining texts. Makes no to limited connections between reading approaches and their relevance to history. May use the language associated with reading heuristics in history (e.g., sourcing), but is more an act of labeling than explaining.	Focus is more on making meaning from texts. May discuss the importance of being a "critical" reader and reference historians' reading process, but neither concept is well developed. Makes some connections between reading approaches, such as reading heuristics, and their relevance to history, but these are not well developed and integrated throughout the PSTs' commentary.	Focus is on making meaning from texts. Makes reasonable connections between reading approaches, such as reading heuristics, and their relevance to history; these are well developed throughout commentary. Identifies plausible challenges students may face as they use specific reading approaches and offers modifications to the approach. Commentary about approaches to text is integrated with other dimensions of reading in history.
Role of Students in Disciplinary Reading	Positions students to retrieve information from texts. Does not give students an active role in making meaning from texts.	Positions students to take an active role in critically examining texts, but comments are more content neutral than specific to history.	Positions students to take an active role in critically examining texts, interpreting and synthesizing evidence, and creating arguments. Comments about the role of students are history specific. Commentary about students' role in disciplinary reading is integrated with other dimensions of reading in history.
Reading Challenges Students May Face with Disciplinary Texts	Identifies challenging textual features, such as run-on sentences or new terminology, but provides little explanation as to how these features are connected to the discipline. May also state that students may struggle when reading primary sources, but provides little related explanation.	Identifies challenging textual features, and provides some explanation as to how these features are connected to the discipline. For example, may identify that language used in the text will be challenging to students, as it has a particular meaning given the historical context in which it was used which may be unfamiliar to students (periodized language). May also describe challenging historical concepts, but provides limited explanation.	Identifies challenging textual features and/or historical concepts, and provides sound and extended explanation as to how these are connected to the discipline. For example, may identify that some students struggle to understand and appreciate an historical figure's actions, as students often lack historical empathy, which is a key skill required in understanding texts in history. Commentary about reading challenges is integrated with other dimensions of reading in history.

history, and how these varied for PSTs at different levels of understanding (King & Kitchener, 1994). Finally, I refined the dimensions by considering their relative significance for teaching history and their presence in the PSTs' commentary.

The PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts varied with regards to:

a) the *types of texts* relevant for history instruction;

b) *the role of texts* in the history classroom;

c) the ways to *approach texts* in history;

d) *the role of students* when working with disciplinary texts; and,

e) *the reading challenges* that students might face when using disciplinary texts.

Note that the first three dimensions relate to the discipline and the ways in which historians approach and use texts, whereas the final two dimensions are more relevant to history instruction. However, as we look at the progression of PSTs' conceptions from general to discipline specific, there is a noticeable integration of these five dimensions, including PSTs' being more mindful of the role students play in working with disciplinary texts.

By the end of the TE program, all PSTs demonstrated growth in their overall understanding of disciplinary reading and texts. Table 7 summarizes how many PSTs were at each level of understanding at the end of each of their semesters in the TE program. We can see over time that the PSTs' conceptions moved into the developing and discipline specific categories. What is not apparent from these numbers is that even the conceptions of PSTs, who began the TE program with discipline specific ideas about reading and texts, grew over their three semesters in the TE program. Similarly, there were PSTs whose conceptions developed but not enough to move them to a higher level of understanding. Furthermore, these numbers do not reveal the substance of the PSTs'

Table 7: Number of Preservice Teachers at Each Level of Understanding.

Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts	End of 1st Semester in TE Program	End of 2nd Semester in TE Program	End of 3rd Semester in TE Program
General	54%	36%	0
Developing	23%	36%	57%
Discipline Specific	23%	27%	43%
N*	13	11	7

* Recall that the number of PSTs each semester fluctuated; thus, I included in my semester analyses only those PSTs for whom I had interview *and* assessment responses, as the assessment responses alone did not provide enough information for me to be able to characterize their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history. See pp. 113 – 114, 117.

conceptions or give us any indication of why PSTs' ideas changed over time. Thus, in what follows I begin by exploring each dimension of disciplinary reading in detail, and I then illustrate the growth patterns in PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts.

Types of Disciplinary Texts

All the PSTs discussed texts relevant in history instruction, but their conceptions varied with regards to the range of texts discussed and the connections they made between the text format and its relevance to the study of history. For PSTs with *general* conceptions of texts, they focused their commentary on print-based texts, such as the textbook and written primary sources like diary entries. Most of their comments about types of texts had to do with differentiating between primary and secondary print-based sources. Moreover, they did not explain how these texts were relevant in developing students' understanding of history.

In addition, PSTs with general understandings of the types of texts necessary in history were more likely than their peers to hold significant misconceptions. For

instance, we can see Alex's confusion about the similarities and differences between primary and secondary texts in the following passage:

> They [students] have to be able to understand textbook stuff, too. It's not all primary sources. Probably they're just as important as one another. I mean you gotta be able to learn about reading just like the facts. You gotta be able to distinguish between the fact that it's a textbook that's so broad versus a primary source which is written for a purpose as opposed to written for an audience. I think, even, I guess primary sources are written for an audience, too.

Alex noted that there is a place in the history classroom for both the textbook and other sources. He also suggested that students need to read for factual information; while true, Alex did not mention here or elsewhere in the data sources that students can learn "facts" from primary sources and that students also need to read for purposes other than "fact finding." Moreover, Alex initially explained that primary sources are written for a purpose, not necessarily an audience, though he corrected himself in the following sentences. What Alex did not acknowledge is that *textbooks* are also written for particular purposes and audiences. PSTs with a greater understanding of the types of texts relevant for history instruction did not have such confusions.

In contrast, PSTs with *developing* conceptions of the types of texts useful in history had broader conceptions of disciplinary texts and made attempts to link particular texts to their relevance in studying history. First, these PSTs discussed a wide range of texts that they wanted to use or did use with their students, and they named specific types of primary sources, such as political speeches, diary/journal entries, newspaper articles, and eyewitness accounts.

Second, these PSTs began to provide some rationales as to why particular texts are relevant in history instruction. For example, Mark mentioned how using multiple texts about the same historical time period or event can "show all these different

interpretations of the same thing." He went on to explain how he wanted his students to "…think of something like an historical event, not just in terms of how the textbook shows it, but how different people can perceive it." Although Mark does not explicitly link particular types of texts with the ways in which they foster historical understanding, his comments here suggest that he viewed history as inclusive of multiple perspectives and interpretations; because of this, it was necessary for him to use a variety of texts and textual formats with his students. PSTs with more general conceptions of text did not make these links between historical perspective and the types of texts necessary for developing students' historical thinking.

As PSTs' understandings of the types of texts relevant for history instruction developed further, some PSTs exhibited *discipline specific* conceptions. Like those with developing ideas, these PSTs also mentioned a wide range of text formats, although they made more explicit links between particular texts and their relevance for studying history, often referencing the work of historians. In addition to the range of text formats that their peers mentioned, PSTs with discipline specific understandings placed an even greater emphasis on using visual images, such as photographs, paintings, sculptures, and video. As John mentioned, these texts also require interpretation and help to build students' analytic skills in history.

Furthermore, these PSTs expressed wanting to use a range of texts with their students, and they made clear connections as to how this is more reflective of what historians do. This is apparent in Jared's explanation of why multiple texts, as opposed to only the textbook, are necessary in the history classroom:

> One of the problems with studying just from a textbook is it's very cohesive. It's been processed; it's a nice little package. And it's delivered to you. But that's

not what a historian does. Much of a historian's job is going back and just sorting out what happened. Who said what and who thought what.

Jared went on to describe how historians look at multiple sources, question and analyze them, and then use them to develop an argument. Jared's understanding of what it means to engage in historical inquiry appeared to influence his conception of why multiple types of text are needed in the history classroom. PSTs with less developed conceptions of disciplinary texts did not reference historians or the inquiry process they utilize as reasons for using particular texts in the history classroom.

Role of Texts in History

Closely connected to the types of texts needed in the history classroom is the role such texts should play in instruction and student learning. PSTs' ideas about this ranged from providing students with factual information to engaging students in the content to enabling students to develop an understanding of history as interpretive.

PSTs with *general* conceptions of text also had equally content-neutral ideas about the purpose of such texts. Overall, PSTs with general conceptions about the role of text focused their commentary on the textbook, although a few PSTs in this group mentioned the role primary sources might play in the classroom. In general, these PSTs considered the textbook to be the source of information, not an authored text that presents a viewpoint. As Kathy commented, "the textbook knows which things are most important" for the majority of high school students. Although these PSTs noted that it was important to use other types of texts, they put the textbook at the center of instruction as the primary source of knowledge.

These PSTs also mentioned print-based primary sources as important to use in the classroom; however, their comments were brief, just scratching the surface on the role

these texts might play in instruction. For example, Rick stated that "primary sources are crucial for student understanding of history and without these it is impossible to formulate a balanced opinion of events that have occurred in history." Although Rick expressed that primary sources can build students' understanding of history, he did not elaborate on this idea, leaving us to wonder how he believed these texts might serve to present a "balanced" perspective of historical events. Similarly, Myron discussed primary documents as sources of controversy that bring the "argument" into history. Although they might serve in this capacity, Myron, like Rick, did not expand on this idea or acknowledge that there are other roles primary sources might play in the classroom.

In contrast to PSTs with general conceptions of the role of disciplinary texts in the classroom, PSTs with *developing* ideas positioned texts in ways more reflective of the discipline. They recognized that both the textbook and primary documents are important to use in the classroom. Unlike PSTs with more general conceptions, these PSTs provided some critique of the textbook and placed a greater emphasis on using primary sources. These PSTs also focused on the importance of using texts to engage students in the content.

First, PSTs with developing views of the purpose of disciplinary texts did not view the textbook as *the* source of information, rather as providing an overview of the content. These PSTs also began to critique the textbook, making comments about the difficulty in "seeing" the author of the textbook in the writing and about how the textbook authors do not "document" their claims. In addition, these PSTs mentioned that the textbook does not foster critical thinking in the ways that primary sources do. These types of critiques suggest that these PSTs were beginning to more clearly see the

connections between the discipline and the role texts might play in fostering historical thinking. Despite the limitations they noted about textbooks, these PSTs did think that textbooks should play a role in student learning, particularly if they were used "correctly." For instance, Mark explained that textbooks can provide students with some background knowledge before they engage with other types of texts that present different perspectives on the historical event or time period being studied. He went on to describe how he had students read the textbook before working with primary sources, as the textbook enabled the students "to better understand the argument."

Second, although these PSTs viewed the textbook as playing a supporting role in student learning, they focused most of their discussion on primary sources and the importance of using a variety of texts, from photographs to personal accounts to newspaper articles. These PSTs mentioned how primary sources can bring multiple perspectives into the classroom and "show all these different interpretations" of the same event. As Mark articulated, this then provides students with an opportunity to see history as inclusive of multiple stories, perspectives, and interpretations, not just as *a* story.

Furthermore, despite noting this more discipline specific purpose for texts, PSTs at this level of understanding seemed taken with the idea that texts serve to "engage students in the content." For example, Mark repeatedly mentioned that he wanted to use multiple types of primary sources to "get the students to connect" with history. Although it is reasonable to suggest that primary sources hold more potential than the textbook for sparking students' interests, this is a more general than discipline specific role for texts to play in history. Thus, these PSTs seem to be still working through the roles that primary sources might serve in student learning.

In contrast, PSTs with *discipline specific* conceptions of the role of texts connected their rationales for using particular texts to what it means to study and learn in history. Similar to PSTs with developing ideas, these PSTs discussed the importance of using a range of texts, but they included the textbook in more meaningful ways even though they had very strong critiques of the role it often serves in history classrooms. In addition, these PSTs were not as focused on differentiating between the role of primary and secondary sources, instead emphasizing that history's interpretive nature requires the use of texts that show different perspectives and interpretations of historical events.

First, PSTs with discipline specific ideas about the role texts might serve in the classroom had strong critiques about how textbooks are often utilized and they offered alternative ideas for the role textbooks might play in student learning. These PSTs recognized that textbooks are often "deified" as having "all the answers," and when they are positioned in this way, the interpretive, contested – and intriguing – aspects of history are lost. As Jared explained, "I would try and avoid using the textbook as not only the source but also the interpreter. I believe that reading is more rewarding if we can teach students to interpret texts for themselves." Jared's comments here suggest that the role of texts is not to provide and interpret information for students – it is the *student's* job to make sense of and use this information. Jared went on to explain how teachers can re-position textbooks so that students can get an overview of the content from the secondary, "more filtered" perspective that textbooks provide. From here, teachers can then work on expanding students' conceptions of history using other types of texts.

Second, PSTs with discipline specific ideas about the role of texts did not emphasize as much as their peers did the distinctions between the roles primary and

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secondary sources might play. Instead, these PSTs focused on using multiple texts – both

primary and secondary sources – to develop students' understanding of history. John's

comments about the types of texts and the role they might play in his instruction illustrate

this:

> I think it is important to include both primary and secondary sources – this means
> a textbook or two (the school I am in right now actually has three separate
> textbooks that are used through the year), several different primary (letters,
> proclamations, diary entries, paintings, photographs, etc.) and secondary (film,
> critical texts, etc.) sources.

John then discussed how using a range of sources helped students to see history as

accounts of events, not history as just the events themselves. In a first unit he might

teach his tenth graders, John explained that he would "include the students being able to

encounter a text . . . and understand that any representation of an event is just one

perspective."   This conception of text – and the role it plays in student learning – is

linked closely to the idea of history as interpretation. PSTs with less discipline specific

ideas about the role of texts did not make this strong of a link between history and the

role texts might play in developing students' historical understandings.

Approaches to Disciplinary Texts

Overall, the PSTs most often discussed the approaches or ways one should read

texts in history, which makes sense given the emphasis on reading approaches in both the

PSTs' *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses. The

PSTs' understandings about approaches to disciplinary texts ranged according to: 1) the

significance they placed on making meaning from text as opposed to using texts to

extract information; 2) the connections they made between historical inquiry and the

reading practices necessary to fully engage in this process; and, 3) their

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acknowledgement of issues students might face in utilizing particular reading approaches.

PSTs with *general* conceptions focused on non-discipline specific approaches to text, such as finding factual information or looking for the main idea. As mentioned previously, they viewed texts as warehouses of information, not as authored texts with a viewpoint or as potential evidence relevant to an historical question. These PSTs sometimes referenced reading heuristics in history, such as "Who is the author? What is the context?" However, this was more an act of naming than of explaining how these questions might guide students in their understanding and exploration of historical questions. Only Myron elaborated on this topic, explaining that it is important in history "to be able to look at someone's writing and understand their assumptions and their main arguments in their points of view." Although this is a more detailed response than just listing the reading heuristics as other PSTs at this level of understanding did, Myron did not try to offer a rationale as to why understanding the author's assumptions might be relevant and important when reading in history.

In contrast to PSTs who discussed non-discipline specific approaches to texts, PSTs with *developing* ideas focused on making meaning from texts, as opposed to retrieving information. First, they emphasized the importance of being a critical reader, and they made some connections between reading heuristics for history and the significance of this approach to the discipline. Furthermore, a few of these PSTs even explained that they wanted to teach their students to read in the ways that historians read, but they did not make explicit what this process entails. Third, these PSTs were more likely than their peers to suggest that the reading approaches students learn in history are not just academic skills but life skills.

First of all, these PSTs discussed the idea of being a "critical" reader and how it is important in history to ask questions of the text. When these PSTs discussed reading heuristics in history, they provided more explanation and did not just list the orienting questions that their peers with general conceptions of disciplinary reading did. For example, Mark discussed the importance of placing texts in their historical context to help the reader make sense of how the audience may have influenced the content and style of the author's writing. Howard expanded upon these ideas, discussing how when you consider the time period and context,

> It becomes different when you read it with that in mind, when you're looking for certain things. You'll find certain things that you wouldn't notice before. Then if you read it in terms of the people, the author, why he wrote this and who he was writing for, then you start to see other pieces and it all kind of comes together. It's not just a story right here, but there's more to it and you can read it in different ways.

Here Howard began to offer an explanation as to how the questions one asks of a text can alter what the reader takes away from it. Although Mark and Howard, as well as other PSTs with developing understandings of how to approach texts, provided some rationale as to why it is important to consider historical reading heuristics, their rationales were limited and not as nuanced and connected to the discipline as those with more sophisticated understandings.

Second, PSTs with developing conceptions recognized that historians use a certain process as they engage with text, and they referenced outright their desire to teach students to "read like historians." For example, Mark explained that he wanted to be very clear with his students when teaching them to use reading heuristics in history. He even stated what he would say to his students, "As an historian, you have to approach text in this way." By making historians' reading approaches explicit, Mark argued that students

may then see themselves as taking on the role of historians and may be more comfortable challenging what they have read. Although Mark referenced historians and their reading process, he did not unpack the approach or explain what aspects of it might be applicable for his students, which is something his peers with discipline specific understandings did.

Finally, PSTs with developing conceptions discussed how the analytic reading skills students develop in history are helpful life skills. For instance, in the following passage Howard discussed the usefulness of the reading process students learn to use with history texts:

> You're reading in a certain way, but a certain way that can be used for the rest of your life. I mean looking at who writes things, why they wrote it, potential biases they might have, I mean that's something very important for the rest of your life, when reading the newspaper, determining who to vote for.

He continued in this passage, explaining how the skills students develop when analyzing primary sources, pictures, maps, and statistical data are useful life skills, not just academic skills. Identifying how reading skills useful in history may transfer to other aspects of students' lives indicates that these PSTs were thinking about the relationship between history and the broader context. PSTs with general conceptions did not make these types of connections.

Illustrating the highest level of understanding among the PSTs in this cohort were those with *discipline specific* ideas about how to approach texts in history. These PSTs also focused on making meaning from texts, but their commentary suggests that they had a deeper awareness of how the nature of history shapes the disciplinary reading approaches necessary to develop historical understanding. Second, these PSTs identified plausible challenges students might face as they use particular reading approaches, suggesting appropriate modifications to the approach. Furthermore, these PSTs discussed

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disciplinary reading approaches to text in integrated ways, often referencing multiple dimensions of disciplinary reading in history in one short passage.

First, PSTs who demonstrated discipline specific conceptions about ways to approach text tied their descriptions of critical reading specifically to history. This is apparent in the following passage from Christa. She stated:

> The most important thing that comes to mind in terms of literacy instruction in history is learning ways to read a text that really delve into the deeper points of a text. I think that the most important part of reading history and writing history is being critical. Because, again, there are so many facets to history and history can be told in so many different ways, it's really important for students to be critical of different views of history. That's how they make their own opinion, that's how they have theoretical arguments that really bring out certain aspects of history. I think that you . . . can't take history as a given. I think that you have to be critical and thoughtful when you're reading history.

Here we notice how Christa's understanding of history as a discipline – history as multiple perspectives, not a "given" story, and inclusive of "theoretical arguments" – shaped her conception of how to approach texts in history. Thus, because history is interpretive, students must be critical readers and take active roles in making sense of history. This passage also reveals how PSTs with discipline specific conceptions of reading integrated their ideas about approaches to text with other dimensions of reading in history. In this short excerpt, for instance, Christa referenced approaches to text, the role of text, and the role of students; students with less developed conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts did not offer such integrated commentary.

Second, PSTs with discipline specific understandings of how to approach texts in history routinely considered how these approaches might translate to their work with students. For example, Jared discussed how he wanted his eighth grade students to engage in the historical inquiry process that historians use, but his students did not have

the disciplinary understandings or literacy skills to be able to do that fully. Thus, Jared

decided to focus on building students' disciplinary reading skills over time. He explained

how he began this work:

> Every week I try and do one primary document. In the beginning of the year, I set up criteria with the students. So each week [we discuss], W*hat's a primary document? What's a secondary document?* And we'll talk about the steps you've got to [take to] identify the author of the document, the title, the date it was written, and the event that was surrounding its creation. The second step, you have to summarize the document, whether it's a picture or written. And then you have to separate opinion from fact. For each document, we go through and we do those three steps so that they get an idea of the historical process and why we would use these old things from the past to form our own opinions.

Although Jared's comments here might make this process seem separate from the

content, my observations of his teaching suggest that he did integrate them in a way that

enabled students to apply the historical inquiry process to the historical context of their

current unit of study. Because what Jared was asking of students was new and

challenging, he began by introducing students to the reading approaches of sourcing and

contextualizing, providing them with significant scaffolding as they developed skill in

these areas.

Later in this interview Jared elaborated on how he encouraged students to use

their developing disciplinary reading and thinking skills in the exploration of an historical

question – *Considering Thomas Jefferson's involvement and views on slavery, should we*

consider him a hero or a criminal? Jared used both his understanding of the reading

approaches that historians utilize and of his students' literacy abilities and needs to craft

instructional approaches that developed students' disciplinary reading skills. PSTs with

less developed conceptions of approaches to texts in history did not discuss how the

historical inquiry process might apply to their work with students. Furthermore, similar

to Christa's commentary, Jared's remarks here show how his ideas on disciplinary reading are integrated, as he referenced the types of texts needed in history, the role of texts and students, approaches to texts, and potential reading challenges students might face with historical texts (see Table 6, p. 125 for descriptions of all five dimensions).

Role of Students

Unlike the previous dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts, this dimension, as well as the following on the challenges of reading historical texts, explicitly includes the PSTs' considerations of how *students* might be positioned and how they might interact with texts in history. Related to the PSTs' ideas about the role texts play in history is the role students take in working with these texts. PSTs with general conceptions of the role of text usually discussed students as working with texts in limited ways. Conversely, PSTs who had discipline specific conceptions of the role of texts were more likely to also view students as taking a highly active role when engaging with texts.[34]

PSTs with *general* conceptions of the role students take in working with texts focused on the students comprehending the text and retrieving information from it. Although students have to "work" to understand the text, this conception of their role does not require much in terms of higher order thinking. This perspective is illustrated in Georgia's definition of literacy:

> I would definitely define one part of it as the reading, writing, and comprehension
> of text. Another part would be the comprehension of images, graphs, visual

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[34] Unlike the other dimensions of the PSTs' ideas about disciplinary reading and text, PSTs rarely stated forthright the role students should take in working with texts; thus, the reader will note that the examples I use to illustrate the PSTs' conceptions about this require more interpretation and analysis than previous examples.

representations. Another end of it would be, I guess, group work and getting different ideas from different students for the comprehension purpose.

Notice here the emphasis on comprehension. Although Georgia stated that students need to be able to comprehend a range of texts – including written texts, visual images, and their peers' ideas – the emphasis is on understanding the information in each of these texts. This limits the cognitive demand on students and their role in engaging with the texts.

By the end of the second semester in the TE program, Georgia's views on what students need to be able to do with texts have grown slightly. This is apparent in the following passage:

> One is the importance and the significance of understanding different textual works, especially primary documents. Another is being able to comprehend and pull relevant information out of lectures, and then relate this information to primary and secondary documents. And then another extremely important aspect of literacy that I have noticed thus far is pictures and images. And then how those connect to these primary documents and then to the lecture material and then to the textbooks. . . . And I guess that's the main thing that I've been able to pull out of all this work with literacy strategies and aspects. It's just really to get different ways and different methods to get these students to comprehend the material.

Again, Georgia noted that students should work with a range of texts, and she described that students need to be able to comprehend and relate these texts to one another. Although finding the relationship between texts is a more advanced skill than comprehension, her comments here suggest that students' role in working with texts is primarily to understand the content.

Unlike Georgia and others with general conceptions, PSTs with *developing* ideas conceived of students taking on roles that required more sophisticated thinking skills than comprehension. Most of these PSTs' commentary focused on students critically examining texts, and they began to make some connections to the discipline. For

example, Howard discussed how he might have students write their own historical account of an event after reading multiple primary sources. In explaining this process, Howard described that students would need to consider each source's perspective, compare the primary sources to one another, determine which were most credible, and draft an account that was based on evidence. This type of assignment necessitates students being active in interpreting and creating texts, and requires students to utilize higher order thinking skills, not solely rely on their ability to comprehend the information.

The process that Howard described in part reflects the ways in which historians work, as does the following example from Michelle. She described how she would work alongside students to answer historical questions that might help students to ". . . see [that] history is not just a body of knowledge. It's actually a process." Michelle then described the types of questions students should address as they engage in a critical reading process:

> What does this mean? Where can I apply this? Where does this connect? Where does this not make sense? . . . What am I not being told? Where do they [the authors] find this information? How did they find this information? How did they form this conclusion? What documents did they have?

These questions do not solely focus on the content of the text, requiring students to actively question and interpret as they read. Michelle and Howard's conceptions of history as interpretive in nature influenced the more active roles they believed students should take when working with historical texts.

Making even stronger links to the discipline were PSTs with *discipline specific* understandings of the role students should take when working with historical texts. For example, Christa described how it is important for students to make "interpretations and

judgments about history" based on a critical analysis of class readings. She went on to explain that developing interpretation skills requires more than just sitting back and taking notes during class; she viewed students as responsible and active participants in their own learning. Jared expanded upon this, explaining how the process of historical inquiry requires particular types of engagement with text:

> You've got some confusion about that event in the past, you're going to go out and research sources. That takes the ability to comprehend it and interpret it. You're going to go back and compile this into a thesis. That takes a greater ability to take multiple sources and combine them. And then the next level up is you have to go in and synthesize your own interpretation. And then finally be able to present it formally. All of those things that, you know, any historian has to do, or any student has to do, all require literacy.

In Jared's explanation, we can see how students must engage with texts in particular ways at each step of the historical inquiry process. First, the student has to be able to "comprehend and interpret" texts. Then, the student uses the information from these various sources to create a "thesis," which Jared argues takes "greater ability" than reading comprehension. From here the student moves to another skill level, that of synthesis. Finally, the student presents his thesis in a formal way. Although Jared did not elaborate on each of these steps, it is clear that his conception of history requires him to position students as sense makers, as they move from the comprehension of texts to the critique and creation of historical arguments.

Reading Challenges with Disciplinary Texts

Finally, PSTs held a wide range of perceptions with regards to the challenges texts in history might present to students. Those at the more general end of the spectrum only noted textual features, such as difficult terminology in primary documents. PSTs with discipline specific ideas, on the other hand, linked these features specifically to

history, also naming historical concepts which students might find challenging. Furthermore, the latter group of PSTs described ways that they might – or did – modify texts to assist students with some of these difficulties. Because the TE program assessments that the PSTs took each semester asked them to analyze a primary source as well as a textbook passage, these assessments provide numerous examples of how these PSTs conceived of the features that students might find challenging. I draw heavily from the assessments in the discussion that follows.

PSTs with *general* conceptions of the reading challenges students might face in history noted some features of texts that students might find difficult, such as poor organization and challenging vocabulary. However, these PSTs did not acknowledge how these challenges were linked to texts in history. For instance, many of these PSTs mentioned that one of the primary sources in the assessment, a document by Jane Addams, contained long, "run-on sentences." These PSTs, unlike their peers, did *not* acknowledge that this textual feature was characteristic of many primary documents of this era.

In addition, most of the PSTs with more general conceptions mentioned that students might find primary sources difficult to read. However, they did not describe the features of primary sources that might make them challenging for students. Only Myron alluded to a specific challenge, stating that a primary source is "something that is more complex, that requires a little more judgment and analysis than the textbook." Although this is plausible, Myron did not expand on these ideas or explain how this complexity might challenge students as they work with primary sources.

PSTs with *developing* understandings named many of the same textual features

that their peers did as difficult for students, but they provided rationales that linked the features more closely to history. In addition, most of these PSTs alluded to historical concepts that might also challenge students when reading historical texts. Finally, some of these PSTs began to offer suggestions as to how they might help students to overcome some of these reading challenges.

First, PSTs with developing conceptions not only described potential reading challenges for students, but offered an explanation as to how particular features were relevant specifically to texts in history. For example, Alex noted that the Jane Addams text, which I referenced above, is "a little dense in vocabulary and writing structure. A reader would need to spend time paying attention to detail because the syntax, diction and rhetoric are much different than modern day writings." Here Alex placed the text's challenging vocabulary and structure into an historical context, and his comments seem to suggest that he recognized how these textual features take on particular meanings and importance for historical texts.

Second, these PSTs also began to allude to historical concepts, not just textual features, with which students might struggle. For instance, Howard described the Addams text as having:

> Many difficult words and concepts. It was written over 100 years ago. It is discussing things in a time totally foreign to the students. It includes several concepts in civics and history that they may not know or know very well. . . . They [the author] also assume the reader is wise to social mores of the time pertaining to gender roles and division of labor.

In contrast to PSTs with more general conceptions of the reading challenges students might face, Howard focused his comments here on the text content, nothing that students might have difficulty with some of the civics and historical concepts Addams referenced

in her text. Furthermore, he recognized that students' unfamiliarity with early twentieth

century thinking might make it difficult for them to understand the gender and labor

issues that Addams discussed. Although he did not label it as such, Howard seemed to be

referencing the concept of historical empathy, or the ability to understand how people in

the past thought and how their context influenced their ideas. This is an on-going

challenge when working with historical texts, and is particularly so for young students.

PSTs with general conceptions of reading challenges did not identify or allude to

concepts such as this.

Finally, PSTs with developing conceptions also began to discuss how it is

important to modify primary documents to make them more accessible to students. For

example, in contrast to Myron's brief comment about the complexity of primary sources,

Mark provided more detail, explaining how he thought, at the beginning of the TE

program, that his students would struggle with the length and vocabulary of many print-

based primary sources. He stated:

> Seventh graders? No way could they comprehend a scholarly source or a primary
> source. I couldn't do that in seventh grade. They can't. And it's not because they
> can't; it's because they don't have any experience with it. They can do it; you just
> have to scaffold it along, things like that. And that's kind of what I've realized.

Mark went on to describe how he provided scaffolding for his students: "You kind of got

to drop it down a little bit for a seventh grade reading level because not always are those

sources intended for 12 year olds." Although Mark's comments here suggest that he

recognized the importance of modifying his instruction to support students with

challenging features of primary documents, it is not clear what type of scaffolding he

actually provided his students. PSTs with discipline specific understandings offered

more detail in this regard.

What set PSTs with *discipline specific* conceptions apart from their peers is that they closely connected reading challenges students might confront to the discipline, and they expressed specific ideas about how they might modify texts to make them more accessible to students. With regards to textual features, for instance, Christa noted that primary sources often contain challenging language, naming the "antiquated language" of Rousseau or the "broken English" of African chiefs. John added that the dense language of primary documents, particularly in political speeches and essays, is another challenge for students. He explained that the language can be, ". . . seemingly poetic-like. The author is sort of overloaded with a lot of fluffy language . . . Trying to parse out the substance is difficult," in texts like this. Here John identified a relevant issue students face in reading history texts – identifying the author's main argument, what John calls the "substance," when the author's language is overly descriptive and verbose. PSTs with general and developing ideas about students' reading challenges did not provide such detailed responses, as they did not connect the reading challenges to what it means to work with texts in history.

Although these PSTs did discuss challenging textual features, they focused most of their commentary on the concepts with which students were likely to struggle. This is quite apparent in Christa's discussion of the Addams text:

> It is a relatively complicated passage to read, and on top of that, the argument is a difficult one to understand, if one does not situate it within the context of Victorian standards . . . Students may not understand why the author would choose an argument highlighting the role of a mother, when it seems, to students, that the goal of women's suffrage is to create independent, equal women. It is very difficult for students to situate themselves when reading this kind of piece, because students, especially females, are not used to the Victorian ideal of womanhood, including being subservient to men and family duties.

In this passage Christa identified that students might struggle to understand the "Victorian ideal of womanhood" as it runs counter to our present (and I would argue mainstream American) conceptions of equality. If students are unable to view this concept in its historical context, Christa explained that students would not understand how Addams framed her argument. Although she does not name it as such here, Christa was referring to the concept of presentism, viewing the past through our current understandings and viewpoints. Trying to identify and appreciate the norms and mores present during a historical time period is a persistent challenge for all readers, particularly for students due to their more limited content knowledge. Compare Christa's comments here with those noted above from Howard about the same text; although they both discussed relevant historical concepts that students might find challenging, Christa offered more detail and explanation as to how historical concepts in this passage might be difficult for students.

Finally, PSTs with discipline specific conceptions of students' reading challenges also discussed in greater detail than their peers how they planned to or did modify texts to lessen the reading challenges for students. These modifications included shortening the length of primary sources, placing synonyms behind difficult terminology right in the text, and amending texts to make them more engaging for students. In the following passage Jared described how it was at first difficult to get his eighth graders, who had not previously worked with primary documents, to put forth much effort in reading them. So, he decided to modify the texts further. Jared explained:

> With an eighth grader, it's a lot easier if you change the title and make it, you know, you make the title interesting or make it sound like something that you want to read, just that little presentation change. . . A picture helps it [print-based primary document] a lot. If I can put a photo of the slave cabin next to a passage

about Sally Hemmings, they're going to read it. Whereas if I just say, 'Sally Hemmings is the title' and it's this block of text, they're going to glaze over it.

Jared recognized that just changing the types of texts he had students read would not necessarily make students interested in reading these texts. However, slight alterations, such as amending the title and adding images, did seem to help. (Jared later discussed how he used historical questions to further hook students into the content. See p. 140 of this chapter). Thus, PSTs with discipline specific conceptions of students' reading challenges not only identified challenges specific to history texts, they also amended texts in ways that were considerate of their particular students' needs.

In sum, in the preceding discussion I illustrated the intellectual progression in the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts along five dimensions. These dimensions included the PSTs' ideas about the types of texts necessary to use in history; the role they should play in the classroom and student learning; and, the approaches students should take when working with texts in history. The final two dimensions related to instructional aspects of working with disciplinary texts, specifically, what role students should take when working with texts and the reading challenges particular texts might present to students.

Although we now have a better understanding of the intellectual progression in the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, this discussion did not address how the PSTs' conceptions changed across their time in the TE program. Did PSTs' ideas move linearly from general to developing to discipline specific? What about the PSTs who began the program with discipline specific ideas? What influence did the TE coursework and field experiences have on the PSTs' conceptions? Finally, to what extent did the PSTs' disciplinary backgrounds influence the changes in their conceptions of

disciplinary reading and texts?

Changing Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts

Although the preceding discussion might make it seem that PSTs' conceptions moved systematically from general to discipline specific as they progressed through the TE program, my analysis suggests that this was not the case. Learning is in general a complicated enterprise, and the PSTs' ideas did not always change in clear, predictable patterns. For example, a PST might have demonstrated progression with regards to one dimension of disciplinary reading and texts but not exhibited a similar degree of growth with regards to other dimensions. Furthermore, although all of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts indicated growth, their conceptions did not all change in similar ways. Nor did everyone's ideas progress to discipline specific by the end of the TE program (see Table 7, p. 127). Each PST seemed to follow a trajectory based on: 1) the disciplinary understandings with which he or she entered the TE program; 2) the ways in which he or she engaged with the TE coursework; and, 3) the types of field experiences each PST had. These factors worked together in complicated ways to influence how and to what extent the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts became more specific to history.

To illustrate the range in how PSTs' ideas developed across their semesters in the TE program, I highlight the conceptions and experiences of two PSTs, Kathy and Mark. I have chosen these PSTs as their disciplinary backgrounds as well as their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts differed and were representative of the majority of PSTs in the cohort. Furthermore, both of these PSTs spent all three of their semesters in the TE

program working with under-served students. Despite the similarities in their students' racial, cultural, and economic backgrounds, Kathy and Mark responded to their students in different ways. This provides us with some insight into the relative importance of their disciplinary backgrounds and of the cooperating teacher modeling discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

Kathy, a social studies major, had conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts that progressed from general to developing across her time in the TE program. The TE coursework appeared to assist her in countering her more limited disciplinary background and the general reading instructional approaches she encountered in the field. In contrast, Mark, a double major in history and social studies, entered the TE program with developing conceptions of reading and texts, and we see varying degrees of growth in his ideas depending on the dimension of disciplinary reading. Furthermore, he seemed to receive similar messages from his disciplinary background, TE coursework, and field experiences about the importance of using multiple forms of text in history, and this became a dominant theme in his commentary across his time in the TE program.

The extent to which these PSTs' conceptions changed across their time in the TE program is most noticeable in their ideas about how to approach texts in history, although we also see some growth in their ideas about the types of texts, the role of texts, and the role of students in history. I do not focus in the following discussion on their conceptions of the reading challenges particular history texts present to students because this was not a dominant theme in their overall commentary, making it more difficult to show change over time. In what follows, I first describe how each PST's conception of disciplinary

reading and texts changed across their semesters in the TE program, and I then discuss

the probable influences on these changes.

Incremental Change: Kathy

Similar to other PSTs who began the TE program with general ideas about

disciplinary reading and texts in history, Kathy's conceptions moved from quite general

to more discipline specific across her semesters in the TE program. A social studies

major with a double minor in psychology and political science, Kathy acknowledged

during her first semester in the TE program that her background in history and her

approaches to disciplinary reading were not as strong as she would like. Over time,

however, her conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts slowly became more

specific to history, and she cited her TE coursework as particularly influential in this

regard. Kathy's field experiences did not seem to support her developing conceptions of

disciplinary reading in history, although they solidified for her the importance of using

texts in the classroom.

Before proceeding with my analysis, it is important to note that Kathy participated

in a special program at the university, *Teachers for Tomorrow*, which provided extra

support through courses and workshops to preservice teachers interested in working in

under-resourced schools (only one other PST in this cohort participated in this program).

Enrollment in this program was optional and accessible to all interested PSTs. Kathy's

involvement in this program led her to begin tutoring at the high school where she then

had all three of her field placements. It is unclear from my data sources the influence of

this program on Kathy's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, though it might

have made her more attentive to her students' literacy abilities and strengths (I provide

more detail about this in the following chapter).

Kathy began the TE program with general ideas about how to read in history and on the role texts play in student learning. At the end of her first semester in which she was taking the *Content Area Literacy* course, Kathy stated several times that literacy was important in history, but she rarely expanded upon these ideas. The following is a representative comment about the role of texts:

> You're almost always going to have to do some type of reading before you can tackle an activity or an assignment or something that's related to history, because it's all related to texts. So, now I see it [literacy] as something that's really important in a history classroom that needs to be practiced all the time . . . Literacy instruction is *really* important. It's vital.

Although Kathy acknowledged the importance of text in the history classroom here, her comments are quite general and might be applicable to any content area, not just history.

On a few occasions during this first interview, we see Kathy utilizing language that is more discipline specific, but her conceptions of how to approach texts in history are still general. This is apparent in her comments about the skills students need to have in history. She explained:

> Being able to read and understand text is the biggest thing. In history or in social studies you're going to read a lot, and being able to interpret things . . . interpret, like, primary sources. Learning how to do that is a big thing. But also in your textbook, being able to relate things that you read back and see how they're connected to previous things that we have learned about. And just being able to understand that all of this is related, and cause and effect and things like that.

Here Kathy noted that interpreting primary sources, making connections between information in the textbook, and understanding cause and effect are important skills in history. While these are all relevant, Kathy separated the skills by text format, failing to acknowledge that students also need to interpret textbooks and make connections across all forms of texts. Her comments here, and across the data sources this semester, also

reveal that Kathy had a relatively limited view of texts, seeing them as sources of information, not as authored arguments.

Near the end of her second semester, in which she took the *History and Social Science Methods* course, Kathy demonstrated some growth in her understanding of how to approach texts in history. For example, in comparison to her previous comments about the skills students need to have in history, this semester Kathy stated:

> They need to know how to read and interpret. . . .They really, ideally, need to know how to, like, analyze or question different things that they read. Like I don't want them to just read something [pause] I want my students to read a document and then question it, look at it and say, 'Wait. Who wrote this? When was this written? What audience was it for?' And things like that. In terms of history, that is really important. . . . But really, my main goal right now is the reading. 'Cause they can't, they, they don't even get through actually reading the text let alone interpreting it and analyzing it and stuff.

Similar to last semester, Kathy again referenced students' abilities to interpret, but she offered more explanation, suggesting that interpretation involves the students analyzing and questioning the text. She listed the reading heuristics – *Who wrote this? When was it written? Who was the intended audience?* – that students should consider as they read, which she did not do last semester. However, Kathy did not explain here or elsewhere this semester how these reading heuristics are important to history and how they might aid students' understanding of the content. Furthermore, Kathy alluded here to her students' struggles with reading, which seemed to complicate her developing understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history.

As the above passage reveals, Kathy began to acknowledge this semester that there were more discipline specific ways to approach text, but she seemed overwhelmed by her students' limited reading skills, causing her to struggle to apply these more discipline specific approaches to her work with students. This is apparent in her

explanation, which is halting and tentative, of how to teach students to read like

historians:

> I think that that is [pause] important. Well, yeah [pause]. I don't know. I don't,
> that just, it seems like a really [pause] big goal, right now. Not that it's not
> something that I want to try to incorporate, but I don't know how to incorporate it
> at a level that my students will be able to accomplish. [pause] I'm just trying to
> think of like, an idea of getting students, like, what I was talking about before I
> guess, about, like, look – really looking into readings, and like, before you read a
> primary document looking at when it was written, who it was written by, and
> thinking about who it was written for. I guess like prompting students with these
> questions so that they get used to thinking about those types of things. 'Cause
> that's how historians read things, I would say. And most students don't read
> things that way.

Kathy again acknowledged relevant reading heuristics for history texts, stating that

historians read this way "I would say."   But her explanation is much more tentative than

earlier. Whether this has more to do with her emerging understanding of disciplinary

approaches to reading or to her uncertainty of how to work with her students' current

reading levels is unclear. Both seem to have been factors.

By the end of her third and final semester in the TE program, Kathy's conceptions

of disciplinary reading and texts suggest some additional modest growth in her

conceptions. For instance, when asked to describe the literacy instructional approaches

she used which are specific to history, she stated:

> Learning to identify key things in the reading. Another one is with the JFK
> assassination activity, having to look at all the evidence and the facts that they
> find and then having to come up with their own theory based on everything that
> they researched and learned. And then presenting that theory. I'd definitely say
> that that's social studies thinking. That's what historians actually do is reinterpret
> facts and evidence that they find.

Note that Kathy began with a general idea – identifying key aspects of a text – and

similar to her comments in previous semesters, she provided little elaboration on this. If

we read no further, we might be left with the impression that her conceptions of the role

of texts, ways to approach texts, and role of students have not changed. However, she followed this comment with a more discipline specific explanation of the role text served in an extended lesson she planned and facilitated about JFK's assassination. In her description, she mentioned how students interpreted a range of evidence to develop a theory about this historical event. She even connected this process to what historians do, which was the first time she had explicitly linked her ideas to the work of historians. In addition to Kathy's comments here, I was also observing in her classroom on the day she began this lesson; my analysis of these data sources suggests that she was positioning her students as active sense-makers, not solely as retrievers of information as she had done in previous semesters.

The extent to which Kathy's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts have changed is perhaps most apparent in her extended commentary about a lesson she identified as one of her most successful, a Vietnam War "museum." In this lesson, she set up 15 stations around the classroom which required students to interact with and interpret a variety of texts about the Vietnam War. The texts ranged from photographs to statistics to a textbook passage to a series of quotations from American soldiers, which suggests that Kathy's conception of the types of texts relevant in history instruction and learning had grown. Kathy explained that all of the students were engaged, which was not typical for this class, and they all seemed to learn some factual information about the war as well as develop their interpretation skills.

When asked to describe which aspects of the lesson were geared toward developing students' literacy skills in history, she stated:

> Definitely the photo interpretation. There was also a short video that they were asked indirect questions about because it was about the Vietnam War. And it

asked like, 'Why do you think this was effective?' Or something like that. 'Why do you think they chose to protest in this manner?' Things like that. So they had to interpret. So they were interpreting different types of literacy. Especially through the photos.

Kathy began the TE program referencing interpretation, but it was not until now, the end of student teaching, that she provided a more extended explanation of what this meant in a high school history classroom. Although she offered more detail here, Kathy still did not explicate why interpretation matters in history and how this skill connects to the historical inquiry process. Her earlier comments cited above suggest that she had some understanding of how texts can serve as evidence in the creation of arguments, but her commentary in this passage indicates that she was still working through how to fully incorporate this "newer" understanding into her history instruction.

As this analysis reveals thus far, Kathy's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts grew in small ways from quite general to more specific to history by the end of the TE program, with room for further growth. The incremental changes in her conceptions are not surprising when we consider that Kathy entered the TE program with a limited background in history and that the instructional models of disciplinary reading and texts she encountered in the field did not reflect what she was learning about in her TE coursework.

Across her time in the TE program, Kathy stated forthrightly that she struggled as a student to read and analyze primary sources, as she felt challenged by the deeper analysis such texts required. Prior to college, she explained that she had limited exposure to primary sources and that her TE coursework had "opened her eyes" to what it means to approach text from a disciplinary perspective. Kathy explained the influence of her TE coursework: "I definitely have noticed that I don't read like a historian and it's, it's funny

'cause I almost wish I could go back to my history classes *now* and retake those classes because I think I would get so much more out of them." She later added that:

> I need to be able to do that [read like an historian] really well myself before I can teach my students to do it. Because once I learn how to do it myself then it's going to come natural, it'll be natural for me to, like, question things that students are saying and question things that they're reading.

Kathy attributed the growth in her conception of how to approach text to her *History and Social Science Methods* course, and we can see how her ideas progressed during her second semester when she was taking this course. What the above passages suggest is that Kathy's self-admitted lack of proficiency in analyzing disciplinary texts, such as primary sources, likely influenced not only how she approached texts but, more importantly for this study, how she taught her *students* to do so.

In addition to her TE coursework highlighting for her the approaches that historians take as they read, Kathy mentioned repeatedly that she had learned numerous important concepts about disciplinary reading and texts from the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses. With regards to texts, she explained that her TE coursework had shown her the value in critically evaluating a textbook, as prior to taking these courses she stated that she:

> Probably would have normally just been like, okay, textbook. I mean this is what we use, it's our textbook. . . . And I learned that you don't always need to, you don't need to use the textbook first of all. That's, I mean you can, but you don't need to. And then it [her TE courses] definitely introduced me, or, showed me more the importance of primary documents.

In addition to her expanded understanding of texts, Kathy also referenced how these courses influenced her understanding of relevant reading instructional approaches to use with her students. She explained:

> I don't think I would have even thought about literacy, and thought about how I, how could I incorporate literacy into my lesson plans had I not taken that class . . . [they] totally changed the way I'm going to think about teaching, especially a history class . . . it really emphasized the importance of primary documents and the importance of teaching students to do these things.

As these passages suggest, Kathy seemed to take away from her TE coursework the importance of teaching students how historians approach text; of evaluating the textbook and its potential uses; and of using reading instructional approaches that enhance students' abilities to work with texts. However, she also described how her field experiences did not provide similar messages about these aspects of disciplinary reading and texts.

In her first field placement, Kathy described her CT as taking a "traditional" approach to history instruction, having students read textbook passages in class and answer the questions at the end of each section. Her second CT, with whom she worked during her second and third semesters in the TE program, held a different philosophy, shunning the textbook and almost all forms of text for more interactive approaches, such as role playing. I held similar impressions of these CTs' instruction based on my observations in both of these classrooms.

Although respectful, Kathy was critical of these approaches, describing her second field context as follows:

> It's hard for me 'cause I feel, I've always known that high school students don't like reading and writing, but I think that there are other ways that you can approach it. . . . With reading and writing, it's something that's really important and they're gonna come, it's gonna come time to like write an essay for a college application or do something important and they're not gonna know how to do it because, they're getting – being given – the easy way out. I think that and seeing the activities, this is a U.S. history classroom and not, like, reading a textbook or some type of text that has to do with history, it makes me realize how important it is to have that in the room because the students aren't really learning history.

> They're, it's more of, I would say, like, Professor Brown and I just talked about this, and we would probably classify it as a sociology class more than history.

Kathy noted that she had a different philosophy than her CT, and wanted to do more reading and writing activities with her students. She even suggested that the lack of text made the class seem more like a sociology than a history class. Note that although Kathy alluded to the importance of reading and writing in history, she spoke of them in general terms, not clarifying how there are particular ways to work with and approach texts in history. Although it is unclear from the data sources the extent to which this occurred, it is possible that the limited use of texts in Kathy's field classrooms reinforced the general perspective towards reading that she held when she entered the program. If she had been able to see more models of the disciplinary reading instructional approaches discussed in her TE coursework, perhaps we might have noted greater growth in her conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts (more discussion of this in Ch. 6). Mark faced a different field context and when coupled with his more developed historical understandings, we see Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts changing in different ways than Kathy's conceptions.

Taken with an Idea: Mark

A history and social studies double major, Mark began the TE program with conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts that fell within the developing category of understanding. We see two types of changes in Mark's conceptions across the TE program: 1) his rationale for using different types of texts in history changed; and, 2) there was variability with regards to his growth across the dimensions of disciplinary reading. Early on in the TE program, Mark became taken with the idea of using multiple types of texts with his students, and this became a dominant theme for him across the

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semesters. It appears that Mark received similar messages about using multiple types of

texts from his disciplinary background, TE coursework, and field experiences, and this

likely strengthened his attachment to this idea. However, as he gained more experience

in schools, his rationale for using multiple types of texts changed. Furthermore, we find

different growth patterns in Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading depending on the

dimension. For instance, his ideas about how to approach texts in history showed more

growth than did his ideas about the types of texts needed in this history classroom.

At the end of the first semester in which he took the *Content Area Literacy*

course, Mark expressed ideas about disciplinary reading and text that were more

discipline specific than Kathy's. This was particularly true with regards to his

conceptions of the types of texts relevant in history instruction, the role such texts should

play in student learning, and the role students might take when working with these texts.

However, his ideas about the ways to approach texts in history were more general.

Mark's commentary during this first semester suggests that he viewed history not

as *a* story, but as inclusive of multiple perspectives, requiring students to take active roles

in making sense of history. This conception of history seems related to the importance

Mark placed on using multiple types of texts with his students. This is apparent in his

description of a literacy routine he wanted to use in his classroom:

> I like the one of bringing in multiple forms of literacy. Like a regular text – have
> them read from the textbook and then a primary source and then maybe some
> pictures. And then a movie and incorporating them all together so that they can
> understand the material from all different sources. And that way they can think of
> something, of like an historical event not just in terms of how the textbook shows
> it, but how different people can perceive it.

As with other PSTs who had more discipline specific conceptions of text, Mark cited a

range of texts here, suggesting that using a variety of texts enables students to see an

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historical event from multiple perspectives. Although these conceptions about texts and

the roles they play in student learning are more specific to history, Mark did not elaborate

on these ideas this semester or make explicit why understanding multiple perspectives is

a key skill in developing historical understandings.

In addition to discussing the role texts serve in student learning, Mark also

referenced the role students take when working with texts in history. His concluding

remarks at the end of the interview offer us more insight into his ideas:

> I would say it's very important for the kids to be able to read different types of
> people's perceptions about history and understand how it's not necessarily cut and
> dry. And how they have a say so in it as well. Like what they think might –
> matters as well. And different types of writing can influence their perception
> about whatever we're learning about at that time. . . . Using different types of
> literacy to open up kids' perception of history and historical events [is important].

Mark suggested that working with different people's perceptions of history – presumably

through a range of different types of texts – makes it possible for students to realize that

history is "not necessarily cut and dry." The contested nature of history requires students

to question what they are reading and learning as they actively construct knowledge.

Mark's comments here indicate that he was positioning students as sense makers, not just

as information retrievers.

Despite Mark's more discipline specific conceptions of the types of texts needed

in history, the role these texts play, and the role students might take as they work with

them, he had more limited conceptions of the ways one might approach texts in history.

This is apparent in his explanation of how to teach students to read like historians:

> I guess giving them primary sources. I think that's really important in history – is
> exposing them to primary sources and to more academic oriented text. . . . like
> new stuff that challenges them to critically think about how – whatever the
> reading has been judged by historians and by other people as being, falling into a
> certain category in history, or how, or what's its effect in history [has been].

Mark noted here the types of texts – primary sources, academic oriented text, and "new stuff" – students might use to strengthen their critical thinking skills. However, he did not explain how these texts might "challenge them to critically think" or what process students should use as they work with these texts. Although he attempted to explain what it means to think critically in history, his explanation is confusing and not clearly connected to developing students' historical understandings. Thus, although I consider Mark's overall conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts to fall within the developing category, he clearly had more general conceptions about how to approach texts in history.

By the end of the second semester in which Mark was taking the *History and Social Science Methods* course, we see change with regards to his rationale for using multiple types of texts and to his conceptions of how to approach texts in history. With regard to the former issue, Mark continued to emphasize the importance of using a range of texts throughout his commentary this semester, and the following is a representative comment:

> [It is important to] bring in totally different types of literacy, total different types of primary sources, different, from different areas of the world, you know, as far as history and social studies teaching it. Different types of movies, like I said music before. Just anything to get the students to connect with it. I mean it's hard to get all the students to understand, relate, and enjoy whatever you're teaching about, but if you can bring in a whole bunch of different types of literacy practices [types of texts] into the classroom, I think it would be easier to at least have some of the kids click with some of them. Even if they don't, it doesn't work with all of them, at least they can, some of it they can work well with.

Similar to last semester, Mark noted a range of texts – primary sources, movies, music – but this time he stressed that these texts were important to use to "get the students to connect with" the content. He mentioned here how difficult it is to get students to understand, and "enjoy," what they are learning and that using different types of texts

increases the chance that students will connect with or become more interested in the content. This is a markedly different explanation than he gave last semester, where he emphasized how using a range of texts exposes students to multiple perspectives, increasing their historical understandings. Although Mark did not explicitly identify why his rationale changed, it might be related to his field experiences and his CT's rationale for using a range of text formats with his students (I discuss the influence of his field experiences in more detail later).

The other notable change in Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts during this second semester has to do with his ideas about how to approach texts in history. This is most apparent in his explanation of how to teach students to read like historians:

> I guess the best way to do that is to analyze the text you're reading since that's what a lot of historians do. So like if I were to give the students a primary source or something, I'd be like before we'd even read it, I'd ask them, 'How, who is writing this? When are they writing this? From what we've learned, why would this be important?' Just to get them thinking in terms of how the historian would approach reading an essay or a primary source or whatever. . . . I don't think it's bad to just come out and say, 'As an historian, you have to approach this text in this way.' And if you come out and say that to them, they'd be like, 'Oh, well, this is how I want you to approach the text, as well,' and they'd be like, 'Oh, ok.' And then they'd think that they're taking the role of the historian, as well. And then they're reading in a different way, as they're reading through, they're challenging what they're actually reading. . . . That's a huge thing to view things as somebody from, as a, as a professional from the discipline would. Like an historian. Like an economist. To view things in their terms. When you can view things in their terms, you can really comprehend how to approach the learning of the material, of the subject.

In contrast to last semester when he was asked the same question, Mark did not just list a range of texts here. He offered an extended response, noting early in this passage that he would ask students to consider who wrote the text, when it was written, and why this text might be important given what they have been learning. Mark then explained that it is

important to explicitly tell students how to approach texts in history, so that they can

challenge what they read and "view things as somebody from" the discipline would. This

is a more discipline specific conception of how to approach text as compared to his

response last semester.

Later in the interview Mark expanded on these ideas, suggesting that the

questions one asks of print-based texts also apply to other forms of text, such as music:

> The kids should take away from that [other forms of text] the same thing they take
> away from the reading. The role of comprehension, understanding what's going
> on, and background to the material. Why is this person doing this? If they're
> singing music about – I don't know, Bob Marley for example, or something like
> that – if you bring in, focusing on Jamaica and you bring in Bob Marley and have
> the kids listen to it, [ask] 'Why is he doing this? What's the historical context to
> this?' And see how well they can apply it to what they're learning.

Mark again referenced that students should take into account the author, or in this case

the artist, and his motivations. Few PSTs explicitly linked the historian's approach to

text to non-print-based formats like this. As these passages reveal, Mark's conceptions of

how to approach texts in history have progressed this semester and become more specific

to history. This is not necessarily surprising, given the emphasis on this topic in the

History and Social Science Methods course this semester, but it is noteworthy as Kathy,

and other PSTs in this cohort, did not exhibit as much growth in their ideas as Mark did.

As Mark concluded his final semester in the TE program, we see noticeable

change in his rationale for using multiple forms of texts. His ideas about the types of

texts relevant in history, their role in student learning, and the student's role in engaging

with texts verge on being discipline specific. However, his conceptions about the ways to

approach texts remain at a developing level. In his interview and assessment responses,

Mark continued to highlight the significance of using a range of text formats, but his

rationale for doing so has evolved. This is apparent in the following passage in which he described his "favorite" literacy instructional practice:

> Bringing in a lot of different types of literacy like primary source or secondary source or opinionated paper or a movie or images or things like that. You know, a whole bunch of different types just to get the kids who do well on certain things. And at the same time try to push forth an idea and give a couple of different approaches to it so that they can see that there's a variety of things. And it's good for history. You can give them a primary source and then give them something from 500 years ago and something from today and have them read the textbook and then show them the movie, show all these different interpretations of the same thing.

Mark mentioned here several purposes for using a range of text formats: to increase the chances that all students are able to do well; to emphasize a particular idea; and, to provide different interpretations of the "same thing." This stands in contrast to the previous semesters in which he only discussed one rationale, either to show multiple perspectives or to engage students. Mark also made an explicit reference to history, which he had not done previously with regards to this topic. However, the reference is vague, and his comments about how a primary source, a text from 500 years ago, and one from today might relate to the same topic need further elaboration. Nonetheless, it is clear that Mark's understanding of how multiple forms of text can be used in history has evolved yet again to include both general *and* more discipline specific purposes.

Mark's discussion of his most successful lesson provides us with more insight into the ways in which he conceived of using multiple texts and of his overall conceptions of disciplinary reading. Mark described this as a multi-day lesson about the concept of genocide, focusing on the war in Rwanda. He began by having his seventh graders view clips from the movie, *Hotel Rwanda*, and address several open-ended questions about the movie. Then they read two print-based sources which expressed

different views on whether genocide occurred in Rwanda. The culminating activity was for students to consider and reference all of these texts as they formulated a written statement about their own views about genocide and Rwanda. Although Mark did not describe it this way, he was engaging students in a form of historical inquiry, considering a historically important concept from multiple perspectives and developing one's own position with regards to the available evidence. These instructional approaches suggest that Mark's ideas about the types of texts needed in history instruction and the roles these texts and students should play in learning were becoming even more specific to history.

Adding to our understanding of Marks' conceptions of disciplinary reading and text this semester is his explanation about what aspects of this lesson were targeted at developing students' literacy skills in history:

> Being able to take different types of sources and give one a little more validity than another based on prior knowledge and based on what you know about something, like in this case, what they concretely know about genocide. They can take one argument over another because it makes more sense and because it relates better.

Mark described here how students must judge the validity of sources, and he mentioned that this is based on students' prior knowledge and what "makes more sense" and "relates better." While determining a text's validity is an essential aspect of engaging with texts in history, Mark's comments here suggest that he was still working through how students might engage in this process. As he indicated, the reader can use his prior knowledge to assist him in assessing validity, but Mark did not describe how this process might work, nor did he acknowledge that students' limited prior knowledge might hinder their abilities to assess texts. Furthermore, Mark's comment that students might side with an argument because "it makes more sense" and "relates better" is underdeveloped, making it unclear whether he fully understood the approach that historian's use in assessing a text's

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validity. Thus, Mark's conceptions about how to approach texts in history continued to fall in the category of developing, as he had yet to make explicit the connection between the approaches to text he discussed and their relevance to history.

In sum, Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts did not necessarily grow in a consistent way. Throughout his time in the TE program, Mark was committed to using a range of text formats with his students, but his rationale for doing so moved from more discipline specific to general and finally to an acknowledgement of several general and discipline specific purposes. Furthermore, Mark entered the TE program with developing conceptions about the types of texts relevant in history instruction, the role these texts serve, and students' position in working with these texts. By the end of the TE program, these ideas became more discipline specific, although Mark still did not link them explicitly to what it means to engage in historical inquiry. His ideas about how to approach texts in history demonstrated a different growth pattern, as Mark began the TE program with general conceptions that became more discipline specific across the semesters. In contrast to Kathy, Mark's disciplinary understandings and TE coursework provided him with similar messages about disciplinary reading and texts in history and this appeared to support his growth. However, his field experiences seemed to both support in some ways – and hinder in others – his developing ideas about disciplinary reading and texts.

With regards to his disciplinary coursework, Mark explained that they had encouraged him to question texts and the view of history they presented as well as to view history as inclusive of multiple perspectives. He explained that his history courses presented a:

Much more challenging perspective of history, as opposed to dates and numbers and figures. And it was a lot more looking at firsthand accounts and then deciding whether or not the level of validity was there. . . . Challenging pre-conceived notions of what, of what actually happened and different perspectives of different events in history. . . . Because in high school I took AP history, and I took as many history courses as I could, but I never really had that same experience. And then I want to bring that, eventually into the field.

What Mark appears to have taken away from his history coursework is a conception of disciplinary reading that positions the reader as an active sense-maker, questioning texts and the authors' representation and perspective on history.

Mark also discussed how his history coursework introduced him to a wide range of texts:

[They] really pushed us to read things that were a lot different. Like, in all of my history classes we didn't read some generic textbook. We read either an argumentative essay or a primary source or something like that that could really speak to what was actually going on. So we didn't have to just memorize a whole bunch of things. We still had to kind of understand. When you understand it better, you really can really comprehend it.

Thus, Mark entered the TE program with a conception of disciplinary reading and texts that was more discipline specific than Kathy and other PSTs. He recognized that texts serve not as warehouses of information but are authored texts that require the reader to actively engage in questioning and exploring the author's perspective. His comments also suggest that he viewed more than the textbook as necessary for students to develop their historical understandings.

Mark's TE coursework seemed to reinforce these conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts. For example, he explained that his TE courses encouraged him to show students how to challenge texts in history:

They have kind of, from what I've got from classes, kind of pushed me to believing that – and I agree – that a type of reading more highly educated stuff, stuff that isn't as black and white, 'cause a lot of the textbooks in high school 'this is what happened' and 'this is its effect.' Well, not necessarily. Like, it's a lot

broader than that. The classes I have right now are kind of pushing me toward exposing students how not everything in the textbook is necessarily right. Or it's not necessarily explained to its fullest extent and that maybe you need outside reading like primary sources or academic sources to better understand the material or the context.

Mark described how his TE courses were encouraging him to teach his students to question disciplinary texts, and that one way to do this is to bring in different types of texts such as primary sources or more "academic" materials that present different perspectives. Although it is unclear what Mark means by "academic sources," these ideas about how to approach texts and what types of texts are needed in history instruction reflects the conceptions Mark had developed through his history courses.

Furthermore, Mark viewed his TE courses, particularly the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses, as further advancing his previous conception about the importance of using a range of texts in the history classroom. His following comments reflect those he made throughout all three interviews:

The thing I took away probably the most from the literacy course was just using a variety of different literacy techniques. Like audio-visual, primary sources, whatever, to get the kids thinking in a whole bunch of different terms. And seeing a whole bunch of different types of literacy first hand.

Although Mark referenced the types of texts as "literacy techniques" and did not expand here on how these texts might encourage students to think in "a whole bunch of different terms," it is clear that he is referencing using a variety of text formats. This message is also similar to the ones he received from his disciplinary coursework about how different text formats can serve to increase one's historical understandings.

Although Mark received similar messages about disciplinary reading and texts from his history and TE coursework, his field experiences seem to have presented him with a different perspective. Mark's comments about his field experiences and

disciplinary reading and texts focused on what types of texts to use in history; he rarely mentioned other dimensions of disciplinary reading, such as approaches to texts. This may in part be due to the fact that neither of his CTs used texts in the ways Mark's disciplinary or TE coursework emphasized. Instead, his CTs seemed to view texts as providers of content information, not necessarily as presenting students with *a* perspective on an historical event. Despite this similarity in his two field experiences – and the fact that in both settings there were many students who struggled with the disciplinary reading demands in history – they did differ in the types of texts they used, with his first CT using a range of texts and the other CT relying heavily on the textbook.

In his first field placement, a ninth grade world history class, Mark described the CT as using:

> A lot of different types of readings . . . like primary sources or textbook or even more simplified sources. Just anything to like a variation to get through to the class. And then they show a lot of videos or a lot of like picture stuff like that. Other ways to incorporate some type of literacy practice into the classroom.

My observations in this classroom substantiate Mark's remarks here. Furthermore, Mark discussed how the CT used a range of texts as a means of "getting through" to the students or trying to engage them in the content. This was a particularly challenging group of students as a high percentage of them had emotional and learning disabilities, and about half of the class was identified as English language learners. The CT found that using a variety of types of texts was a successful hook for many of the students. Although both Mark's coursework and this field experience emphasized the importance of using a range of texts with students, their rationales for doing so differed. However, this semester Mark's rationale for using a variety of texts was more reflective of the discipline than his field experiences, as he discussed the importance of exposing students

to a range of historical perspectives. It is not until the end of his second semester in the

TE program that we see Mark's rationale become more aligned with his field

experiences.

Mark's field experiences during his second and final semesters in the TE program

added another layer of messages to those he had already received about disciplinary

reading. Although his CT relied primarily on the textbook, Mark remained committed to

using a range of texts with his seventh grade students. This is apparent in the following

passage:

> I think we [he and his CT] both think that it's important that the kids can read out of the textbook and be able to comprehend what they read and understand, and be able to apply it to stuff . . . But, I think I would focus a lot more on, on primary sources, on visual sources, pictures, movies. Something that the kids can see and relate to. You know, primary sources are well, like, if you can bring in a book where at the end of the letter or whatever, it's Thomas Jefferson's signature, maybe the kids, it will really click to them. It's not just something out of the textbook that some publisher put out. It's just him, you know, writing down. I think that an approach that, that's what always got me, when I was in high school. I was like, 'Wow. This is his actual words.' Stuff like that. I think that's where we might differ a little bit, because I would want to bring more of that stuff in. And audio, as well, like more music.

Although Mark noted that he and his CT had similar views on the importance of reading

and comprehension in the history classroom, their approaches differed. Mark certainly

made it clear that he wanted to use a range of texts, and we now see his rationale for

doing so shifting to engaging students and providing them with materials they can "relate

to." Similar to his first field experience, Mark was working with students who had

reading challenges, and trying to engage them in the content was an on-going issue for

him. Thus, it seems Mark's experiences with students across the semesters might have

led him to align his rationale for using a range of texts more with his first CT than with

his disciplinary coursework.

By the end of his final semester in the TE program, recall that Mark's rationale for using a range of texts was inclusive of the messages he received from his disciplinary and TE coursework as well as from his field experiences. It is unclear from his commentary why he made this switch, but we can speculate that the similar messages he received from his coursework and his three semesters of working with students with reading challenges helped him to recognize that using a range of texts can serve both discipline specific *and* general purposes. Similar to Kathy, we can only hypothesize about how Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts might have grown had he been able to see more models of the disciplinary reading instructional approaches discussed in his disciplinary and TE coursework.

In sum, it should be clear from this discussion that Kathy and Mark's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts grew in different ways across their time in the TE program. My analysis suggests that their disciplinary and TE coursework, as well as their field experiences, interacted in complicated ways to influence these PSTs' evolving understandings of what it means to read and work with texts in history. Of these three factors, the PSTs' disciplinary understandings seemed to be particularly influential, as they seemed to affect how the PSTs made sense of their TE coursework and field experiences. But what was it about the PSTs' disciplinary backgrounds that was most significant?

Early Influences on the PSTs' Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts

Prior to the PSTs' entrance into the TE program, the PSTs' academic majors and their experiences using disciplinary reading practices themselves as students appear to be

major influences on their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts. As previous research suggests, teachers' understandings of the disciplines they teach influence what they do instructionally with their students (e.g., Bain & Mirel, 2006; Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Shulman, 1986; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988). What is less agreed upon is how to measure teachers' disciplinary understandings. In much previous research, the academic major, and in particular the number of courses in the major, is used as a proxy for teachers' disciplinary knowledge (Floden & Meniketti, 2006; Wilson, Floden, & Mundy, 2001). However, there are shortcomings with this approach, as the number of courses taken does not necessarily equate to rich, historical understandings. Thus, to determine the PSTs' disciplinary understandings as they pertain to reading in history, I focused primarily on the substance of the PSTs' interview and assessment responses, although I did look at the courses in the PSTs' academic majors, as well.

My findings support Wilson and Wineburg's (1998) conclusion that the disciplinary backgrounds of novice teachers can influence the aspects of history – in this case the aspects of disciplinary reading and texts in history – which they emphasize in their instruction. However, my findings also indicate that there is not a direct relationship between PSTs' academic majors and their conceptions of disciplinary reading in history. For example, having a major in history is not always enough to ensure that a PST will have a strong understanding of how to approach texts in history. Furthermore, the academic minor only seemed to be a factor for PSTs minoring in English. In the following sections, I discuss in more detail the influence of the PSTs' academic backgrounds and their experiences using disciplinary reading practices themselves as students.

Preservice Teachers' Academic Majors and Minors

Before turning to my analysis, it may be helpful to review the academic majors of

the PSTs in this study: History (8), Social Studies (4), History and Social Studies (2),

History, Social Studies, and English (1), and Political Science (1) (Table 8).

Table 8: PSTs' Academic Backgrounds and Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading.

Preservice Teacher	Academic Major	Academic Minor	Overall Conception of Disciplinary Reading at End of Semester 1*
Ameena	History	Political Science	General
Christa	History	Political Science	Discipline Specific
Jared	History	Political Science	Discipline Specific
Scott	History	Political Science	Developing
Jessica	History	Psychology	Developing
John	History	English	Discipline Specific
Howard	History	English	Developing
Myron	History	English	General
Alex	Social Studies	Math	General
Georgia	Social Studies	Psychology	General
Kathy	Social Studies	Psychology & Political Science	General
Michelle	Social Studies	History	General
Mark	History & Social Studies	None	Developing
Stacey	History & Social Studies	None	Developing
Bethany	History, Social Studies, & English	None	Developing
Rick	Political Science	Spanish	General

* I include the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading after their first semester in the TE program, as this is closest to the time PSTs spent in coursework related to their academic majors. Thus, the PSTs may have had better recall about these courses than at a later time in the TE program.

Although it is beyond the scope of my analysis here to detail what each of these

majors entailed in terms of specific course expectations and content, a general

understanding of the history requirements for the predominant majors of these PSTs –

history and social studies – may help us to better understand the PSTs' comments with

regards to their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts (see Appendix A for additional information with regard to course requirements). History majors were required to take at least 30 credits in history, which corresponded to approximately 8-10 courses. This included 6 required courses: 2 in U.S. history; 2 in world history that are focused on the same geographical area; 1 European history; and 1history colloquium. Social studies majors, on the other hand, were required to take only 4 courses in history: 2 courses in U.S. history and 2 courses in world history. The other courses required for a social studies major included two courses in each of the following areas: political science, economics, and geography.

In addition to the obvious difference in the number of history courses required of history and social studies majors, the absence of a required history colloquium for social studies majors is particularly striking, as it is in this course where students are required to conduct an original investigation in history. This project immerses students in the disciplinary literacy tasks required of history, and is often cited by the history majors as strengthening their understanding of how to engage in disciplinary reading practices and how to create historical arguments.

An academic major influencing conceptions of disciplinary reading. Overall, the PSTs' academic majors did seem to influence their understandings of the reading approaches and texts relevant in history. This is perhaps most clear in the case of Rick, the only political science major in the cohort. He was the only PST: 1) to discuss relevant concepts he might teach, prior to beginning the TE coursework; 2) to mention literacy practices and formats relevant to civics; and, 3) to link the disciplinary reading

skills developed in civics to students' citizenship skills.[35] In terms of concepts, Rick

noted in the first assessment that, if he were to teach a U.S. history unit on the founding

of the U.S., he would emphasize concepts such as federalism and democracy. Because

the PSTs took this assessment prior to beginning their TE coursework, we can infer that

Rick most likely developed this understanding of concepts in his disciplinary major or in

his high school experiences in civics. No other PSTs mentioned concepts at this point in

time, and few PSTs named historically relevant concepts in the data sources at any time

across the TE program. This may be because concepts play a larger role in civics

instruction than they traditionally have in history, and Rick was the only political science

major among the PSTs.

Furthermore, Rick was the only PST to discuss disciplinary texts and instructional

practices pertinent to civics, such as having students read position statements and case

studies. No other PSTs, even those with political science minors or those with field

placements in civics classrooms, discussed texts specifically relevant to teaching civics.

The influence of the political science major was also apparent in Rick's discussion of

how the literacy skills developed through class debates, evaluating evidence, and

considering others' perspectives are useful in not only understanding the discipline, but in

developing good citizens – one of the over-riding goals of school civics.

Disciplinary reading and texts in other social science disciplines. Although

there were no planned questions in the interview protocols that asked PSTs to comment

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[35] I use the term *political science* when I reference the discipline and *civics* when I reference the school
subject most related to political science. Civics has an explicit focus on developing in students the
citizenship skills relevant in a pluralistic, democratic society, whereas political science does not have this as
a goal. Furthermore, the context of schooling – such as the emphasis on compact units of study with
measurable objectives – heavily influences the content and character of school subjects. Thus, school
teachers often focus on the content of a discipline, rather than a discipline's distinctive methodologies or
literacy practices. Thus, the content of civics may not always reflect that of political science.

about disciplinary reading in other disciplines besides their own, some PSTs did initiate discussions about this. Interestingly, across all of the interviews and assessments, the only PSTs to mention the topic of disciplinary reading as it applies to other social science disciplines besides history were social studies majors and the above example of Rick. This is another instance in which the PSTs' academic majors seemed to influence their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts.

Of the seven PSTs with majors in social studies, two – Kathy and Mark – provide the clearest examples of how PSTs addressed reading across the social science disciplines. During the first interview, Kathy, who had minors in political science and psychology, discussed the similarities and differences between texts in history and political science. She specifically noted how "old texts," such as essays by Machiavelli and Locke, and current newspapers can be relevant in both history and civics classes; furthermore, she argued that "old texts" play a larger role in history classes and newspapers serve as a source for current events analysis in civics classes. Although Kathy did not elaborate on these ideas, her comments suggest that she was at least aware of how texts can play different roles depending on the purpose and discipline in which they are used.

Mark, who had a double major in social studies and history, also noted some of the differences between reading in history and other social science disciplines, emphasizing the "scientific" aspects of the latter. In the first interview, he described how texts differ across history, political science, and geography:

> Political science and geography courses [at the college level] are a lot more geared toward looking at things in a more scientific matter than history is. Actually, it's entirely different. The type of reading you do is a lot more, 'Here's

my methods. Here's my hypothesis' type of thing. Rather than history, where it's just, 'This is kind of what we think happened.' So it's a different type of reading.

Mark's comments suggest that he saw a "scientific" dimension to political science and geography, in contrast to the more narrative nature of history. Besides noting the textual features in these disciplines – namely the inclusion of methods and a hypothesis – it is unclear in this passage what Mark considered to be the "scientific" aspects of political science and geography.

Mark returned to the more scientific approach of the social science disciplines in the second interview, raising a point that other PSTs did not – that being a social studies major had made him mindful of the importance of looking at information from a number of perspectives. He explained that his coursework for the social studies major,

> Got me thinking in different terms, which probably opened me up to later down the line, being able to put a political science class and other history classes I took – look at it in different terms, maybe a more scientific approach. . . .That's a huge thing to view things as someone from, as a professional from the discipline would. Like an historian. Like an economist. To view things in their terms. When you can view things in their terms, you can really comprehend how to approach the learning of the material, of the subject.

Again, Mark referenced taking a "scientific approach" to the disciplines, and although he still did not state explicitly what he meant by this, it is apparent that he valued the ways in which the courses for his social studies major got him "thinking in different terms." In the latter part of this passage, Mark discussed the importance of viewing the text from a disciplinary perspective, as this shapes what the learner takes away from it. Thus, although Mark still seemed to be working through what the disciplinary distinctions across history and the social science disciplines are, he did acknowledge the broader message that disciplines matter, both in terms of their textual features and their disciplinary perspectives.

Influence of academic minors. Most PSTs in this cohort had academic minors

in the social sciences, with a few exceptions: there was one math, one Spanish, and three

English minors (and one PST had a triple major that included English). Interestingly, I

did not find much influence of the academic minors on the PSTs' conceptions of

disciplinary reading and texts in history, except for those with social studies and English

minors. In general, PSTs rarely mentioned their academic minors. This might be a

reflection of the interview and assessment protocols, as we did not explicitly explore this

topic. However, there were ample opportunities for the PSTs to discuss their academic

minors as we did ask the PSTs in each interview to discuss the influences on their

conceptions of disciplinary literacy, reading, and texts. English minors were the only

PSTs to explicitly reference their academic minors throughout their commentary.

They did so in several ways, by: 1) identifying how English and history differ; 2)

explaining how English and history can influence each other; 3) discussing their teaching

responsibilities in terms of what might traditionally be considered English "territory";

and, 4) integrating history and English to too great of an extent. First, some of these

PSTs used English as a way to highlight how history has unique literacy tasks. For

example, Myron described how texts in these disciplines differ:

> It's very important to teach them [the students] the difference between a history
> paper and an English paper, because there is a difference. Just in terms of how
> the argument is set up. Like, for example, if I am writing a paper about poetry, I
> am writing sort of this explication paper. I am trying to find some type of deeper
> meaning within the poetry. I mean, those skills come through in primary sources,
> like if you're just trying to get them to read those documents, then certainly
> you're doing some explication. But in terms of making arguments about
> historical events, I think that's a little bit different from an explication paper.

Myron suggested that an English paper is based more on "explication," whereas a history

paper is based around an argument. Although he stated that explication may be tied to

reading primary sources, he implied that this is only part of the process needed when creating an historical argument. Myron's comments here demonstrate that he had some understanding of how the purpose and structure of texts compare in history and English, but it is not clear from his commentary here or elsewhere in this interview his views on how to make "arguments about historical events."

Another common topic mentioned by the PSTs with minors in English is how some of the features of an English class can be adapted for history. For example, Bethany described how a history teacher can use the same scaffolding process with a historical text that an English teacher might use with a novel. She explained that it is important in both disciplines to introduce the students to the text; to give them a purpose for reading; to read a portion of the text together as a class; and, to provide additional supports to students as needed. The overlap these PSTs saw between history and English is also apparent in the types of texts these discussed wanting to use with their students. More so than non-English minors, these PSTs stated that they wanted to use poetry, autobiographies, and other non-fiction texts in the history classroom. For instance, John described with some detail how he used *All Quiet on the Western Front* with his high school students to develop their historical empathy skills.

Howard offered yet another example of how the skills developed in English can benefit the learner in history and vice versa. He explained how the learner's purpose for reading in English and history determines what is learned:

> When you read literature from any time period, you have to look at it as a product of the time period a lot of times. You can see what's going on. . . . Reading it just as a piece of literature, regardless of time or the time period it came from, it's fun to read it that way because it's a great story. But then you think about the time period it's written in, the culture, and it becomes different when you read it with that in mind, when you're looking for certain things. You'll find certain things

that you wouldn't notice before. Then, if you read it in terms of the people, the author, why he wrote this, and who he was writing for, then you start to see other pieces and it all kind of comes together. It's not just a story right here, but there's more to it and you can read it in different ways. And the same with primary documents in history. . . . It's very interesting to read on its own [a primary document], reading it for the ideas. But then you think about who's writing it, who they're writing it for. . . . It just depends on what your purpose is.

In this extended passage, Howard implied that taking the historical context into consideration when reading in both the English and history classroom alters what the reader takes away from the text. As the reader considers more contextual factors, such as the culture, the author, and the intended audience, Howard claimed that one develops a different understanding of it. Thus, the reader's purpose for reading is particularly important, both in English and history.

Given the primacy of reading and writing in English, we might expect the PSTs with English minors to more willingly accept responsibility for developing their students' disciplinary reading skills. This was not necessarily the case, however, as some PSTs took very clear responsibility and others actually shirked this responsibility by the end of the TE program. These ends of the spectrum are most apparent in John and Myron's interview responses. Although both state throughout the interviews that reading and writing are critical components of history, John took a stronger stance towards assisting students in developing these skills in his history class. He stated at the end of the third interview: "I've always been one of those people who likes to say that I'm really supporting students' ability to read and write, and I don't want to leave it just for the English teachers to do." John went on to give multiple examples of how he had integrated different forms of writing as well as writing instruction into his history class, including in-class writing prompts, homework assignments that involve writing, and

"creative propaganda writing."

Similar to John, Myron stated in the second interview that he really wanted to focus on writing, as this was an area in which his students struggled. But by the end of his student teaching semester, Myron retreated from taking responsibility for developing his students' overall literacy skills, stating that he did not have time to focus on literacy due to the pressure he felt to stay with the school's pacing chart. When the interviewer pushed him to expand on this, he explained that it is both the student and the teacher's responsibility to work on literacy skills. Myron explained:

> I can't give a skill to someone who isn't interested in developing it. So I think it's both. And I think the students decide ultimately. From being here [student teaching field placement], the students decide what they need. . . . Ultimately, the student [decides].

In contrast to the vast majority of PSTs, Myron argued that developing reading and writing skills in history is a joint endeavor between the student and teacher, but "ultimately" the student is primarily responsible.

At the end of this interview, we begin to see what factors might be influencing Myron's stance on this issue. In his description of why he did not focus much on writing in his history class, Myron stated:

> As a history teacher, I think it would turn me into a writing teacher. In the beginning my goal was to use term papers as a sort of synthesis. But after I'd gotten into the school, I noticed that there were so many different writing abilities. It's like, how do you design one paper that can truly assess all the different abilities? Because a kid writing and reading at the fourth grade level is not going to do the same things as a kid at a high school level. So do I give him an F? In a way, I set him up.

In this passage, Myron raised two significant problems that all of the PSTs faced during student teaching – how to assess students' work in ways that acknowledge their current literacy abilities and then how to differentiate instruction. Recognizing these challenges

and being unsure of how to deal with them, Myron decided to not give writing assignments in his history classes, requiring written responses only to essay questions on tests. This stands in stark contrast to comments he made across all of his interview and assessment responses about the importance of reading and writing in history and also runs counter to what other PSTs in similar contexts did. Thus, although Myron understood the significance of disciplinary reading and writing, he did not translate this knowledge into relevant instructional approaches he could use with his students. It seems that his teaching context may have been influential here, as he worked in a challenging context with numerous students who struggled with reading and writing and with a CT who aligned her responsibility more with content than with strengthening students' literacy skills.

A final pattern apparent in the commentary of PSTs with English minors has to do with the way all of them at times conflated English and history, overlooking some of the distinctions between the two disciplines. For example, John mentioned that the literacy skills students need in English and history are the same, except that in history students need to memorize facts. He explained that:

> I still view history . . . as I view like a literature course, except that you're dealing with like real facts and real events that happened [in history]. And so you're constantly, like with English, you might be taking a book and comparing it to another book or a work and comparing it to an author's previous work . . . but with history there's always like at least a set of facts that you feel like you should prepare.

John implied here that the skills needed to compare texts in English are similar to those needed in history, the difference being that the student has to deal with facts in history. Although there are certainly similarities between the literacy skills required in English

and history, they are not one and the same. Furthermore, there is also a role for facts with regards to texts in the English classroom, a point that John did not acknowledge.

Bethany, who had a triple major in history, social studies, and English, also saw English and history as similar, and she went so far as to suggest that the disciplines should be fully integrated in the classroom:

> I think language arts and history, at least in my definition, go hand in hand. Because I really think that in order for a student to be able to study history, they really need to know how to analyze text and break it down, put it in context, choose the author, who's the audience. And that's all part of, that's English, too. But so really, I think you could integrate English and history. I think there could be just one big broad class about that.

Similar to John, Bethany identified how some of the literacy tasks in history are also relevant in English. What is striking about Bethany's comments here, and those of the other English minors, is that they held some of the strongest conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history compared to their peers, and yet they still often merged history and English in ways that are not fully reflective of the different disciplinary reading tasks and demands of these disciplines. If PSTs with stronger understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history are merging reading tasks and demands in this way, how are other PSTs, with still developing ideas, seeing disciplinary reading in history in relation to their academic minors? This is a question worth further exploration in future studies.

Academic backgrounds matter, but are not enough. The above discussion about academic majors and minors suggests that they do have some influence on the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary literacy writ large, and disciplinary reading and texts in particular. However, for some PSTs having a major in history in and of itself did not cause them to have strong conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history. This

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is most clear in the case of Ameena and Christa, both of whom had the same academic majors and minors, history and political science respectively. However, their conceptions varied, with Ameena at a general and Christa at a discipline specific level of understanding throughout their time in the TE program.

One illustration of this relates to Ameena and Christa's discussion of the reading heuristics for history. During the final interview, Ameena explained that she thought it was important for students to consider why a text was written, when it was written, and the context of the writing. She offered no further explanation as to why these are important to address in history or how she did, or might, develop students' abilities to use the heuristics in meaningful ways. Christa, on the other hand, did not list the requisite reading heuristics, instead explaining at greater length how teaching students to be critical readers is a key aspect of history. At the end of the first semester in the TE program, Christa explained that,

> The most important thing that comes to mind in terms of literacy instruction in history is learning ways to read a text that really delve into the deeper points of a text. I think that the most important part of reading history and writing history is being critical. Because, again, there are so many facets to history and history can be hold in so many different ways, it's really important for students to be critical of different views of history. That's how they make their own opinion, that's how they have theoretical arguments that really bring out certain aspects of history.

According to Christa, because history does not have *a* story but includes multiple viewpoints, students need to be critical readers so that they can develop their own opinions and "theoretical arguments." Although she did not explicate here what it means to be a critical reader, we can see that Christa had a conception of what critical reading should lead to – the construction of theoretical arguments. Creating historical arguments is not a topic that Ameena discussed in any of her interview or assessment responses.

The differences between Ameena and Christa's conceptions of disciplinary reading in history are also apparent in their discussion of how they taught their students to read like historians. Ameena explained that she used primary documents and non-traditional texts, such as song lyrics, to engage students. She did not discuss here, or elsewhere, how learning to read and analyze primary documents contributes to the students' overall understanding of history and involves them in literacy tasks similar to those of historians. Christa, in contrast, discussed how she often used primary documents to develop students' historical empathy and their ability to consider other people's perspectives. With regards to an excerpt from the "Alien and Sedition Acts," Christa explained in one of her assessment responses that students might have difficulty understanding, "what the federalists felt and feared enough to put these acts in writing." She suggested that students struggle with taking on historical perspectives as they read, so she wanted to support students in developing these habits.

I observed Christa do just that in a lesson meant to develop students' conception of enculturation. She began the lesson by having students respond in writing to a scenario in which they are forced to wear school uniforms and cut their hair in "appropriate ways." She used this hook to engage the students in an exploration of several primary source documents related to the experiences of Native American youth forced to attend boarding schools. Christa supported the students' exploration of these documents by modeling for them how to critically analyze both a visual image and a written first-person narrative. In neither Ameena's lesson plans nor my observations of her teaching did I see her engage in the types of instructional practices that Christa did to develop her students' disciplinary reading skills.

PSTs' Level of Experience in Using Discipline Specific Reading Practices

As these examples illustrate, academic majors and minors are important but not the sole factors influencing how these PSTs' made sense of disciplinary reading and texts in history. A factor related to the PSTs' experiences in their academic coursework at both the college and pre-collegiate levels also seemed to be particularly influential – their exposure and experience in using reading practices specific to history themselves as students. Not surprisingly, those PSTs with experience in using such practices in high school had stronger conceptions of disciplinary reading than their peers. However, as with the academic major, having experience with reading approaches specific to history in high school did not directly translate into the PSTs having a strong understanding of disciplinary reading in history when they entered the TE program. Furthermore, the PSTs did not always describe their history courses at the college level as assisting them in developing disciplinary reading approaches relevant to history. To illustrate these points, I explore the self-reported experiences of PSTs who had limited, some, and significant exposure to reading practices specific to history in high school.

All of the PSTs who claimed that they had limited to no exposure in high school to the reading practices relevant in history also fell within the general to developing level of understanding of disciplinary reading and texts. Furthermore, these PSTs focused their discussion about their own disciplinary reading skills on working with primary sources. For example, Alex explained that he was not exposed to primary sources in high school as,

> It was considered an achievement to get everyone in the class to be able to spit like out a fact about it [the history textbook]. And I was beyond that, and there was no one to help me like reach the college level [in terms of reading analysis].

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Similarly, Rick noted that he was not aware what primary sources were in high school. "I never even heard the word," he explained.

One result of the lack of exposure to primary sources is that these PSTs struggled to interpret them at the college level. Alex explained that he still struggled with primary source analysis, and cited his limited exposure to them in high school as partly responsible. He stated:

> It took me forever to figure how to read the primary sources in my history classes. And even now like when I read them, I've got to have laid out things in my head what I'm looking for when I read it. Otherwise, I'll have to go back and start over. Like just completely miss everything because I'm reading it more like a book than a primary source.

Similar to other PSTs with limited exposure to primary sources, Alex explained that he still had to be very mindful when reading, remembering to keep at the forefront his purpose for reading. As noted previously, Kathy remarked that she still read primary sources more like a student than an historian, adding that, ". . . as a social studies teacher, I need more practice in reading and writing like an historian if I'm going to teach it. I don't think I've mastered that by any means." As I noted earlier, she wished she could take her history coursework over again, knowing what she knows now about reading like an historian.

Since the PSTs with the least amount of exposure to disciplinary reading practices in high school also had the most general conception of disciplinary reading, we might expect the PSTs with some experience with disciplinary reading practices to have more developed conceptions of disciplinary reading in history. Although this was true for several of the PSTs, this was not always the case. Two of the PSTs with the most discipline specific conceptions of disciplinary reading, Jared and John, had only some

experience with disciplinary reading approaches in high school. Jared did not reference his pre-collegiate history experiences at all, instead focusing on how his English classes at both the middle and high school levels stressed skills related to close textual reading. For example, Jared described how his middle school English teacher had students write a summary sentence after each paragraph in the text, later joining these sentences to create a summary of the whole passage. John offered a similar recounting of his school experiences, though he went back to elementary school describing how his teachers encouraged free writing. John claimed that this built his confidence and strengthened his writing skills, making more analytic writing, such as he had to do in history, come easier to him. He also cited an A.P. history class in high school as developing his skill in finding the author's argument, as the teacher of this class made the students identify the thesis statement in every class reading.

If the PSTs' level of experience with disciplinary reading practices as students is related to their conceptions of disciplinary reading in history, what explains the case of Jared and John, who had only some exposure to historical reading and texts in high school but demonstrated some of the most discipline specific conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts across their semesters in the TE program? Although the data did not directly indicate a reason, my knowledge of these PSTs in a classroom setting suggests that they were bright students and had enough knowledge and capability to capitalize on their experiences at the college level.

Other PSTs with strong conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, namely Bethany and Christa, also showed similar capabilities to Jared and John, although they described having more significant exposure to disciplinary reading practices in history

prior to high school. Bethany explained that as early as middle school, her history

teachers were emphasizing the importance of multiple interpretations in history. Often

her teachers had students read different versions of an historical event, compare them,

and then offer their perspectives on the authors' interpretations. Although Christa did not

mention experience with disciplinary reading at the middle school level, she did discuss

how her three A.P. history classes in high school introduced her to primary sources. Her

teachers in these classes regularly worked with the students on document-based

questions, which Christa explained helped her to develop skill in interpreting primary

sources.

As these descriptions illustrate, the PSTs entered college with various levels of

exposure and experience with discipline specific reading practices in history. One might

hypothesize that taking college history classes might help to equalize the PSTs' skill level

in using disciplinary reading practices. However, the PSTs described different

experiences with disciplinary reading in their college coursework, even when the PSTs

had the same disciplinary major. On the one hand is Jared, a history major, who

explained how his history courses at the university level built upon the skills he

developed in high school. In one of his first history courses, the instructor explicitly

taught students what questions to ask of primary documents in history and why this was

important to do. Christa, another history major, had experiences similar to Jared's. She

described how she felt confident of her disciplinary reading skills when beginning her

coursework, but realized that they were not "up to snuff" in her history colloquium

course.

John, although also a history major, described a different scenario, explaining that

he could not identify any of his college classes that, ". . . overtly told you how to go about being an historian. So we just sort of had to pick up as you were going along for the most part." Although a social studies, and not a history major, Kathy described a similar experience, explaining that her history instructors seemed to assume that she already knew how to analyze primary sources. Thus, it was not until her TE coursework that she recognized that there were steps she could take to analyzing these texts. The PSTs' comments here suggest that, even though these PSTs took similar coursework in history, their exposure to and experience with disciplinary reading practices in history was not as similar as we might expect. This, of course, has consequences for teacher education, and suggests that there is a need for continued work to strengthen PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history as well as their skill in using discipline specific reading practices.

It is clear from this analysis that the PSTs benefited from having both high school and college experiences with disciplinary reading practices in history. The challenge is in finding ways to provide these types of meaningful experiences to all PSTs, ideally prior to their entrance into the TE program (I discuss this topic in more detail in Chapter 6). With an increased understanding of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and what influenced their ideas, I turn now to an exploration of how these ideas influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their middle and high school students.

Chapter 5:
Discipline Specificity of Reading Instructional Approaches

With a deeper, more nuanced understanding of the PSTs' conceptions of

disciplinary reading and texts in history, I turn now to an exploration of how these

conceptions influenced the reading instructional approaches the PSTs used with their

middle and high school students. Several questions seem significant to address. First, to

what extent did the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history influence the

reading instructional approaches they used? For instance, were PSTs with discipline

specific understandings of reading in history more likely to use discipline specific reading

instructional approaches than their peers with more general conceptions? What other

factors or conceptions seemed to influence whether and to what extent these PSTs used

discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students? For instance, did

the PSTs' perception of their students' literacy abilities influence the reading

instructional approaches they used?

Based on my analysis, I have identified several broad findings related to these

questions:

- There was a significant relationship between the PSTs' conceptions of
  disciplinary reading and text and the reading instructional approaches they
  discussed using with their students.

- Although the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their students, it was not a direct relationship or the only factor.

- The PSTs' orientation toward students, particularly the PSTs' perceptions of their students' literacy abilities, seemed to mediate to what extent the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading influenced their reading instructional approaches.

- PSTs who focused on what their students *could* do academically were more likely to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches than PSTs who focused on students' literacy and academic challenges.

Before exploring these findings in more detail, it is important to note that I focus in this chapter on the seven PSTs for whom I have the most complete data sets: four TE program assessments, three interviews, and field observations from each of their semesters in the TE program. The third interview, occurring near the end of the student teaching semester, was particularly insightful as PSTs discussed at length the instructional approaches they used with their students. Table 9 summarizes these PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading, their orientation toward students, and the common reading instructional approaches that they utilized.

Note that in general the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts related to the type of reading instructional approaches they used with their students. The more discipline specific the PSTs' conceptions of reading and text were, the more *likely* they were to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches, as is exemplified by Jared and John. In contrast, PSTs with general but developing conceptions of reading

Table 9: Level of Conceptions, Orientation, and Instructional Approaches by PST.

	Overall Conception of Disciplinary Reading in History*	Orientation toward Students	Reading Instructional Approaches Used by PSTs*
Christa	Discipline specific	Moves from singular to developing to singular	Moves from discipline specific to general
Jared	Discipline specific	Moves from singular to developing to comprehensive	Discipline specific
John	Discipline specific	Comprehensive	Moves from developing to discipline specific
Mark	Between developing and discipline specific	Developing	Moves from developing to mix of developing and discipline specific
Myron	Moves from general to developing	Singular	General
Rick	Moves from general to developing	Singular	General
Kathy	Moves from general to developing	Moves from developing to singular to comprehensive	Moves from general to developing

*The categories for the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history and reading instructional approaches ranged from general to developing to discipline specific. The PSTs' orientation toward students ranged from singular to developing to comprehensive.

and texts, such as Myron and Rick, were more likely to use more general reading

instructional approaches. Furthermore, for some PSTs their level of orientation toward

students seemed to mediate the relationship between their conceptions and instructional

approaches. This is evident in the case of Christa, who had discipline specific

conceptions of reading and texts but the singular orientation she held at the end of student

teaching seemed to influence her move towards more general reading instructional

approaches.

To aid our exploration of these relationships, I have organized this chapter into three sections. First, I begin by discussing the discipline specificity of the PSTs' conceptions of reading and texts in history and the extent to which these influenced their reading instructional approaches. To do this, I show how the PSTs' instructional ideas related to the dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts I explored in the previous chapter. Second, I explore the PSTs' orientation toward students, as this also had an important influence on the types of reading instructional approaches some of the PSTs used. In this section I first define the features of the PSTs' orientation that seemed to matter most with regards to the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. Finally, I highlight three PSTs, who illustrate how PSTs' orientations toward students influenced to what extent the PSTs used discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

Before proceeding with my analysis, I want to clarify that I do not have an explicit focus in this chapter, as I did in the previous one, on how the PSTs' instructional ideas related to reading in history changed over time. Although I did explore this question in my data analysis, my primary interest is in the relationship between the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and text and the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. However, where warranted, I do make reference to changes in the PSTs' instructional ideas as they relate to the factors listed above. For instance, I do show in the final case examples how PSTs' orientations toward students changed over time and the consequences this had for the reading instructional approaches they used with their students.

Relationship between Conceptions and Instructional Approaches

In relation to the dimensions of disciplinary reading and text I explored in the previous chapter, I wondered to what extent the PSTs' *conceptions* of these dimensions related to the actual *instructional approaches* the PSTs used in their classrooms. As I attempted to make these connections, it became clear that the instructional versions of these dimensions required a slightly different focus and language. Table 10 summarizes the dimensions as they apply to the PSTs' conceptions *and* reading instructional approaches. Note that I made only slight modifications to the language to make the dimensions applicable to instruction. For example, with regards to reading challenges, PSTs' conceptions of this had to do with them naming and describing particular challenges while the instructional version of this dimension focuses on what the PSTs did in their teaching to assist students with these challenges.

Table 10: Relationship between Conceptions and Reading Instructional Approaches.

Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading	Reading Instructional Approaches
Types of disciplinary texts	Types of texts PSTs used
Role of texts in the discipline	Role of texts in the history classroom
Approaches to disciplinary texts	Instructional approaches used for teaching students to read like members of the discipline
Role of students in disciplinary reading	Role of students in working with disciplinary texts in the history classroom
Reading challenges students may face with disciplinary texts	Instructional approaches used to assist students with reading challenges in disciplinary texts

The relationship between the PSTs' conceptions and reading instructional approaches was most apparent with regard to the following two dimensions: the types of texts the PSTs described using and the ways in which they taught students to read like members of the discipline.[36] We can see the PSTs' conceptions of the role of texts and the role of students in relation to some of the reading instructional approaches the PSTs used, although few PSTs discussed this explicitly. Furthermore, although the PSTs did comment on the types of instructional scaffolding they *might* use to assist students with reading challenges, there was not much evidence of these ideas in their actual teaching or in their discussion of their own teaching, except for two of the PSTs with discipline specific conceptions, Jared and Christa (see Chapter 4, p. 148 – 149 for a discussion of the instructional scaffolding they used).

To illustrate these relationships, I highlight here the conceptions and reading instructional approaches of two PSTs, John and Rick. I selected these PSTs for several reasons. First, the influence of their disciplinary backgrounds is apparent in both their conceptions of disciplinary reading and in the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. Second, we see different types of relationships – one an almost direct relationship and the other less direct – between their conceptions and reading instructional approaches. Finally, the literacy abilities and demographic backgrounds of the students with whom these PSTs worked during their second and third semesters of the

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[36] In addition to reading instructional approaches aimed at teaching students to read like members of the discipline, the PSTs frequently discussed the reading instructional approaches they used that fit within the before-during-after reading framework. For example, many PSTs described how they activated students' prior knowledge prior to reading a text. Because the vast majority of PSTs used these instructional approaches in a more general than discipline specific way, I do not focus on them in my discussion here. However, I did want to acknowledge that it was a strong thread throughout all the PSTs' commentary and was an important element of their TE coursework. The influence of the before-during-after reading framework will become more apparent as I discuss Rick's reading instructional approaches later in this section.

TE program were similar. By "controlling" for this factor somewhat, I attempt to highlight the relative importance of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts on their instruction. Overall, John's conceptions of disciplinary reading and text and the reading instructional approaches he used with his students were discipline specific and well aligned. In contrast, Rick's conceptions of disciplinary reading and text were becoming more discipline specific across his time in the TE program, but the reading instructional approaches he used were more general.

In what follows, I focus on the two dimensions of disciplinary reading for which I have the most substantial and clear evidence: the types of texts they used with their students and the ways in which they taught students to read like members of the discipline (history for John and political science for Rick). Where most evident, I make connections between the reading instructional approaches they used and their conceptions of the role of texts and students in the history classroom. I first discuss the PSTs' *conceptions* of each of these dimensions of disciplinary reading, and I then describe the extent to which their *instruction* aligned with their conceptions.

Discipline Specific Conceptions and Reading Instruction: John

A history major and an English minor, John's overall conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history fell within the discipline specific range, and these conceptions seemed to significantly influence the reading instructional approaches he used with his students. Unlike other PSTs, John was one of the few who worked with CTs who routinely used discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. He seemed to be particularly influenced by these CTs, particularly his first one who was a graduate of the same TE program and consistently incorporated reading instructional

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approaches that were discipline specific and that aligned with what John was learning in his TE coursework. John, similar to his peers with discipline specific conceptions, used a broad range of texts with his students. His conceptions of how to approach text fell within the developing to discipline specific range, and the reading instructional approaches he used reflected this.

With regards to the types of texts relevant for history instruction, John noted across his interviews and TE assessments that a broad range of texts were important. For example, he wrote in the second TE assessment that,

> I think it is important to include both primary and secondary sources – this means a textbook or two (the school I am in right now actually has three separate textbooks that are used through the year), several different primary (letters, proclamations, diary entries, paintings, photographs, etc.) and secondary (film, critical texts, etc.) sources.

He later added that it is important to bring in texts that students can relate to, such as sources describing the lives of teenagers in 1945, which related directly to the unit he was teaching at that time of this interview.

Not only did John describe a range of texts, he explained why using such texts is an important part of building students' historical understandings. His ideas on this are evident in the following passage:

> I always try to use a variety of sources when it comes to the sources that I had my students interact with. . . . History is not just one perspective of the events. Not just the textbook's perspective and it's not just the white perspective or anything like that. History is everybody's story for our time and that we all have to understand that. And that's a huge part of history itself is just understanding multiple perspectives even if they're not written down in a book form.

John's comments here suggest that he used multiple texts with his students to assist them in seeing a variety of perspectives about an historical event or time period. Furthermore, his comments indicate that he thought it was necessary to include non-print texts because

some historical accounts are not captured in writing. Following this passage, John went

on to describe how history is not solely about an event, but about accounts of an event.

This discipline specific conception of text is apparent in the types of texts John

used with his high school students. He described some specific texts he utilized, such as:

Howard Zinn's, *A People's History of the U.S.*; two textbooks, one "mainstream" and one

focused on the African American experience; personal accounts from Holocaust

survivors, from those who aided them, and from rescuers; and, an excerpt from William

Jennings Bryan's *Cross of Gold* speech. Furthermore, we can see the influence of John's

English minor in his inclusion of poetry and fiction in his U.S. history class. He

discussed at length how he found it important to use a Langston Hughes poem during a

unit on the Harlem Renaissance and the novel, *All Quiet on the Western Front*, during a

WWI unit.

In the following passage, John also mentioned using non-print texts, ranging from

photographs to timelines:

> Photographs, I use a lot of photographs especially before World War II since those are really the only sort of images that are available. I've used paintings before as well and we try to interact with them in the same way. I got a great thing from my field instructor, Lesley, the other day with how to interact with a photograph and how to have students read things out of photographs and what kind of questions to ask. Like, why was this photograph taken? What do you see in the picture? So on and so forth. I use a lot of video clips and we try to do the same thing. A lot of the times I use video clips to try to emphasize a point that I've made when I've just talked but I want them [the students] to see it to believe it. I feel like sometimes they don't believe it until they actually see it. So that's something that I do, lots of video. And maps. We do, do a lot of work with maps. And timelines even. In a form timelines are something that you interact with much like a reading or a photograph or something like that. We've been constructing this huge time line on the wall during World War II, which has been really fun to put that together. And again, that's just another way to assess their [students'] ability to understand what's going on and also being able to interact with something that's as concrete as a timeline.

Although John did not provide much detail here about how he used each of these texts, he clearly found it important to use multiple types of texts with his students. My observations of his teaching during semesters one and two in the TE program, as well as the observation notes from his field instructor during the student teaching semester substantiate John's statements here. Overall, there was a strong alignment between John's conceptions of the types of texts necessary in history and the texts he actually used with his students.

We see a similar degree of alignment between John's conceptions of how to approach texts in history and the reading instructional approaches he utilized with students. John's ideas about how to teach students to read like historians fell within the developing to discipline specific range. In general, John did not focus as much on teaching students the discrete steps or the process for how to read like an historian, which was true of most PSTs. Instead, John emphasized broader conceptual considerations, such as increasing students' understanding of multiple perspectives and history's interpretive nature.

With regards to John's *conceptions* of teaching students to read like historians, he repeatedly mentioned the "historical method" and the importance of teaching students the steps involved in this process, but he did not always link this process explicitly to reading. He often discussed how he wanted to emulate the approach his first CT used when teaching her students about the historical method (recall that she was a graduate of the same TE program).

John described the historical method as:

Identifying the intellectual problem and then understanding – and then identifying who the author was, what their story was, or what they said their story was, who

their audience was supposed to be, the context around whatever theme was being written about. And then coming up with a thesis, if applicable. Like, what was that person arguing, why were they arguing it.

Here John began to lay out an approach to reading that includes: identifying the intellectual problem in a text and considering the author, his or her intended audience, and the historical context. Although this is a discipline specific approach to reading, John did not reference these ideas much across the data sources. Instead, he emphasized concepts such as argument, interpretation, and evidence, discussing these not as the "how to" of reading in history but as reading goals.

In the second interview, we begin to see some of John's instructional ideas related to helping students find the text's argument. In the following passage, he discussed how comparing two texts, specifically, a traditional textbook and Howard Zinn's *A People's History of the U.S.*, might help students understand the concept of "argument." He explained:

> You might have to use the differences between those two [texts] for the students to really understand like why this text is making an argument and that this text is making an argument. Whereas, this one is presenting the facts in a more – it's supposed to be more objective, whether or not it is, is debatable. But it's easier for the students to understand, like a textbook is presenting facts objectively. Whereas, an author like Zinn is making an argument with his text. And I think that the disparity between those two – the differences between those two might allow the students to be able to understand that this one is making an argument. 'Cause I feel, I feel like it's a lot – that's another problem is that younger students may not be able to understand that history is not just facts but that people argue things with it. And that people have different perspectives. And so that's another thing – working with students to understand those different perspectives as well. I think that's important too.

Here John described the framework for a plausible instructional activity – comparing two texts to highlight how authors present their arguments. He acknowledged that students struggle to understand this concept, as they often believe history is "just facts." Despite

John's initial acknowledgement that textbooks are not necessarily objective, he did not

indicate that textbook authors make arguments, too. Nonetheless, it is clear that John was

making reasonable connections between a reading approach – identifying the author's

argument – and its relevance to history. His final comment in this passage about multiple

perspectives in history relates to another concept he stressed – interpretation in history.

John consistently referenced interpretation as a key concept and skill in history.

For example, he stated that he wanted to work with students,

> So that they understand that history can be about interpretation. If they want to
> take history one way they can, if they want to interpret a conflict or something
> one way they can. But they have to then use evidence and they have to support
> their arguments with maybe other arguments or evidence that they encounter.

John's comments here suggest that he understood the relationship between interpretation

and evidence and the importance of teaching students to use evidence to support their

arguments. What is not clear from this passage – or from his overall commentary – is

John's understanding of what the steps are to learning how to interpret, use evidence, and

create arguments.

Taken together, John's conception of how to teach students to read like historians

verges on being discipline specific, as he focused on making meaning from texts, as

opposed to retrieving information, and the reading approaches he discussed had clear

relevance to history. What keeps John from being firmly in the discipline specific

category is that he focused most of his commentary on broader concepts that are related

to reading, such as argumentation and interpretation; he provided much less detail about

the steps a reader might take to learn *how to* read in ways that are related to these

concepts and he rarely discussed the challenges students might face as they learn to

utilize discipline specific reading approaches (see Table 6, p. 125 for a review of the criteria for each level of understanding).

Given John's conceptions of how to teach students to read history texts we might expect that he would continue to emphasize broader historical concepts in his teaching. He did, but he also included some reading instructional approaches that were more focused on how to read an historical text. For example, he discussed in the final interview how he modeled the reading process for his students. He explained:

> I'll show them how I've done it before. We've gone through a text and we've identified the author and stuff like that together. That's one thing that I wish I was around at the beginning of the year for. In my own classroom I would do that, actually going through and having the points written up on the board. Like authorship and context, stuff just being written. Stuff like that. But in a sense we have worked on it together in class. It just might not have been as explicit as I would like now.

John described in this passage that he assisted students in identifying the author and the text's context. His comments suggest that he viewed this as an important approach to reading, but in hindsight he wished he had been more explicit about this, actually writing this information on the board. It is not clear from his comments here or elsewhere in this interview why he did not do so. My personal conversations with him during this semester suggest that his field context and CT did not hinder his pursuance of this idea, as his CT was supportive and gave him instructional decision making power. I conjecture that it might have to do with his own developing knowledge of *how to teach* students to engage in this reading process, as he seemed to understand *what* the reading process entailed.

Another reading instructional approach that John used related to teaching students to read like historians was hooking students into the text and the broader unit by

beginning with an intellectual problem. As noted in the introductory chapter, historians

have an intellectual problem at the forefront of their thinking as they engage with texts,

and John applied this idea to his own instruction. For his first lesson on a unit about the

Holocaust, John described how he presented students with a question – *How could the*

atrocities of the Holocaust happen? – and then had them engage with several forms of

texts, including a video clip and personal narratives from Holocaust survivors, rescuers,

and those guilty of the atrocities. John described this as his most successful lesson:

> In a way it was maybe reverse scaffolding. I don't know if that's even a term. But
> it was giving them the culmination of the Holocaust, the final solution. And then
> we went back to fill it [the details] in. But I think it gave them an idea, almost
> like a goal [for the unit].

By leading with an intellectual problem, John provided the students with a "goal" for

their learning, and he found that his students' engagement, understanding of the content,

and even submission of homework increased during this unit. Although using an

intellectual problem does not teach students how to read an historical text, it does provide

students with a focus for their reading and analysis.

Despite both of these reading instructional approaches – modeling his own

reading approach and using an intellectual problem to focus students' reading – John

most often described broad concepts he emphasized in his teaching that were not as

tightly connected to teaching students to read like historians.   The following passage

reveals both his conceptions of discipline specific reading approaches as well as his

instructional decisions related to these ideas:

> I think at least in terms of history, as far as I understand historical literacy
> practices, it's being able to take a text, determine whether or not it's a primary or
> secondary source, and also supporting the ideas of multiple perspectives and
> understanding that we as people in the 21st century and in the present essentially
> have the tendency to be very presentist – I'm pretty sure that's the word – where

we apply our own values and beliefs on and we use them to basically judge somebody in the past. . . . I personally try to build up a student's understanding of different sides. And sometimes my students will even say that I do that too much. For example, the World War II unit I tried to build it up so they understood what was going on not only in the German leadership but also in the German people. And we did that today with Japan. I try to give them a good gauge on multiple perspectives in the classroom so that when they engage something like that in a reading that they approach it and understand that they might disagree with this person but they have to take context into account. They have to take into account who's the author, things like that . . . You have to understand that different people, even at the same point and time, are going to have very different opinions depending on what the issue is. You have to understand why they have those opinions. And then I try to focus more on the person, the author's background, where they're coming from, and also their intended audience and things like that. I try and bring that out. I think we've done a good job starting off small and identifying primary, secondary, and building up to things like audience and multiple perspectives.

In this extended passage, John began by naming several "historical literacy practices:" identifying a text as primary or secondary; recognizing multiple perspectives; and, acknowledging our tendency to view the past through our present norms and values. Although these are all aspects of working with historical texts and are related to what historians might consider as they work with texts, they are not discrete steps for how to read texts in history.

John went on to provide an example of how he tried to build students' understanding of multiple perspectives related to WWII. In his discussion of this, he returned to some of the reading instructional approaches he described earlier, namely, considering the text's context, the author, and the audience. What is not clear is what he did instructionally to develop students' skills in considering these aspects of the text. He only stated, "I try and bring that out." Thus, although John clearly used some reading instructional approaches related to teaching students to read like historians, he still seemed to be working through how to apply his conceptions to concrete instructional

approaches. He seemed to have the instructional "what" but not fully the instructional "how."

Overall, we see a strong degree of alignment between John's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and the reading instructional approaches he used with his students. This was true of other PSTs with discipline specific conceptions, such as Jared and Christa (although this alignment lessened significantly for her near the end of her student teaching semester. See pp. 233 – 244 of this chapter for a discussion of her experiences). However, PSTs with more general, but developing, conceptions did not always have such a strong degree of alignment between their conceptions and reading instructional approaches. This is most apparent in the case of Rick.

Developing Conceptions and General Reading Instruction: Rick

Recall that Rick was the only political science major and Spanish minor in the cohort, and his disciplinary background seemed to have a clear influence on his conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts (see Chapter 4, pp. 177 – 178 for a discussion related to his disciplinary background).   He began the TE program with general conceptions and these became more discipline specific across his time in the TE program; this was true both for his understanding of disciplinary reading in history and in political science. [37]   However, the reading instructional approaches he used with students were quite general and focused on the students extracting information from the texts.

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[37] Recognizing that not all PSTs were history majors, we purposefully used language in the interview protocols to enable the PSTs to respond to the questions in ways relevant to their disciplinary backgrounds and teaching certification areas. For instance, instead of asking specifically about the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history, we asked them to discuss disciplinary reading in their discipline or content area. It was not always clear from Rick's commentary what discipline he was referencing, as he often used the more umbrella term of *social studies*. Thus, in the discussion that follows, I try to make explicit when he is referencing history, political science, or social studies.

With regards to his conceptions of texts, Rick mentioned a much narrower range than did John, focusing his comments on the textbook and primary sources writ large. In the first interview, Rick did not name any specific types of texts, instead using the term "text" throughout the interview. During the second interview he focused his discussion on primary sources, which he described as only beginning to learn about in college (in contrast to John and other PSTs with discipline specific conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts). Rick specifically named media articles, case studies, and interest group position statements, which are all more closely linked to civics instruction than to history. This makes sense considering Rick's disciplinary background and the American government courses he was observing and teaching.

However, when he discussed the *concept* of primary sources, he connected this more closely to history. For instance, he explained that ". . . primary sources are crucial for student understanding of history and without these it is impossible to formulate a balanced opinion of events that have occurred in history." Rick seemed to view primary sources as valuable for history instruction, though his comments here suggest that he might have given them too much weight, as it is not necessarily "*impossible* to formulate a balanced opinion" without them. Later in this same interview, Rick stated he was "big on primary sources," and provided a civics specific example of how he might use the section in the textbook on interest groups in conjunction with an interest group position statement.

Despite Rick's broadening perspective on the types of texts relevant for history and civics instruction, he stated forthrightly in the final interview that he relied on the civics textbook "80-90% of the time" in his own teaching because a lack of time hindered

his ability to incorporate other types of texts. He alluded to another factor in the following passage:

> I have used a couple of supplementary articles that I've found on the internet that would support some small sections in the book that I feel don't adequately explain the concept. And I'll just find something on the internet that's legitimate and reliable that I can print out and supplement the students with those articles as well. . . . My problem with giving those type of articles is it seems like I can't get the students to actually read them. So I don't know if I'm doing a bad job as far as cutting it down to where it doesn't look so overwhelming or making the note sheets specific enough. I'm not quite sure yet.

Rick explained that when he used texts other than the textbook, he struggled to get his students to engage with them. When asked if his students' literacy abilities were a factor, he noted that the vast majority of students were on or above grade level, and that they seemed resistant to, but capable of, reading any non-textbook sources.

In addition to Rick's struggles to get his students to engage with the texts, there were a few other factors that might have influenced his reliance on the textbook during student teaching. Foremost was his more limited understanding of the types of texts relevant for civics instruction. Rick noted that the *Content Area Methods* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses most often provided text examples from history, not civics. Furthermore, both Rick's own K-12 teachers and the CTs with whom he worked relied on the textbook. Although Rick's conceptions of texts were broadening throughout his time in the TE program, I hypothesize that he might not have had as much confidence in these ideas since they were so new to him, so once his students showed reluctance to engage with these different types of texts, he returned to what he knew – the textbook. I am sure he did experience time constraints, all of the PSTs did, but the evidence suggests that this was not the primary reason for his limited use of different types of texts.

In contrast to the lack of alignment between Rick's conceptions of texts and the

texts he used with his students, we see a greater degree of alignment between his conceptions of how to teach students to read like members of the discipline and the reading instructional approaches he used with his students. Both were general. For instance, when asked during the first interview to explain how he might teach students to read like members of his discipline, he explained:

> Teaching them the right questions to ask when reading a particular text. So again, strategies. And questioning the author. There's different strategies that they can employ to facilitate that learning.

Here Rick noted that asking questions of a text is important, but this is a general response and might be applicable to multiple disciplines and content areas. When asked to expand on his comments, he stated, "Questioning the author, note taking, concept mapping, stuff like that." Although these are literacy strategies that can be used in the history or civics classroom, they are not discrete approaches related to reading texts. His comments here stand in stark contrast to John's conceptions, where he discussed the historical method and the steps one might take in teaching students to read in ways reflective of this process.

This idea of questioning the author and the text was a dominant strand across Rick's interview responses. In the second interview, we see him expand on these ideas:

> One of them [instructional approaches] you can do is questioning the author. And that's more for secondary sources. Because if it's a primary source you can't really question too much. If anything evaluate it and analyze it. But for a secondary source you can question the author . . . the basic premise is while you're reading, you're questioning the points that he makes in order to evaluate that historical perspective. And that's a big thing in social studies is, again, when you're dealing with secondary sources which is the majority of resources in schools. Evaluate where it's coming from, who's saying it, and possible alternatives. And I think that's the biggest thing that you need to understand while you're reading a social studies piece. Aside from basic comprehension and understanding the material, you need to also evaluate while you're reading it. Exactly how I'd teach that, I couldn't tell you right now.

Clearly, Rick recognized the importance of asking questions of a text, such as who said it and "possible alternatives." He explained that this helps the reader "evaluate the historical perspective." Unfortunately, he did not provide much more detail here, so it is unclear what other types of questions he thought a reader might ask and how the answers to those questions might influence the reader's understanding of the text. Although he viewed questioning the text as a key practice in history, he stated forthrightly that he did not know how to teach students to do this. Furthermore, we see some misunderstandings in this passage. First, Rick claimed that questioning a text is only appropriate for secondary, not primary sources; however, historians consider the author's perspective, intended audience, and historical context for *all* texts that they read. Rick also stated that the "majority of resources in school" are secondary sources; although this might be true in many settings, it is an overstatement.

Rick also seemed to have some difficulty in thinking about how the way one approaches a text in history differs from political science. For example, at the end of the second semester in which he was taking the *History and Social Science Methods* course, Rick responded to a question about the differences between how historians and politicians read. After a long pause, Rick stated:

> I would say that it's pretty close. Historians evaluate public policy as well. I would say that it's more though – (pause) – political scientists – (pause) – I don't know. It's pretty close. I was going to say that they evaluate more for the future but no, historians do as well. So that's not valid. I'd say it's pretty close. I haven't really thought about it. Because generally anything we talk about in 432 [the methods course] has to do with history because the majority of students, I'd say probably all but one or two, are history majors. And anytime the professor speaks about any kind of evaluating evidence or stuff like that, any kind of activities we've done that, judging from a historical perspective it seemed pretty logical that this could have come from political science as well.

In this passage, we see Rick thinking through how the discipline influences the reading approaches one uses. Although Rick's background was in political science, he first referenced how historians, not political scientists read. He seemed to think that their reading practices are similar, but his hesitations and use of "I don't know" indicate that he was unsure.[38] Rick suggested that his difficulty in differentiating between the reading approaches of historians and political scientists was due in part to the methods' course focus on history (a point I discuss in more detail in Chapter 6). Nonetheless, it is clear that Rick's conceptions of how to approach texts in history – and in political science – were quite general.

These general conceptions seemed to influence what he did instructionally with his students. The majority of his commentary about instruction had to do with the before-during-after reading framework he had learned in the *Content Area Literacy* course. Whenever Rick was asked to discuss what he did instructionally, he referenced this framework and gave brief examples related to it. For instance, he described how he often used a KWL (Ogle, 1986) approach to elicit students' prior knowledge about a topic, to find out what they wanted to learn about it, and to summarize what they had learned at the end of the discussion or unit.[39] Although this is an appropriate reading activity to do with students, it is not discipline specific. Across the data sources, I was unable to find

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[38] This question was not asked of all PSTs, but was a follow up question that the interviewer asked to clarify Rick's earlier comments in this interview about teaching students to read like someone from his discipline. Thus, it is quite possible that other PSTs would struggle to explain how the reading process for historians and political scientists compare. However, since Rick is the only political science major in the cohort, one might expect that he – more so than his peers – would be able to describe how political scientists approach reading.

[39] KWL stands for Know, Want to Know, Learned. This instructional approach is often used prior to a unit of instruction to elicit what students already know about a topic and what they want to learn about it. At the conclusion of the unit, the class returns to the chart to indicate what they have learned.

examples of Rick using reading instructional approaches in discipline specific ways, and

he never clearly outlined the steps one might take to read like someone in his discipline.

When asked specifically to describe the discipline specific reading instructional

approaches he used with his students, Rick stated:

> Not a whole lot, to be honest. I've used a couple of strategies from the book we got from Maple's class [*Content Area Literacy*], like jigsawing in particular and using structured notes and questions that go with their reading in order to help them extract the right information from whatever it is they're reading. But specific to social studies, as far as analyzing primary sources and stuff like that, I haven't been able to do a whole lot of that. But any type of reading and writing that we do, I consider that critical to social studies. We do a lot of reading, definitely. But again I'd like to be doing more primary source and supplementary sources other than the civics textbook. But I just haven't been able to find the time to creatively mix and match that stuff and get all these resources. It's something I hope to do in the future. . . . I just haven't had the time to research and develop some sort of activities where it's just something other than based upon the course book or the curriculum. I'd like to design something that fully engages every student, is problem based, and ideally using backward design. In some cases just the time constraint has forced me into situations where I'm struggling to find ways or methods to actually uncover the material for the class. And I'd like to be more creative and do a number of different other strategies that the time just doesn't allow me to sit down and take two and three hours at a time and design mini-units and units within units. Stuff that will teach a greater sense of understanding with the content instead of this-is-what-your-book-says type approach.

Rick explained that he used several of the strategies he learned from his *Content Area*

Literacy course, such as jigsawing, structured notes, and question prompts to focus the

students' reading. Although these are all relevant approaches to use with texts in history

and the social sciences, they are general and could be used in other content areas, as well.

Rick went on to explain that these strategies helped students "extract the right

information" from the text. This conception of texts and of students' roles when

engaging with texts contrasts sharply with other PSTs, such as John, who had more

discipline specific conceptions. Given Rick's conceptions of texts, of reading

instructional approaches, and of the role of texts and students in the classroom, it is not surprising that he would use more general reading instructional approaches with his students. My observations of his teaching as well as the observation notes from his field instructor during the student teaching semester substantiate Rick's comments here.

However, Rick did acknowledge that he wanted to use other types of texts, such as primary sources, and other reading instructional approaches that "fully engage[s] every student" and "is problem based." This latter point is more discipline specific, but Rick did not expand on this idea or indicate what types of reading instructional approaches he might have used if he had had more time. His comments here suggest that Rick recognized that he was "supposed" to be using other types of reading instructional approaches but he seemed unclear of what these approaches might be.

We see further evidence of Rick's use of general reading instructional approaches in his response to how he modeled for students the reading approaches he would like them to use. Rick stated:

> Just the whole modeling the notes on the board and using the handouts that add the questions that if they answer then they would have extracted the information from the book. I'm not modeling any reading skills or anything during class because I don't think that would be beneficial to the majority of the students in there because they all seem to be higher achieving as far as that goes. So basically just note taking strategies. And then the handouts which help them focus their reading. So really basic, I guess.

Rick again noted that he used general or "basic" reading instructional approaches with his students, such as note taking strategies and focused reading questions. Moreover, he explained that he did not model "reading skills" for his students as they were "high achieving." This contrasts with what John did instructionally with a similar student population. Recall that John modeled for his students how to consider the author,

audience, and historical context (see p. 206 – 207 of this chapter). What seems to account in large part for Rick and John's differing instructional decisions is their varying conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts.

In sum, it should be evident from this discussion that John and Rick's conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts had a significant influence on what they did instructionally, although it was not necessarily a direct influence. This was evident in Rick's more discipline specific conception of text but his reliance on the general textbook. When he broadened his text selection, he claimed that his students were resistant, and he did not know how to respond. Without a discipline specific understanding of the role of texts and without role models who used a range of texts, Rick returned to the familiar – the textbook. What I have yet to explore here, and what seemed to also work against Rick, was that he had a singular orientation toward students.

Relationship between Orientation toward Students and Instructional Approaches

In addition to the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, their orientation toward students also seemed to influence the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. The PSTs' orientation toward students did not necessarily "trump" their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, but was an additional factor that at times hindered – or encouraged – PSTs' usage of discipline specific reading instructional approaches. For example, we might expect a PST with a discipline specific conception of disciplinary reading and texts to use discipline specific instructional approaches; however, this was not always the case. The opposite situation also held true in some instances – PSTs with general conceptions of disciplinary reading sometimes used more discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. The

factor that seems to have made the difference in both of these scenarios was the PSTs'
orientation toward students.

 With limited research on what aspects of PSTs' orientation toward students have
the most influence on their instruction, I turned to the data to determine what mattered
most for these PSTs. The following dimensions initially emerged as promising:

- the PSTs' perceptions of students' literacy and academic abilities;

- their sense of responsibility for students' overall growth and development;

- the level of importance they placed on knowing students as individuals;

- their ideas about engaging students; and,

- the types of connections PSTs' made between students' demographic
  backgrounds and their understanding of, and interest in, the content.

However, closer analysis of these dimensions made it apparent that what seemed to
matter most *with regards to instruction* was the PSTs' perceptions of their students'
literacy and academic abilities. For instance, PSTs who described what their students
could do, who gave plausible rationales for students' literacy challenges, and, who
viewed students and teachers as agentic in working on these challenges were more likely
to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches than their peers who viewed
students from a more deficit perspective. In addition, the PSTs' sense of responsibility
for students' overall development and the level of importance they placed on knowing
students as individuals seemed related to their perceptions of students' literacy abilities.

 Although almost all of the PSTs discussed in their first and second interviews
ways that they might engage students, few PSTs described what they actually did
instructionally to increase student engagement. Furthermore, although all the PSTs

acknowledged the importance of knowing the demographic and contextual factors related to their students and schools, few PSTs explained how this information might influence their instruction, and there was even less evidence that PSTs modified their instruction in light of this information.

Given these findings, I focused my subsequent analysis on the first three dimensions, which were most related to the reading instructional approaches the PSTs used with their students. To help us better understand the progression in the PSTs' orientation toward students – and ultimately how this influenced their instruction – I analyzed the degree to which their conceptions were *singular, developing,* or *comprehensive* (Table 11).

PSTs with *singular* orientations focused primarily on their responsibility for teaching the content of history, rarely discussing the importance of knowing their students as individuals or their students' literacy abilities. In addition, some PSTs with singular orientations used deficit language about their students' literacy abilities and discussed students as primarily responsible for working through their literacy challenges, leaving little room for teacher agency. In contrast, PSTs with *developing* orientations defined their responsibility with regards to students' general literacy abilities, and they saw both students and teachers as agentic in strengthening students' literacy skills. These PSTs also mentioned wanting to know their students as individuals, although they did not explain how knowing their students could inform their instructional decisions. Finally, PSTs at the *comprehensive* level of orientation took clear responsibility for students' overall growth and development, including responsibility for students' literacy challenges. In addition to providing plausible reasons for students' reading difficulties,

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Table 11: Progression in Preservice Teachers' Orientation toward Students.

Dimensions	Singular	Developing	Comprehensive
Responsibility for Students' Overall Growth & Development	Discusses their responsibility primarily with regards to content, though there may be some discussion of students' literacy skills. No to little mention of responsibility for struggling students. Uses hedging language or talks around the issue of responsibility. Does not use "I" statements and/or use the word "responsibility."	Discusses their responsibility primarily with regards to students' general literacy skills. Little to some mention of responsibility for struggling students. May also use some hedging language. May not always use "I" statements with regards to responsibility.	Discusses their responsibility primarily with regards to students' overall growth and development, including students' literacy skills. Clear commitment to struggling students. Limited to no use of hedging language. Uses "I" statements, such as "I take responsibility for …" Connections made to instruction.
Perception of Students' Literacy & Academic Abilities	No or limited discussion of students' literacy & academic abilities. Or, common use of deficit commentary, viewing students as primarily responsible for their literacy challenges. Leaves little room for student or teacher agency.	Some discussion of students' literacy & academic abilities. May discuss student challenges, but in a way that does not hold the student solely responsible (though may hold teachers responsible). Describes plausible reasons for students' literacy and academic challenges. Leaves some room for student agency.	Discussion focuses on what students can do, and this is apparent across the data sources. May discuss student challenges, but does so in a way that does not blame the student and teachers. Describes plausible reasons for students' literacy and academic challenges. Leaves room for student and teacher agency. Connections made to instruction.
Knowing Students as Individuals	No or limited discussion of knowing students as individuals. May discuss wanting to know about students' literacy and academic abilities, but no mention of other aspects of students' lives.	Some discussion of the importance of knowing students as individuals. Discussion may be limited and not apparent across data sources. No connections made to instruction.	Clear discussion and importance placed on knowing students as individuals. Connections made to instruction.

these PSTs explained how knowing their students as individuals enabled them to identify

what students could do and this in turn influenced the instructional approaches they used

with them.

Similar to the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, the PSTs'

orientation toward students varied within and across semesters, as well as by dimension

for some PSTs. Table 12 summarizes how many PSTs were at each orientation level at

the end of each semester in the TE program.

Table 12: Number of Preservice Teachers at Each Level of Orientation.

Orientation toward Students	End of 1st Semester in TE Program	End of 2nd Semester in TE Program	End of 3rd Semester in TE Program
Singular	46%	36%	43%
Developing	31%	45%	14%
Comprehensive	23%	18%	43%
N*	13	11	7

* Recall that the number of PSTs each semester fluctuated, as I included in my analysis each
semester only those PSTs for whom I had interview *and* assessment responses, as the assessment
responses alone did not provide enough information for me to be able to characterize their
orientations toward students. See pp. 113 – 114, 117.

Because the number of PSTs fluctuated each semester, making comparisons

across semesters based on these numbers alone is difficult. Furthermore, in contrast to

the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, some PSTs' orientations did not

change significantly, while some actually reversed over time. To better understand how

this happened and how these numbers relate to the substance of the PSTs' orientations

toward students, I first explore each dimension in more detail, providing examples from

PSTs exhibiting comprehensive and singular levels of orientation. I then illustrate the

relationship between the PSTs' orientations toward students and the reading instructional

approaches they used with their students by exploring three cases.

In terms of responsibility, I looked for what the PSTs foregrounded – whether it

was content, disciplinary literacy, or general literacy. PSTs, who aligned their

responsibilities more with disciplinary literacy, were more likely to have a strong

understanding of their students' literacy abilities and were more likely to use discipline

specific reading instructional approaches with their students. The following comments

by John are representative of those made by PSTs with a comprehensive level of

responsibility in this regard:

> I mean a 14 year old is a 14 year old, and just 'cause they can't read in ninth grade
> doesn't mean that they are doomed for the rest of their life. . . . It's your
> responsibility as an educator to help those students or at least find resources that
> can help them . . . Because every student has a story and you can't write them off
> because they don't do something that you think they should be able to do.

Clearly, John was thinking about more than teaching students the content of history; he

mentioned that it is part of a teacher's job to support students whatever their reading

skills might be. The reading instructional approaches he used with his students align well

with what he articulated as his responsibility. At the other end of the spectrum was

Christa, who began the TE program by demonstrating a singular responsibility for

students. This is apparent in her comments about how she might deal with students'

literacy needs: "…while it's important to address student needs, in terms of, you know,

what skills they need to acquire to be able to read in my content area, I think my job most

of all is to teach content." Unlike John, Christa aligned her responsibility more with

teaching content than with meetings students' overall academic needs, and this was apparent in her instruction, as well.

Across the interviews each semester, the PSTs often discussed what they believed were their students' literacy and academic abilities, and these perceptions seemed to influence what the PSTs did instructionally with their students. As one might expect from the focus of the interviews, the PSTs frequently described their students' struggles with reading and writing tasks in history. For this dimension of the PSTs' orientation towards students, I analyzed the tenor of the PSTs' comments about their students' abilities; the extent to which the PSTs provided plausible rationales for their students' academic challenges; and, the degree to which the PSTs made room for both student and teacher agency.

For example, Mark, a PST with a comprehensive understanding of students' abilities, explained a conceptual challenge students faced in his field classroom:

> A lot of the problem is just having the kids understand the history in general. Because they can't connect, because it's a world history [class]. And it kind of goes chronologically by events around the world. So they'll go from like maybe India to the Middle East to Russia back to India.

Mark went on to explain how hard it is for students to forge connections across time *and* space, and he made some suggestions as to what he might do to help students with this aspect of the class. Thus, although Mark was discussing some of his students' academic struggles, he named a prevalent challenge in world history and he did so in a way that acknowledged that the teacher can – and should – make instructional decisions to help students with this cognitive challenge.

Unlike Mark, PSTs with a singular perspective on students' abilities gave students and teachers little agency to strengthen students' skills. Myron made a representative

comment: ". . . some students don't enjoy thinking. They just want the answer and they want to move on." In the subsequent discussion, Myron did not offer any suggestions on how he might help a high school student engage more deeply with the text nor did he indicate that the student might change his attitude toward thinking if there were other instructional approaches and activities in place.

With regards to knowing students as individuals, I looked for data that demonstrated the level of significance the PSTs placed on knowing more than students' literacy and academic abilities, as PSTs who emphasized the importance of knowing their students as individuals were more likely to view their students – and themselves as teachers – as agentic in strengthening students' disciplinary reading abilities. Illustrating a comprehensive level in this regard is Alex, who consistently emphasized the importance of making connections with each student. He stated: "you really just have to really be concerned about each and every student . . . it's really about your interest in each and every student." Not only did Alex express his desire to know his students, but he also discussed how he would use an assignment at the beginning of the year that encouraged students to share with him their interests, even if they were beyond the school context. He then discussed how he could make explicit efforts to incorporate their interests in meaningful ways in the classroom. In contrast to Alex are Georgia and Myron, who rarely discussed individual students or what they might do to get to know their students on a personal level. Myron admitted that he needed to work on developing his "people skills because I think that's actually where I was lacking in some ways as a person that's academic."

With a greater understanding of these dimensions, I turn now to the two most

common scenarios which highlight the relationship between the PSTs' orientation toward students and the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. First, I show how PSTs with similar field contexts and similar conceptions of disciplinary reading – but contrasting orientations toward students – ended student teaching emphasizing different reading instructional approaches. Then, I explore how a PST with general to developing conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and a comprehensive orientation toward students utilized some discipline specific reading instructional approaches. In both of these scenarios, I note how the PSTs' orientations toward students changed over time, and I speculate on what might have influenced these changes.

Discipline Specific Conceptions but Different Orientations: Jared and Christa

All the PSTs worked with at least some students with literacy challenges, and a few PSTs were in classrooms where many students were behind grade level in reading and writing (i.e., Jared, Kathy, Mark, and Myron). Confronted with struggling students, some PSTs provided their students with significant scaffolding as they introduced *discipline specific* reading instructional approaches while other PSTs used more *general* reading instructional approaches. Beyond the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts, their orientation toward students seemed to play a role in the type of reading instructional approaches the PSTs used. To illustrate this, I explore the developments in Jared and Christa's orientations and how these changes seemed to influence the reading instructional approaches they used with their students.

Jared and Christa had several similarities – both were history majors and political science minors; both worked with underserved students during their second and third semesters in the TE program; both demonstrated discipline specific conceptions of

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reading and texts in history; and, both used some discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. However, by the end of student teaching, Christa abandoned discipline specific reading instructional approaches for more general ones. What seems to account for this difference given the commonalities in their disciplinary backgrounds, field experiences, and conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history?

Although my analysis revealed rather quickly that there were clear and striking differences in Jared and Christa's orientations toward students, I also pursued other possible factors that could account for how they responded so differently to their students' reading challenges. First, I considered their cooperating teachers. Although both PSTs were working with underserved students with a fair number of struggling readers, was there something substantively different about their CTs that might have encouraged Jared but discouraged Christa? Given the information both PSTs shared about their respective CTs and my observations and interactions with these teachers, it did not seem that the CTs had much influence on Jared and Christa's understandings of disciplinary reading in history or on the ways in which they responded instructionally to their students.

My personal interactions with these PSTs revealed another possible explanatory factor – their view of "socially just" education, which Moje (2007) described as education that provides "all students with equitable opportunities to engage currently valued forms of disciplinary knowledge" (p. 4). Unfortunately, I did not have other data to substantiate that Jared and Christa's differing perceptions of socially just education influenced the different reading instructional approaches they used with their students.

However, my data did reveal how the PSTs positioned students as knowledgeable and capable, which might be considered part of a social justice orientation toward students and teaching. Although Jared and Christa's positioning of students explains some of the variance in their instructional approaches, it does not seem to capture it all. Thus, I returned once again to the PSTs' overall orientation toward students to help explain how Jared and Christa made their instructional decisions. By comparing these PSTs' orientations toward students and the reading instructional approaches they used with their students, we will gain a better understanding of how their orientation toward students mattered. I begin with Jared.

In the first interview, Jared's commentary did not focus much on his orientation toward students. Of the three dimensions related to his understanding of students, Jared only specifically referenced his teaching responsibilities, which he aligned more with the content of history than with literacy. With regards to assisting struggling readers, he explained:

> The thing I worry about is, if I stop and do literacy lessons all the time, when do I have time to do content? And what I do about the kids who don't need that lesson? They already have that skill. Yeh, I can reinforce it, but I don't know if they need lesson after lesson of reinforcement. Because we're there to do other things, besides learn how to read. We're there *to* read, but not to learn how to read, you know.

In this passage it seems that Jared was viewing literacy instruction as separate from history instruction. Interestingly, his commentary throughout the rest of the interview suggests that he had discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts, as he noted the disciplinary role texts play in history, the types of texts needed, and history specific reading approaches. It seems that at this point in time Jared did not see it as his responsibility to help students with basic reading skills, which was a common sentiment

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among his peers during this first semester. Jared also seemed concerned about what to do with students who had stronger literacy skills and might not need a literacy-focused lesson. His comments here suggest that he did not have a clear commitment this semester to helping students with their reading challenges.

However, by the end of the second semester Jared's sense of responsibility began to change and he provided more detail about his students' literacy abilities. He explained how he noticed differences in the reading abilities of his students last semester, when he worked in a suburban middle school with predominantly middle class, white students, as compared to his students this semester, when he worked in an inner-city middle school with predominantly working-class, Latino students. He stated:

> Upper middle class, mostly white – literacy and language skills weren't a big problem [last semester]. But now being in an immigrant community, a lot of students have trouble comprehending the basic language. . . . Because so much of the curriculum is left up to the textbook, if you can't read then you can't get to the information. If you can't get to the information then you can't do the assignment. So yeah, it's definitely much more of a challenge here. And how do – I as one teacher certainly can't teach her all of English reading. But I certainly can help in that process.

Jared acknowledged that his current students had literacy challenges, primarily due to their status as English language learners (ELLs), but he did not criticize students for this and he left room for student and teacher agency. He explained that the problem for students was that the teacher was relying heavily on the textbook as her main mode of instruction. The limited support students received as they worked with the textbook led to numerous learning obstacles for his ELLs. Jared stated that he could not teach one of his ELL students everything she needed to know about English, but he acknowledged that he had a role to play in developing her literacy skills.

The following extended passage provides us with further insight into Jared's

perception of his students' literacy abilities and of his responsibility for them. He

explained:

> So at first you've got the basic comprehension, right? Do you understand the
> words on the page? Can you make sense of them? The next step then would be,
> can you go through and – yeah you know what the word means – but can you
> really pull out the meaning from the text? And I'd say the final step is: can you
> take that meaning and interpret it for your own? You know, what the author is
> saying, what do you think about it? Do you agree? Do you disagree? Why not?
> And those first two steps I think are easy or attainable for most students. That
> third step is a little more elusive. . . . The goal is certainly that third step, the
> analysis and criticism there. So I suppose my first priority would be to make sure
> that everybody makes those steps. You can't be literate [in reading] if you can't
> read. So that's pretty basic. If you can read you have to be able to understand
> what the author is saying. And I think most students can get there. The difficulty
> then is getting them to think about what the author is saying and take their own
> opinion. A lot of the trouble that I've come across is that a student will read an
> article. It's the first time they've come across this information. They're getting
> one author's perspective. So it's hard for them to come back and say, 'Well I
> disagree with him here because of blank.' Because they don't know what 'blank'
> is. So I suppose my ultimate goal there would be to help fill in that blank with
> them.

Jared first explained what he saw as the three stages in reading development, and he

stated that he thought the first two were "attainable for most students" with the final,

analytic step as the ultimate goal. Jared had high expectations for his students and

viewed it as his responsibility to support students in reaching the third reading stage. He

provided a plausible reason for why students might struggle to analyze texts and develop

their own opinions about them, and he again stated that part of his responsibility was

helping students fill in the "blank." Furthermore, his comments here and elsewhere in

this interview suggest that he viewed history and literacy not as separate goals, but as

tightly connected. This conception of his students' abilities and his role in supporting

them stands in contrast to his comments from last semester. What accounts for these

changes? Although he did not address this specifically in his interview, my informal

conversations with him and my observations of his teaching lead me to speculate that

some of the early successes Jared had this semester in using discipline specific reading instructional approaches with his students might in part account for his growing orientation toward students.

By the third semester, we see even greater changes in Jared's orientation. This is apparent in the ways in which he described his students' academic successes, his clear responsibility in supporting students' literacy development, and his commitment to knowing his students as individuals. First, in addition to providing reasonable explanations for his students' reading challenges, Jared also discussed what his students did well this semester. In describing a mini-unit he created about Thomas Jefferson, he explained that students':

> Application of the information was, for a lot of kids, spot on. . . . The complexity of the arguments they were making, analogies that they were drawing. I had one kid – I don't know if you were here for this or not [referring to me the interviewer and his field instructor that semester] – one kid made an analogy between slavery and smoking. He was trying to defend Thomas Jefferson. His basic point was that Thomas Jefferson was a slave addict. And it was like cigarettes. He knew it was wrong but he just couldn't quit. That's a pretty nuanced point for a 13 year old. So I was very happy with that.

In contrast to PSTs with singular and developing orientations toward students, Jared did not focus on what his students struggled to do but on what they did well. He saw his students as agentic and able to build reading and literacy skills over time with support.

Even more so than the previous semester, Jared acknowledged his own role in supporting students' literacy development, and this is evident in the following passage:

> As a social studies teacher I think that's my primary goal [literacy development], regardless of the content. Yes, my U.S. history students need to know U.S. history. They need to know what the Emancipation Proclamation was, what the Declaration of Independence did. But more important than that, they need to be able to take information and make an argument out of it and a logical argument at that. It can't just be because I said so. . . . The primary idea here is that it's literacy based. That's what we do. My duty isn't to history like it would be in college. My duty is to literacy. And history is my venue.

Compare Jared's comments here to those he made at the end of the first semester. Not only did Jared take clear responsibility for supporting his students' literacy development, he foregrounded this over teaching content. Furthermore, he referred to literacy not in generic, content-neutral ways, but he was discipline specific, noting the importance of developing his students' abilities to create logical arguments using evidence.

In taking responsibility for his students' disciplinary reading development, Jared found it important to get to know his students on a personal level. He explained,

> Relationship building is primary. You *gotta* have that or you will *not* get through the school year. . . . Personal relationship is huge. I need to know that kid's style. I need to know what I can realistically expect from that student. Like, what would be an improvement? Some of my kids just doing homework would be a huge improvement. And then some kids anything less than an 'A' is disappointing. So it very much depends on the student, and the personal relationship's the only way to tell.

Although it is unclear from his comments here why he thought he could "not get through the school year" without forming relationships with his students, he noted in other places in this interview how difficult the start of the semester was for him as he did not even know students' names well, let alone their personalities and academic abilities. As the semester progressed and he and his students began to know each other better, the classroom ran more smoothly. Moreover, Jared argued here that developing a personal relationship with his students enabled him to gain additional insights into their academic abilities and personalities, which he implied helped him to develop reasonable expectations for each student. His comments here suggest that he viewed the personal relationship as "the only way to tell" about his students' capabilities, but in fact, he did use other literacy assessment measures, such as a content reading inventory, to gain additional insights into his students' abilities. Overall, it is clear that by the end of

student teaching, Jared viewed knowing his students as individuals as an essential aspect of his work.

Jared applied his comprehensive orientation toward students, as well as his discipline specific conception of reading and texts, to the reading instructional approaches he used with his students. Unlike other PSTs who worked with struggling readers, Jared did not just focus on general literacy skills. Instead, he provided his students with support as he worked on strengthening their *disciplinary* reading skills. This is most evident in his mini-unit on Thomas Jefferson that I referenced earlier.

In the following extended passage, we see how Jared provided scaffolding and support for his students as they worked with multiple texts to create an argument about how we should view Jefferson's involvement with slavery:

> At the beginning of the week we established criteria as a group for what makes a person a hero or not a hero. And then the next day they came back in and I had a packet of different sources about Thomas Jefferson and three criteria for how we were going to judge whether he was a hero or not. They spent two days going through the packet, reading the sources and answering analysis questions written out. And then Thursday and Friday of that week we had a mock trial with a jury and I was the judge. We had two sides and students were able to choose which side they thought he was, was he a hero or not a hero. Kids were able to get into that because: a) they'd had appropriate time to prepare. In class time. Had I set that up as homework it would have flunked. Which I found out the next week when we did essays and that just flopped. And then the other reason it worked was because they could get in there and debate. And it wasn't just about using the evidence, it was also about making a good argument. And for the more verbal kids that was engaging.

Here Jared described how he purposefully scaffolded students' engagement with disciplinary texts, beginning with an intellectual problem that led to a class debate. He used numerous discipline specific reading instructional approaches. For example, he began by working with his students to establish criteria for how they would determine if Jefferson was a hero or not. In addition, I observed Jared model for the students how he

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wanted them to read the texts and he led a class discussion about the texts after students had had an opportunity to work independently and in pairs. He emphasized in this passage that he did not just want students to reference evidence from the texts but to use the evidence to craft a sound and "good argument." Although he did not mention it here, Jared provided students with examples of what it means to create a "good argument."

Jared's comments here suggest that he did not expect students to know how to engage with disciplinary texts or to be able to do this work independently, so he provided them with a range of support. For his students with the most limited English abilities, he worked with them in a small group setting. He explained that this unit was:

> Very text intensive, so lots of different kinds of texts, some of which were 200 years old. For some of my ELL students, I brought them down on my prep time and we went through three or four of the documents, word by word and translated together and discussed them so that they would be able to analyze it properly. So even though when we took those documents and used them in a classroom debate they weren't really able to throw themselves into it, they could still participate.

Jared recognized that the support he was providing students during whole group instruction would not be sufficient for some of his ELLs, so he worked with them outside of class time. Although these students might not be able to participate as actively in the class debate as their peers with more oral proficiency, Jared acknowledged that it was his responsibility to increase their disciplinary reading skills and their access to the content. PSTs with singular or developing orientations toward students did not engage in these types of reading instructional approaches.

Christa provides an interesting comparison to Jared, as she had discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts and initially used discipline specific reading instructional approaches like him, as well. However, by the end of student teaching, her singular orientation toward students seemed to lead her to desert these reading

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instructional approaches for more general ones. During all three interviews, particularly

the final one, Christa discussed her perceptions of her students' literacy abilities as well

as her teaching responsibilities, though she never mentioned the importance of knowing

her students as individuals across any of the data sources. To help contextualize

Christa's interview responses, it is important to note that she was the most outspoken

PST in the cohort, and she often viewed things in quite black and white terms. More so

than other PSTs, she entered the TE program with clear ideas about what she wanted to

do instructionally. Furthermore, she expressed a strong desire to work with advanced

high school students, which she did not have an opportunity to do in either of her field

placements. These factors are apparent across Christa's interview responses.

At the end of the first semester in the TE program, Christa, unlike the majority of

PSTs at this point in time, discussed her students' literacy abilities, and she focused on

their literacy challenges. For example, with regards to reading, she stated that if high

school students are not interested in reading, then perhaps, "it is just too late for them."

She later added that, "I can't see somebody reading at a fifth grade level, like trying to

take a course that I would expect to teach. I'll put it that way." A graduate of an elite

suburban high school, Christa had high, and perhaps overly optimistic, expectations for

what her students might enter her class being able to do, and she did not leave much room

for student agency.

However, Christa did see herself as agentic. This is apparent in her statement

about reading a document by Jane Addams about women's suffrage: "The only way I

will know if they [the students] have knowledge to bring to the piece is for me to teach it

to them." Her comments here suggest that Christa did not recognize that students have

background knowledge that she might be able to elicit to assist students in their comprehension of this piece. This is surprising considering that learning how to elicit students' prior knowledge was a key feature of her coursework this semester and even PSTs with more general conceptions of disciplinary reading mentioned that they could have a class discussion or do a KWL to elicit students' background knowledge prior to reading the Addams text. Another example of Christa positioning herself as knowledgeable is apparent in her response to a student's writing. She stated: "This student simply does not know how to write." Christa then coupled the tenor of this statement with a lengthy explanation of what she might do to support the student in developing his writing skills.

With regards to her teaching responsibilities, Christa was similar to Jared in that they both concluded their first semester in the TE program foregrounding the discipline over literacy. She began the first interview by stating that, "I had never expected it [literacy instruction] to be something that I would have to do *in* my *classroom.* I would have thought it was something I would do in a resource room. . . . I think my job most of all is to teach content." She later added that she agreed with her CT's position: "It's not her job to make sure that kids love reading. Or that they're especially good readers. It's her job to make sure that they understand how to read what they need to." This last statement suggests that Christa was still developing her conception of disciplinary literacy, as assisting students in reading and working with content area texts is a key component of disciplinary literacy. My observations in this classroom indicate that the CT *did* utilize some discipline specific reading instructional approaches, though the CT did not consider these "literacy" approaches. Furthermore, Christa's CT seemed to be

reinforcing her views about literacy instruction and her teaching responsibility.

By the end of the second semester in the TE program, we see a subtle shift in Christa's orientation toward students. She still did not position students as particularly agentic, but she did seem to acknowledge their academic potential. This is apparent in her explanation of how to teach students to read like historians:

> I think anybody can do it. It's just a matter of how you introduce it to them [students] and how you manage to structure it so that your students understand it. Because I mean, thinking about a source or a piece of writing like a historian is not an easy thing to do and I mean it's easier to grasp when you've been through a good school system and you get to a good college. But that doesn't mean that you can't grasp it if you're from not necessarily the best background for learning. It just depends on how you're gonna structure your teaching. . . . It's like anybody can do it and it's a matter of taking the time to plan effectively, taking your students into account, taking your means into account. And just really thinking about what you can do specifically for your students and really what is going to be effective for them.

Christa acknowledged here that "anybody" can learn to read like an historian if the teacher provides adequate instruction and considers what will be most effective for his or her students. She also noted that being from a "good" school system helps, but that all students can learn these skills if the teacher structures it effectively. Christa went on to explain how her TE courses had emphasized this idea, and her comments here, as well as my observations of her teaching, suggest that she was taking it up.

In addition to this change, Christa seemed to be looking for explanations as to why so many of her students were not doing well academically, and she focused her rationale on teachers. She explained:

> I think I've looked up and half of my students won't be going to college. That's just not how the school works, and it's disappointing. Because I wonder how many of them could be if they were taught better. . . . I've been able to see firsthand kind of the shortcomings of the students' teachers and of the students' practices. And I can see that there are certain things that need to be taught that aren't being taught because the teachers feel that they don't have time or they're

misguided in terms of what the district expects of them or something like that. I don't see why my teachers [those in her field placement] can't be devoting time to really teaching their students how to read sources properly.

Christa appeared to think that it might have been possible for more students to pursue a higher education and to "read sources properly" if they had been "taught better." Instead of viewing students as responsible, Christa seemed to put the responsibility for students' literacy challenges on teachers. This is also evident in her explanation as to why her students were not doing well in school: "They hate their courses. And they are not doing well because: a) they don't see the purpose in it, and, b) no one is teaching them how to really do it. They're just expected to know which is ridiculous." Taken together, Christa's comments suggest that she saw teachers as agentic, but "misguided" in how they worked on students' disciplinary reading skills.

This developing awareness of what her students might be able to do academically seems related to changes in Christa's sense of responsibility for her students' literacy development, as well. In contrast to last semester, she stated that she saw:

> Literacy as the end rather than the means. I really believe in that. Because I think my experiences here, as my own being an actual history major in LS&A [college of language, arts, and sciences]. I think that the goal of history is not to teach things that students don't need to know, and really at the end of the day don't matter. So for me, I feel like my role as a history teacher is really going to be getting students to be able to think critically about what they read. To read something in a way that's not just reading it top to bottom. And just pulling random things out of it. To really read it comprehensively.

Christa explained that she saw literacy as her main teaching goal as opposed to solely a means by which to learn about the content. She attributed her experiences in her disciplinary major coursework as leading her to focus on critical reading skills and teaching students to not focus on "random" facts but to comprehend a text's message. This stands in contrast to her comments last semester in which she aligned her teaching

responsibility more with content.

We can see Christa's growing orientation toward students, as well as her discipline specific conception of reading and texts, in some of the reading instructional approaches she used with her students this semester. In the following passage, she described in detail how she modified a text to use with her tenth graders:

> The text that I wanted to use was inappropriate for my students. They wouldn't have gotten through it in the whole day. And there was a lot of things that I didn't think that they would understand in it. So I mean, something that I have learned in my courses is to be able to take something and really pare it down. And so I've taken an entire two chapters out of a book and broken it down to six pages of what I want to get students or what I want students to get out of this reading. And really formatting it in a way that they can understand. So having the vocabulary definitions for different words right there in text and having things in the margins. And that way I mean I think it kills two birds with one stone. Because it's something that the whole class can do together. Regardless of their ability and at the same time the things that a struggling student might need are built right in to that text. So I have an introduction right there that did not come with the book that tells you who the author is, when this was written and things like that. That I can use to point out to students these are the things that I want you to look for. By the end of year I would hope that I wouldn't have to do this all the time for my students. Like I would hope to use this as a tool to teach them this is what you look for. By using that I can teach students of middling abilities and students of more ability at the same time.

Here Christa explained how she modified a text: shortened it, added in vocabulary definitions, and included an introduction with sourcing information. By making these changes, she felt that she had made the text accessible to students at various reading levels. She noted that she would lessen this type of scaffolding over time as her students' strengthened their disciplinary reading abilities. I observed her teach this lesson, and she used other discipline specific reading instructional approaches that day, in particular modeling for her students what it means to consider the text's context. Clearly, Christa was considering the content as well as her students in her planning and instruction.

However, the growth in Christa's orientation toward students was short-lived, as

by the end of student teaching her commentary focused solely on what her students struggled to do and she described her responsibility with regards to general literacy, not disciplinary literacy. The challenges she encountered in student teaching appeared to lead Christa to focus almost exclusively on students' struggles, supplanting the potential she saw last semester in her students. Although she referenced teachers at times, she emphasized students' poor academic skills throughout the final interview. This is quite apparent in the following passage:

> It's a different culture from what I'm used to. It's very blue collar. Most of the kids don't have very high aspirations, which is something I'm not used to. I'm used to working with high motivation, leadership oriented, that kind of stuff. That was my experience growing up, that was my experience teaching. . . . Kids are very used to being given a worksheet and a textbook and let go for the period and just, 'Okay, fill out your worksheet.' And that suffices, which I think is ridiculous and entirely pathetic. And the kids hate me for making them think at all. They actually laugh at me. And I tell them the purpose of this is for them to think. And they will flat out tell me to my face laughing, 'This is Brown [High School]. We don't think here. We don't do critical thinking.' And I believe it. And even in the twelfth grade the essays that they write are unbelievable. As practice for – God knows what 'cause half of them aren't going to college – there's an essay question on every test. And the essay responses I get from twelfth graders who are about to graduate you would think an eighth grader wrote them. It's pathetic. And try as I might to implement whatever cross curriculum and cross content area things that I try and do, it's just frustrating.

Christa seemed to attribute some of her students' literacy challenges to their socio-economic background and to the instructional approaches, namely worksheets and the textbook, which she believed their past teachers had used. It seems she viewed instruction as preparing students for their post-high school lives, and since "half of them aren't going to college," she wondered whether writing assignments were necessary for these students. According to her comments here and elsewhere in this interview, it seems Christa tried to use more discipline specific reading instructional approaches, but she felt that the students resisted her efforts.

Throughout this interview, Christa expanded on the above ideas. With regards to a unit she had taught in civics about liberal and conservative political positions, Christa explained that after two weeks of instruction:

> There were still some [students] that were like, 'Huh?' I had one of my kids – one of my focal students, who just drives me nuts – the day before the test, I'm walking around. I had been ignoring him all unit and then on the last day I figured out he doesn't know what this means. I worked with him extensively. He's one of my focal students. He's a real priority for me. And then the last day I'm walking around and he's like – this is the day that we were doing things about Social Security and I'd given them the liberal argument and the conservative one in terms of should we reform Social Security – and he goes, 'Wait. What is conservative?' And I'm just like, 'Anthony, I'm going to kill you. We've talked about this every day for two weeks. I've given quizzes. We've done assignments. I've been along with you every step of the way.' It totally blew my mind, and it just made me so frustrated because it's like, this is something we've gone over for two weeks. *Two weeks*, every day. I've done everything under the sun that I can think of to do to try and get you to understand this. And on the last day you ask me what it is. I was lost. I'm still lost, actually.

Clearly, Christa was frustrated by the difficulties some of her students, particularly her focal student Anthony, had in differentiating between liberal and conservative positions. Her use of the following phrases makes her frustrations quite clear: "blew my mind;" "made me so frustrated;" "I'm still lost." No other PSTs, including those working with students with more pervasive literacy challenges, used such strong language or expressed such disappointment with their students. Christa seemed to think she had tried all that she could and that the students were at fault for not understanding the concepts; however, she made some contradictory statements here that suggest that perhaps she could have done more, particularly to assist Anthony. Specifically, she stated at first that she had "ignored" Anthony all unit, but then stated that she had worked with him "extensively." Although it is unclear from the data sources the extent to which she actually worked with him on these concepts, it is clear that she was frustrated and perhaps overwhelmed by her

students' responses to her instruction.

Her teaching frustrations seemed to influence her sense of responsibility, which she now aligned more closely with general literacy than with disciplinary literacy or content. Although she primarily discussed writing in the following passage, it clearly illustrates how her sense of responsibility has changed:

> I'm not as ambitious as I once was for these students in terms of getting them to write things like five paragraph essays that have a coherent thesis and use evidence. Because it's a skill they're not going to need, most of them. If they go to college they can learn it there. I learned it here. They'll be fine. My goal would be to get them, and this is something that I don't think I'm going to have time to do, but in the future if I taught at a district like this from day one it would be to integrate more of proper grammar and proper structure and even writing in complete sentences or words. That would be something that I would go for. Because that is something that everyone should know how to do. Even if they can't speak it, everyone should be able to write in a complete sentence and to at least not sound like a complete fool when they're writing something down. So that would be a goal that I would work into. . . . And I would really, for these kids, I'd probably take it upon myself to knock about half the content out the window and just focus on skills. Just really pick one or two things per unit. And when I say one or two things I really mean like not even concepts. Maybe one concept and then just a couple of little things. And then just the rest of it I'd be like, 'Okay, let's write a paper about this' and write the paper. Because as much as I consider it my civic duty to train good citizens, these kids aren't going to vote, and they're not going to know what the hell to do and I'm at a loss. This is why I shouldn't be allowed to teach kids like this.

Christa's frustrations are apparent in this passage, as well, as she admitted that she had lowered her expectations for her students. With regards to writing instruction, she explained that she would focus on "proper grammar and proper structure" so that her students did not "sound like a complete fool." The tenor of her comments here continued as she described how she would limit the curriculum content to focus more on skills. Christa did not seem to recognize – as Jared did – that there are ways to work with the curriculum to develop students' literacy skills. Her concluding comments are perhaps the most troubling, as she seemed to more fully dismiss her students' potential, stating that

they "aren't going to vote" and that they won't know "what the hell to do."

By the end of the interview, Christa began to reflect on how she had some responsibility for what had transpired during the student teaching semester. She explained:

> I need to be back with my people. I feel like I'm really not effective in the kind of placement that I have now. I just – not that my personal skills are being wasted because that's so elitist, I would just kill myself. But I just feel like I don't understand the needs of the kids and really where they're coming from as much as I think that you need to when you're teaching them. I just come from a totally different background. And I get the needs of the kids that – I mean, I completely understand the kid that needs to get called out of his classes to study for his AP test. That's what I understand.

Christa's comments here suggest that she recognized that she did not understand her students' cultural backgrounds and that she was unable, did not know how, and/or perhaps was unwilling to bridge the cultural divide that she believed separated them. She suggested that perhaps she would be more effective in a context where she was teaching students of a similar background to her. What Christa did not acknowledge here is that there are always differences, even if just generational differences, between students and teachers that will influence the classroom dynamics and require her as a teacher to make efforts to know her students if she wants to be an effective teacher. She did not seem to recognize that she had the power and the responsibility to make efforts to understand her students' backgrounds and experiences.

Many of the reading instructional approaches Christa discussed using this semester were discipline specific, but because her students did not seem to be as successful as she wanted, she discussed how she would use more general reading instructional approaches moving forward. For instance, Christa discussed a lesson she did about migrant farmers during the Great Depression.

So there was a section in the textbook that I had them read in class and then the whole point of the project was I gave them a set of dockets. These were photographs, these were writings, excerpts from FDR's *Fireside Chats*, excerpts from *Grapes of Wrath*. And they were supposed to be a journalist from the *New York Times* in 1936 assigned to follow an Okie family from Oklahoma to the journey to California, to California. And then comment, just basically make up a story that whole from beginning to end to California and then comment as a contemporary journalist would, 'Here's what FDR is doing. This might help. This might not be going far enough.' And aside from the fact that I'm a first time teacher and there are always going to be kinks to work out, they didn't know what I meant when I said 'journalist.' And half the kids that I talked to really had never watched the news, never picked up a newspaper, never picked up a magazine. And I'm like, 'Can your parents help you?' 'No.' I'm trying to explain to them what the format is when you watch the news. I told them just go home and turn on the news for one night. Just watch it. . . . It was just lost to them. Totally had no idea. And these are 16 year olds and some seniors.

For this lesson, Christa used a range of disciplinary texts and provided students with a discipline specific focus for their engagement with these texts. What seemed to puzzle her was that her students did not seem to have a clear conception of what it meant to be a journalist. From her description here, it does not appear that she provided students with examples of journalistic writing; instead, she asked them to go home and watch the news. Thus, although Christa did use some discipline specific reading instructional approaches, she did not anticipate students' challenges with these tasks nor did she modify her instruction once she recognized their struggles.

Moving forward, Christa described that she would limit her use of these types of reading instructional approaches in favor of more general approaches:

I would say that it's not even so much about the content as much as it is just getting them to read at all, which is disappointing. I would have liked to teach them more sophisticated literacy practices as they pertain to history. However, kind of a way that my student teaching has shaped my understanding of history in high school or in middle school, it's more about teaching them how to think than it is about history. It's more for me about using the content as a method for teaching basic skills.

Christa stated that she would have liked to teach her students disciplinary reading skills specific to history, but that her field experiences had led her to consider middle and high school teaching as more focused on thinking skills, basic skills, than on the content. Christa did not seem to recognize that she *did* use some discipline specific reading instructional approaches and that there might have been ways to modify what she did instructionally to help her students meet with more success.

Overall, Christa's commentary during this third interview indicates that she now had a singular orientation toward students. This is apparent in her focus on students' literacy challenges; her more limited sense of responsibility for her students' overall growth and development; and her lack of acknowledgement of the importance of knowing her students as individuals. These perspectives seemed to influence her ideas about the type of reading instructional approaches she might use with her students in the future.

Although Christa's orientation toward students seemed to lead her away from using discipline specific reading instructional approaches, for other PSTs their orientation toward students seemed to encourage them to use such approaches even when they had less discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts. We see this most clearly in the case of Kathy.

Developing Conceptions of Reading but Strong Orientation: Kathy

A social studies major with a double minor in psychology and political science, Kathy began the TE program with general conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts that grew more discipline specific across her time in the TE program (see Chapter 4, pp. 153 – 161). Unlike Rick and Myron, the other PSTs whose conceptions grew in similar

ways, Kathy did not rely solely on general reading instructional approaches in her teaching (see Table 9, p. 196). In fact, she used some reading instructional approaches that bordered on being discipline specific. What was it that led Kathy in this direction, but not Rick and Myron?

I began by considering their field contexts; however, this did not seem to explain the difference. For example, Kathy and Myron both taught U.S. history in the same school with students of similar demographic backgrounds and literacy abilities; given that both of these PSTs had comparable conceptions of disciplinary reading, we might expect them to use similar reading instructional approaches. But they did not. Furthermore, Rick's students had overall stronger literacy skills than Kathy and Myron's did; this fact alone seemed to lessen many PSTs' anxieties about using disciplinary reading instructional approaches that might be "beyond" the students. Yet, Rick did not seem to take his students' literacy abilities into account, relying primarily on general reading instructional approaches.

If the field context was not a main factor, what about the reading instructional approaches that the PSTs' cooperating teachers used? Rick and Myron's CTs used the textbook as the main text in their courses, and Kathy's CT rarely used texts, instead relying heavily on role playing and simulations. She explained the influence of her CT's reading instructional approaches in the following passage:

> Actually we don't do a lot of reading in general. . . . And this is partially because of my CT's views but it's almost like they struggle with reading so we give them other things to do instead. Instead of trying to help them with it. And that's not necessarily my philosophy but that's what they're used to in the classroom. So that's why we don't use the textbook. I would probably use the textbook every once in a while. Not very often, but every once in a while. Or, I'd probably give them more reading than what they have. But it's like, when you walk into

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someone's classroom in the middle of the year you can't – I don't know. I kind of do what my CT does. . . . And I guess I would say it is my field experience that has contributed to this sense of me only looking at reading like text in general and not taking it to the next step.

From Kathy's comments here and my observations in this classroom, it does *not* appear that Kathy's field context encouraged her to use more discipline specific reading instructional approaches. If anything, her final comments here suggest that they might have led her to focus on more general reading instructional approaches.

What does seem to differentiate Kathy from Rick and Myron – just as it differentiated Jared and Christa – is the strong orientation toward students that she developed over time, whereas, both Rick and Myron retained singular orientations across their time in the TE program. In the remainder of this section, I describe how Kathy's orientation toward students developed, and I explore how her orientation – coupled with her developing understanding of disciplinary reading and texts in history – seemed to influence her instruction with regards to reading in history.

Similar to the changes in Kathy's conceptions of disciplinary reading (see Chapter 4, pp. 153 – 161), we also see an interesting pattern of growth in her orientation toward students. Kathy began the program with a developing orientation, moving to a more singular perspective during the second semester, and eventually developing a comprehension orientation by the end of student teaching. As Kathy began to focus on her students' academic potential, instead of their shortcomings, she seemed to become more willing to use more discipline specific reading instructional approaches with them. This is significant, as it suggests that teacher educators might work to develop PSTs' orientations toward students as an additional avenue to encouraging them to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students.

In addition, recall that Kathy asked to work – and did work – with underserved students across her time in the TE program, and she participated in an additional TE program that provided extra support for PSTs working in such settings. Perhaps in part because of this aspect of her orientation and the additional support she received, Kathy seemed more attentive than the majority of her peers to struggling readers and her responsibility for them. This held true across her time in the TE program.

Despite taking responsibility for struggling readers, Kathy did not acknowledge her students' academic strengths or see them as particularly agentic until the end of the TE program. This is apparent in Kathy's comments at the end of her first semester:

> Challenging them [her students], I think. Challenging them and encouraging them at the same time. And being able to adapt to the different students' literacy levels. Because I'm planning to teach in an urban, underdeveloped school, at least for my, for couple of years. So as I see now, I'm going to be faced with a wide range of skills. So knowing which students are reading at a twelfth grade level and which students are reading at a third grade level and helping them adapt. Like, maybe being harder on the students who are better at reading, in a way. Like, challenging them. And then being there for the ones who are struggling. And being there after school and letting them know that I'm there to help them. And just really encouraging them and making sure that I'm giving them things that they can handle that aren't just going to totally discourage them.

Kathy seemed to have some assumptions about what it meant to work in "urban" schools, describing them as "underdeveloped" and her students' literacy levels as ranging from the third to the twelfth grade level. Although this range might be exaggerated, my knowledge and observations of these students and the school suggest that her students really did have a broad range of literacy levels.

Although Kathy's comments here did not carry the same degree of negativity as Christa's did, it is clear that Kathy was positioning herself, not her students, as agentic. She focused on what *she* could do to assist students, particularly those with reading

difficulties. She did not use direct language, as in "I take responsibility for…," but her comments do suggest that she considered it part of her responsibility to help struggling readers. This is significant, as many of her cohort peers, particularly at this point in their TE program, explicitly stated that it was *not* their responsibility to assist students so far behind in reading; resource teachers or aides assist those students. Similar to the other members of this cohort, Kathy's ideas on how to support students were general – "challenging them," "encouraging them," and "being there for them." However, she seemed to recognize that students' emotional responses to school tasks are necessary to consider when planning instruction; other PSTs did not yet take into account this aspect of teaching.

The following passage further highlights Kathy's perception of her students and of her responsibility for their literacy development. She commented on her students' attitudes toward literacy tasks and what this meant for her as a teacher:

> I think that they [the students] really need to do more literacy related things, because they don't really like reading. They hate writing, they don't write complete sentences. They hate answering test questions that aren't multiple choice because they actually have to write something themselves. So it's just like, doing things to help them realize that that's important. And to somehow get them to *like* doing it if that's possible [her emphasis].

In this passage, Kathy referred to her students as a more homogenous group than she had done previously, using strong language: "they hate writing, they don't write complete sentences." Kathy, similar to other PSTs as this point in their development, used broad generalizations like this, perhaps because of her students' often vocal statements about disliking reading and writing (I heard these comments on several occasions when I observed, as well). However, what Kathy did, that few other PSTs at this point in time did, was seek an explanation for their dislike of literacy tasks. She hypothesized that,

because there were not many literacy related activities or assignments in her classroom, this reinforced students' negative attitudes toward reading and writing. She suggested that including more literacy-related tasks might encourage students to see strengthening their literacy skills as important and might help students to "like" doing such activities. Again, Kathy's comments here do not reveal that she saw students as particularly agentic in developing their literacy abilities but she did seem to view the teacher as having some influence over students' attitudes toward reading and writing in history. Taken together, Kathy's commentary across the data sources from semester one suggest that her orientation toward students was at a developing level.

However, as Kathy spent more time in the field, her students' literacy challenges became the focus of her discussion, and her commentary reflected a more singular orientation toward students. For instance, in describing her students' reading abilities at the end of the second semester she stated, "My main goal right now is the reading . . . 'cause they can't, they, they don't even get through actually reading the text let alone interpreting it and analyzing it and stuff." In seeking an explanation for her students' literacy challenges, Kathy explained:

> I think it's [supporting struggling readers] a really difficult process, especially when I'm getting students in high school. Because I really think that learning those skills starts early, it needs to start in elementary school, and really like, they should really, really work on those skills in middle school. They should come to high school and just, we should be polishing those skills, rather than teaching them from scratch. I think [pause] that [pause]. I don't know. I don't know.

Kathy seemed to recognize that literacy skills develop over time and ideally students would have a strong reading foundation when they enter high school. But that was not her students' reality. Kathy did not blame the students for their skill levels nor did she directly name teachers as responsible, as Christa did. Instead, Kathy referred to a

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broader, less tangible entity – the educational experiences students had had prior to high school. Kathy's final comments in this passage suggest that she was unclear of how to support students moving forward.

Although Kathy viewed her students from a more deficit perspective this semester, she continued to take responsibility for their literacy development, albeit with tentative language. She explained:

> I think it is my responsibility to [pause] just help students pick up wherever they left off, you know, wherever, however, whatever spot they're at when they come to me. To help them and guide them and, I want my students to leave my classroom having learned [pause] at *least* one new, like, method, or one, one new skill, in terms of literacy. I mean I want them to leave learning more than that but, in terms of literacy. Like, if I were talking about my ninth and tenth graders right now, I think that it's my responsibility to [pause] just teach them the skills that they don't know, and you just have to start at the bottom. And you have to work your way up, and like my, my, some of my students can't even read a whole, a paragraph. So [pause]. And writing too, I think, including writing in everyday practice. Like, I want to teach, I want my, I think it's also a responsibility to try to show your students in some way that reading and writing isn't an awful thing. Try to make them enjoy it and see it differently. I don't know how to do that but I think that.

Kathy acknowledged that she was willing to work with students at whatever level they might be, although her commentary here suggests that she had a more homogenous view of her students' literacy abilities than she did previously. In contrast to last semester, she did not discuss "challenging" her students but starting "at the bottom and working your way up." Kathy went so far as to say that some of her students "can't even read a whole" paragraph. Although this is likely an overstatement, it is clear that Kathy viewed her students as struggling readers. In addition, she again referenced students' attitudes toward reading and the importance of teaching students to view reading in a more positive light – though she still seemed unsure of how to change students' attitudes in this regard.

By the end of student teaching, Kathy's orientation toward students shifted

dramatically from singular to comprehensive. In contrast to previous semesters, Kathy

now discussed knowing her students as individuals, describing her students as capable

and "smart," comments that only PSTs with comprehensive orientations toward students

made. Her views on her students are quite evident in the following passage:

> I love the students. They're so interesting and I feel like I've developed a lot of really good relationships with my students. They're just so much fun. I get frustrated when they don't turn in their homework and when they're talking and stuff. But it's never at them, it's just at the situation. I don't know. I just love being there [at the school]. . . . They [the students] like school more than, I think, people think that they do. You'll hear some teachers say things about them like having bad attitudes or not wanting to be there or whatever. But when we start talking about things that are really interesting to them, they're firing questions out. And you know, they actually want to know about it. They're smart. They're smarter than people give them credit for, too.

Kathy was the only PST to describe her students, and in particular her relationship with

students, in such a positive light. She noted here that other teachers commented on

students having "bad attitudes," but Kathy explained that once you engage them, the

students demonstrated that they were smart, interested, and capable.

The data suggests that her personal relationships with students coupled with

having more experience in the classroom helped Kathy to view her students' potential

differently. In the final interview, she focused her discussion on why some of her

students struggled and provided examples of students being successful. Kathy noted that

there were several factors affecting her students' performance in the classroom,

including:

> Confidence. And a lack of interest for some. A lack of motivation for a lot. I know that's not directly affecting their ability, but it's affecting their performance. And then definitely, learning disabilities. I have at least three special ed kids in both of my classes. I think there's five in second hour. And then there's just some students who have just been pushed – a *lot* of students – have just kind of

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been pushed through and you know that they haven't learned what they need to learn [her emphasis].

In contrast to attributing her students' struggles only to their past educational experiences, Kathy now stated that there were numerable factors, ranging from confidence to motivation to learning disabilities. Moreover, she differentiated between students' literacy abilities and their actual academic performance, explaining that the two are not necessarily related. Only PSTs with comprehensive orientations toward students made this distinction.

In addition to providing several plausible explanations for the variance in students' literacy abilities and classroom performance, Kathy also discussed what her students did well. This is apparent in the following passage:

> When I ask them [the students] to read with the articles like that and to mark key ideas and key points, and then I look at the things that they highlight, most of them do a really good job of that. . . . They're really good at interpreting things. I'll show them video clips. They can watch that and soak the meaning out of it in a second. They're really good at that. And like with the pictures that we did in the Vietnam thing, they did an awesome job of that. They're just not exposed to a whole lot, like to reading lengthy things or to writing lengthy things. So those skills are lower. And I think they're probably more scared of that. They can watch a movie and they're like, 'Oh.' But they don't want to read five paragraphs.

Here Kathy noted that her students were successful in highlighting main ideas in a text and in interpreting visual mediums, such as video clips and photographs. She also provided another reasonable explanation for why some of her students' reading skills were lower – they have had less exposure to reading and writing, which probably made students "more scared of that."

Given Kathy's positive comments about her students and their reading abilities, we might expect her to take clear, and perhaps even enthusiastic, responsibility for her students' literacy development. However, when asked to describe her sense of

responsibility, Kathy's immediate response was to discuss the challenges she faced in supporting students' writing development in her U.S. history class. She replied:

> That's really hard. That's really, really hard. Because, like their five paragraph essays that they wrote on Vietnam. Some of them misinterpreted some of the information, which I want to make sure that they know that stuff isn't – I could have taken those essays and that could have been a semester long project, fixing their essays. So I feel like it is my responsibility to help them with their writing skills, but I don't know where to draw the line. I don't know how much time to spend helping them with writing. I would see my job when I start next year is to help scaffold them into writing if I were in the same classroom that I am right now. Teach them how to write an essay but work on it throughout the year. Work their way up to it. The reason I'm talking about writing so much is because that's one of the things that they struggle with the most. And concepts that I teach, make sure that they know how to spell the concepts even. Like making a poster of important key words and stuff in the room so that when they're writing all these concepts they spell them correctly 'cause they're new, and they need to learn how to spell them. I don't know.

Kathy began by discussing her students' writing challenges, stating that they could have worked all semester "fixing" them. This comment stands in contrast to those she made earlier in this interview where she emphasized what her students *could* do with regards to reading. The focus on students' writing struggles, as opposed to what they did well, is similar to her initial response to her students' reading challenges. Because this was the first major writing assignment in her class, Kathy seemed somewhat surprised – and her comments here suggest that she might also have been overwhelmed – by her students' writing struggles. It seems she was also pondering through a significant teaching dilemma: what is the role of content area teachers in supporting students' writing?

However, unlike her initial response to her students' reading challenges, Kathy now seemed to have some instructional ideas about how to proceed. She discussed writing as a skill she would scaffold and develop across the academic year. She also mentioned a more concrete approach – providing visual aids in the room to assist students with spelling. In response to a follow up question the interviewer asked about her

comments here, Kathy also stated that she would begin the year by focusing on one aspect of writing and "make sure that they [the students] know how to do that before we move on to the next thing." Although Kathy's comments here focus on writing – "because that's one of the things they struggle with the most" – we can infer from her overall commentary that she took responsibility for students' literacy development, and she viewed her students and herself as agentic.

What is perhaps most striking about Kathy's commentary at the end of student teaching is how quickly she seemed to move from characterizing her students en masse as struggling readers to viewing them as readers with strengths and strategies. Although Kathy did not directly state what caused this "epiphany" for her, it seems likely that more time working with disciplinary texts with her students enabled her to more clearly see their strengths and to better understand why some of them struggled. She also seemed to develop more confidence in her own ability to positively influence students' reading potential. Given the growth in Kathy's orientation toward her students' reading abilities, we might expect to see over time a similar degree of development in her orientation toward her students' writing abilities (although I do not have data to confirm this).

While we might find it encouraging in its own right that Kathy's orientation toward students became more positive and strong by the end of student teaching, what is most relevant to this study is *how her orientation influenced her instruction*. Across the data sources, Kathy seemed to be more aware and attentive toward her students and their literacy abilities than were other PSTs, and this seems to have been a factor that encouraged her to try using more discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

For instance, Kathy described how her students were quite reluctant to even read

texts in the beginning of the semester as they were rarely asked to read more than a paragraph. Recognizing this, she began to slowly focus her reading instruction and ask more of students as they worked with disciplinary texts. In the following passage from her final interview, Kathy described how she supported her students' usage of texts:

> That is the struggle that I am dealing with right now. And what I've learned to do – and this is definitely developed over time – the first couple of times I gave them texts we just read it and then I would try to have a discussion. But now I'll give them a text and I'll say, 'You need to find at least 10 facts in this text.' Or, I'll give them something to focus on. I'll say, 'Find at least five things in this text that relate to the concept of Communism.' Or, 'Find three questions that you have about this text and mark them.'. . . So that helps. Because some students can just read it and take from it what they need to. But by having them focus on certain things, or mark certain things, that helps with the students who struggle more. It really helps a lot. It's crazy.

Although the reading approaches Kathy described here – identifying facts and concepts and writing questions – are more general than discipline specific, she clearly had her students' attitudes and abilities in mind as she incorporated these instructional approaches. She went on to explain how focusing her students' reading led to more substantive discussions about the texts.

This success – coupled with Kathy's developing awareness of what her students could do with texts and her growing understanding of disciplinary reading in history – seemed to encourage her to incorporate more discipline specific reading instructional approaches. During student teaching, I observed Kathy teach several lessons focused on disciplinary texts, and she discussed three mini-units in more depth during her final interview. As the semester progressed, we see how Kathy used reading instructional approaches that were increasingly more discipline specific.

First, I described in the previous chapter how she created a "Vietnam museum" within the classroom, having students engage with multiple forms of texts – from

photographs to statistical charts to textbook passages to newspaper articles – that depicted a range of information and perspectives about the Vietnam War. Furthermore, she had students respond to several open-ended questions related to these texts. These reading instructional approaches stand in contrast to the general ones Myron, the other PST working in the same school and teaching the same content, used in his unit on the Vietnam War. However, Kathy did not use an intellectual problem in the way that Jared and others with discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts did. In fact, she stated that this lesson was mainly to provide students with facts about the war: "Because I was trying to teach them all these facts about the war, but I didn't want to just stand in front of the classroom and deliver them to them." Thus, Kathy seemed to be appropriating some of the surface level features of more discipline specific reading instructional approaches without perhaps fully understanding their conceptual basis.

This level of appropriation is apparent in another mini-unit she created about the case of *Roe v. Wade*, though her reflection on it suggests that she was beginning to think in more discipline specific ways about reading. Kathy once again provided students with a range of texts, including ones which took clear pro- and anti- abortion positions. She asked students to take a position based on the readings and to prepare questions to ask of the other side. The students then debated the case in class. These are more discipline specific reading instructional approaches; however, she considered this one of her least successful units as students seemed more interested in debating than in developing their knowledge of the case and using evidence to support their positions. She explained:

> I don't think they learned a whole lot. It was great 'cause it gave them an opportunity to express their opinion, and they were all into it and stuff. But historically I don't think they really learned. Well, they didn't know what Roe v. Wade was before that. Most of them didn't. So they learned that abortion used to

be illegal and they learned that a lot of people used to kill their babies in other ways and die from it and that it was unsafe. That's about it, though.

Given her students' response to this unit, Kathy acknowledged that there were steps she could have taken to increase her students' engagement with the texts:

> So what I'd do differently is I would have given them more background knowledge about the actual case and what actually happened and more background knowledge about the kinds of things that women in the movement had to do to get to that point. Like get it to court and things like that because that's more of what I wanted them to take from it. And then I wouldn't have let them choose their side. I would have just assigned them sides and even if they don't feel that way, you have to argue that side today. I think that's good for them to do. And to get them prepared I just said, 'Write down three burning questions you have for the other side,' or something like that. Or three arguments or something like that. But I would have had more focused questions somehow to try to keep them on track.

Kathy named several changes she would make: providing students with more background knowledge; assigning students to a position; and creating more focused questions. Unlike her earlier unit on the Vietnam War, where she noted few modifications she would make, we see here that Kathy was identifying relevant instructional approaches she could take to increase her students' engagement with texts and ultimately their disciplinary understandings.

Finally, near the end of the student teaching semester, Kathy designed a mini-unit about Kennedy's assassination. This event lends itself to an historical inquiry approach, and Kathy seized upon this opportunity in ways that Myron, who was teaching the same unit in the same school, did not. She had students first consider in writing who they thought might be behind the JFK assassination. She then guided students through a range of texts, including video clips and audio recordings, representing various perspectives. Based on this evidence, she asked students to return to their original written response and

revise it based on the textual evidence they had considered in the unit. In contrast to Kathy's previous mini-units, she began here with an intellectual problem that focused the students' engagement with the texts, and she provided students with a note taking sheet to organize the information they gathered from each of these sources.

In sum, it should be apparent from these three examples that the reading instructional approaches that Kathy used became more discipline specific over time. Because her conceptions of reading and texts also became more discipline specific across time, we might prematurely conclude that this was the sole influence on her instructional approaches, and not look elsewhere for an explanation. However, as I noted earlier, Rick and Myron, the other PSTs whose conceptions developed in similar ways to Kathy, primarily used *general* reading instructional approaches. This suggests that there must be an additional factor that encouraged Kathy, but not Rick and Myron. This seemed to be the comprehensive orientation toward students that she developed over time. During her student teaching semester, Kathy described her students in overall positive ways and she recognized their agency, and her own, in supporting their literacy development in history. As the reading instructional approaches she used met with more success, Kathy seemed willing to try more discipline specific approaches.

It should be clear from this overall analysis that the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts as well as their orientation toward students significantly influenced the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. These findings have implications foremost for teacher educators, and I turn now to exploring these in more detail.

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Chapter 6:
Discussion and Implications

We know that middle and high school students struggle with content area reading (Carnegie Corporation, 2010; Heller & Greenleaf, 2007; NCES, 2009), and the Common Core State Standards (2010) acknowledge this in the emphasis they place on the reading and writing practices students should develop in history and the social sciences. As these Standards receive more national attention, the time seems ripe for working more deliberately on building teachers' abilities to utilize discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students. Clearly, teacher education has an important role to play here. With this study, I have attempted to add to our understanding of how prospective teachers learn to teach with a focus on disciplinary reading and texts in history. I contend that strengthening our understanding of prospective teachers' learning and of the knowledge and factors that influence their instructional decisions will assist teacher educators as we work to enhance PSTs' abilities to utilize discipline specific reading instructional approaches in their classrooms.

For this dissertation study, I oriented my investigation around the following question: *How did secondary history and social science preservice teachers' conceptions about disciplinary reading and texts in history develop throughout their teacher education program and to what extent did these ideas influence their instructional decisions?* My theoretical framework guided my analysis by focusing my attention on the learning, reading, and teaching context (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999;

Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999; Snow, 2002); on the structure of the disciplines and the literacy skills necessary to actively engage with history (e.g., Bain , 2000, 2006; Hirst, 1974; Moje, 2008; Schwab, 1978; Wineburg, 1991, 2001); and, on the substance and shifts in the PSTs' epistemological understandings of history and disciplinary literacy and on the ways in which these understandings influenced their instructional decisions (Hollingsworth, 1989; King & Kitchener, 1994).

My analysis revealed that this cohort of PSTs, who entered their TE program with varying conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, developed more discipline specific conceptions across their time in the TE program. Not all of the PSTs' conceptions developed in similar ways due primarily to differences in their disciplinary understandings and their orientation toward students. Nonetheless, almost all of the PSTs used some discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their middle and high school students, regardless of their field context. These findings are significant, as they indicate that teacher education does make a difference in developing PSTs' understanding, ability, and perhaps even confidence in using discipline specific reading instructional approaches that they do not necessarily see modeled in the field.

My findings also indicate places where TE programs might focus their efforts as they seek to further strengthen PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history. In particular, PSTs might benefit from explicit instruction about what it means to approach a historical text in a disciplinary way and from practice in developing these reading skills themselves before applying this understanding to their instruction. My investigation also revealed that the PSTs' orientation toward students was an important factor that could serve to either hinder or support the PSTs in using discipline specific reading

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instructional approaches. I identified three areas of PSTs' orientation that appeared to matter most for instruction, and teacher educators might consider eliciting, working with, and extending PSTs' knowledge of these areas as another means to strengthening PSTs' abilities to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

Furthermore, I framed this study around prospective teachers' learning for history teaching. As I explored the PSTs' conceptions about reading and texts in history, I identified and described several dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts, outlining the intellectual progression in the PSTs' understandings of each of these dimensions. This work is significant, as it adds to our understanding of the content and pedagogical content knowledge necessary for history teaching.

Returning to the theoretical framework figure I discussed in Chapter 2 (Figure 5), my findings indicate that there was a relationship among the PSTs' level of cognitive development and their understandings of history, disciplinary literacy, and the reading process. Furthermore, the discipline specificity of the PSTs' conceptions of reading and texts in history had a strong influence on the type of reading instructional approaches they used with their students. Given the significance of the PSTs' conceptions, I moved the circle depicting the PSTs' learning slightly higher than the left-hand circle to illustrate its relative importance with regards to the PSTs' reading instructional approaches. I did not look explicitly in this dissertation at students' learning, but the preservice teacher's perception of students' literacy and academic abilities did seem to influence their instructional decisions. Thus, I changed the label of the left-hand circle from "Student Learning" to "Preservice Teacher's Perception of Students' Literacy and Academic Abilities." Furthermore, for some PSTs their level of orientation toward students
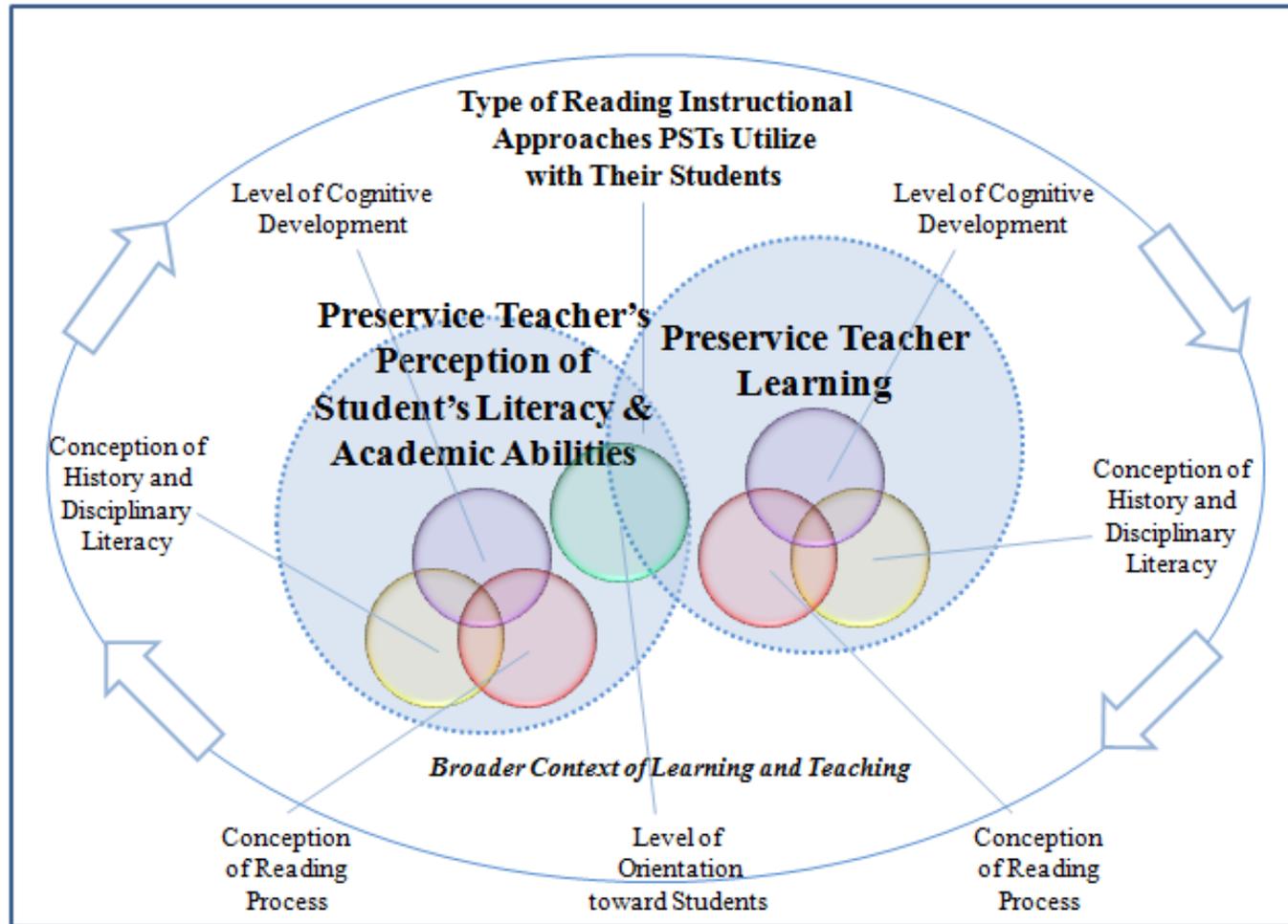
Figure 5: Influences on the Type of Reading Instructional Approaches Preservice Teachers Utilize with Their Students.

(represented in Figure 5 by the green circle) seemed to influence how they viewed their students' literacy and academic abilities. This in turn influenced the reading instructional approaches these PSTs used. Although my theoretical framework did not originally include attention to PSTs' orientation toward students, due to the significance of this factor on some PSTs' perceptions of their students' abilities and on their instructional approaches, it warrants inclusion here. In addition, my analysis revealed that there were changes over time in the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and in their orientation toward students that had consequences for the reading instructional approaches they used with their students; thus, I retained the oval with the arrows surrounding the overlapping circles to illustrate change over time.

In the sections that follow, I explore these conclusions in more detail, organizing them around five key areas:

- PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history;

- Influences on their conceptions;

- Relationship between their conceptions and reading instructional approaches;

- PSTs' orientation toward students; and,

- Influence of the field context on the PSTs' reading instructional approaches.

I demonstrate how this study's conclusions relate to the theoretical framework and previous research, and I describe implications, particularly for teacher education, that relate to each of these five areas.

Main Conclusions and Implications

Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts in History

To explore how the PSTs' conceptions changed across the TE program, I began by analyzing the substance of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history. This required me to first identify and name several dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts relevant in history. Without extant research that specified these dimensions, I first turned to the literature related to how historians view, approach, and use texts (Collingwood, 1946; Lévesque, 2008; VanSledright, 2009; Wineburg, 1991) to inform these categories. I also considered the conceptual tools presented in the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Studies Methods* courses as well as the components of the current interactive reading model (Rumelhart, 1977, 2004; Snow, 2002). I then refined the dimensions by considering their relative significance for teaching history and their presence in the PSTs' commentary.

The resulting dimensions included the PSTs' conceptions about: a) the types of texts relevant for history instruction; b) the role of texts in the history classroom; c) the ways to approach texts in history; d) the role of students when working with disciplinary texts; and, e) the reading challenges that students might face when using disciplinary texts. Although these are certainly not the only categories pertinent to disciplinary reading and texts in history,[40] the creation of these dimensions is significant as it is an initial effort toward outlining the details of the content knowledge teachers should have in relation to disciplinary reading and texts in history. In addition, teacher educators

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[40] Another dimension of disciplinary reading in history I considered was "disciplinary concepts," particularly P. Lee's (2005) substantive and second-order concepts. However, these concepts did not figure prominently in the PSTs' commentary or in their TE coursework.

might want to consider these dimensions as they seek ways to assess PSTs' conceptions and to design curriculum that strives to deepen PSTs' understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history.

Once I established these dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts, I next had to determine how to illustrate the changes in the PSTs' conceptions. With an absence of models for what a continuum of learning might look like with regards to disciplinary reading and texts in history, I used King and Kitchener's (1994) work regarding the learner's epistemological assumptions and judgments to inform the three-leveled continuum I created. For example, with regards to the role students play in disciplinary reading, I described PSTs at the general level of understanding as follows: "Discusses students as retrieving information from texts. Does not give students an active role in making meaning from texts." As shown in the Reflective Judgment Model, underlying the PSTs' understanding of the role of students is their conception of how knowledge is constructed and used. PSTs at this general level of understanding viewed knowledge as emanating from authorities (in this case the textbook) and not something that is co-constructed; thus, students play a limited role when working with disciplinary texts. As with the dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, there are other theories and models that might inform a continuum of learning with regards to disciplinary reading. Nonetheless, the continuum I have created is an initial step that might help to inform future research in this area and assist teacher educators in determining growth in their students' understandings of disciplinary reading in history.

Based on my analysis, I found that all of the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts grew over their time in the TE program. Although past research has

demonstrated growth in PSTs' conceptions after *one* TE course (e.g., Bean & Zulich, 1990; Freedman & Carver, 2007; Hynd, Holschuh, & Hubbard, 2004; Linek et al., 1999; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990), this study's longitudinal examination is significant as there is little work that examines PSTs' conceptions over time and none that I could find that indicate that the growth in PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading continues over the duration of the TE program. PSTs that entered the program with general conceptions of reading and texts, such as Kathy and Rick, ended the program by making stronger links between history and literacy. For instance, Kathy began the TE program stating how important literacy was to history, but she was unable to specify how. By the end of student teaching, she described the importance of teaching her students to evaluate and interpret evidence as they developed their own theories of what happened, because "that's what historians actually do."

On the other end of the spectrum, PSTs like Jared and John, who began the TE program with discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts, also demonstrated growth in their understandings. This is exemplified by John, who at the beginning of the TE program, seemed to understand that interpretation was a key facet of reading in history, but he did not clearly articulate what this meant for how someone should approach a historical text. By the end of the TE program, John explained with some detail what interpreting a text requires of the reader. These examples highlight the type of epistemological growth outlined by King and Kitchener (1994) but in the context of PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history.

With the dimensions rather than individual PSTs as the focus of analysis, we see the most growth with regards to the PSTs' understanding of the types of texts relevant for

history instruction and the role of students in disciplinary reading. All of the PSTs were either moving toward or fully at the discipline specific level of understanding of these dimensions by the end of the TE program. Mindful of activity theory's emphasis on the context of learning (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999), these findings make sense given the emphasis placed on disciplinary texts in both the *Content Area Literacy* and the *History and Social Science Methods* course. Furthermore, all of the PSTs' TE courses discussed the importance of creating opportunities to engage students as active learners, and this seems to have resonated with the PSTs. The PSTs showed the *least* amount of growth with regards to the ways to approach disciplinary texts in history. Many PSTs appeared to be continuing to work through what it means to approach a text from a disciplinary perspective, and their struggle to do so seem connected to their more limited understanding of the discipline's structure and of historical inquiry.

These findings suggest that these PSTs might benefit from explicit and on-going support to deepen their understanding of history as a discipline. This could, and I would argue should, occur both within the TE program as well as in history courses taught by instructors in the college of arts and sciences. Furthermore, more deliberate collaborations between faculty in teacher education and the college of arts and sciences (e.g., Bain & Mirel, 2006; Levine, 2006; Mirel, 2011) might help to foster the use of common language, concepts, and supports for developing PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history (see for example, McDiarmid and Vinten-Johansen's (2000) description of their collaboration in a history methods course). One promising approach is having designated discussion sections of history courses for PSTs.

Harris and Bain (2011) describe such an effort, where PSTs in the discussion section of a "big history" course analyzed the pedagogical moves their history instructor made. Based on this model, discussion sections of history courses might also be focused on discipline specific reading approaches in history and the implications of these approaches for teaching.

Another avenue to pursue is requiring all history and social studies majors to take a historiography course or a history colloquium, in which the PSTs conduct an original investigation in history (recall that the four social studies majors in this cohort were not required to and did not take such a course). Many of the history PSTs in this cohort cited their history colloquium course as strengthening their understanding of historical inquiry as well as their skill in using discipline specific reading and writing practices. Although the experiences such a course offers are significant for PSTs' understanding of disciplinary reading and texts in history, I also acknowledge that one course will not *ensure* that all PSTs enter teacher education programs with discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts (McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000), as the case of Ameena and Christa illustrates.

Another option, although controversial, would be to require PSTs with less developed conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history to take an additional seminar or course that focuses on this area. This would, of course, require TE programs to have a valid measure of their conceptions and to assess their understandings before entering the TE program. However, my study's findings suggest that deepening PSTs' understandings of what it means to engage in reading practices specific to history will increase the likelihood that these PSTs will use more discipline specific reading

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instructional approaches with their students. (Later in this chapter I provide an extended

discussion of the relationship between the PSTs' content knowledge and the reading

instructional approaches they used with their students).

All of the PSTs demonstrated growth in their overall understandings of

disciplinary reading and texts in history, but the growth in their conceptions often

differed by the dimension of disciplinary reading and texts under consideration.

Furthermore, the PSTs did not all end the TE program with discipline specific

conceptions. For instance, in Chapter 4 I illustrated how Kathy's conceptions developed

modestly from general to more discipline specific across her time in the TE program,

whereas Mark's conceptions varied by the dimension of disciplinary reading and texts

(see Chapter 4, pp. 153 – 174). These findings reflect Hollingsworth's (1989) depiction

of learning as a fluid, dynamic, iterative process that depends on numerous contextual

variables. The factors which seemed particularly significant for these PSTs were: a) their

disciplinary understandings; b) their prior experiences in using discipline specific reading

practices themselves as students; and, c) their teacher education coursework, particularly

the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses.

Influences on Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading and Texts

Of the numerous factors influencing the extent to which the PSTs' conceptions

changed over time, PSTs' disciplinary understandings were quite significant. Similar to

past research (e.g., Seixas, 1998; Wilson & Wineburg, 1998), I found that these PSTs'

academic backgrounds did influence their conceptions of reading and texts in history.

For instance, Rick, the only PST with a major in political science, often named texts more

applicable to a civics than a history classroom, such as political position statements and

newspaper editorials. Furthermore, I also found that having an English minor, more so than other academic minors, appeared to influence the PSTs' conceptions of reading and texts. Of the four PSTs with an English minor or major, all conflated reading in English with reading in history at some point across their interviews. This had consequences for the types of texts they used with their students, as they were more apt to use poetry and narratives than were PSTs with other academic minors. Moreover, my findings suggest that an academic major in history, in and of itself, was not enough to ensure that a PST would have discipline specific conceptions. As the case of Ameena and Christa demonstrated, PSTs with the same academic majors and minors can have substantially different conceptions of reading and texts in history. Some of this difference seems to be explained by their pre-collegiate experiences with discipline specific approaches to reading. However, I cannot draw substantive conclusions about these experiences as the only data source I have about these experiences is the PSTs' commentary.

Nevertheless, what seemed to be particularly significant was the *substance* of the PSTs' disciplinary coursework and experiences. For instance, PSTs who had engaged in historical inquiry projects through their disciplinary coursework, such as in the history colloquium course I noted above, were more likely to view reading and texts in discipline specific ways. In addition, PSTs who had pre-collegiate experience in using discipline specific reading practices themselves, such as Bethany and Christa, also had more discipline specific conceptions of reading and texts. Although this is not necessarily surprising, we have limited research in history education that documents how the *substance* of the PSTs' disciplinary experiences influences their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts.

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PSTs with limited experiences in these regards, namely Alex, Ameena, Georgia, Kathy, and Rick, entered the TE program with less of a disciplinary foundation on which to make sense of the information they learned about disciplinary reading and texts in their TE coursework. Furthermore, some of them held models of history and reading that emphasized retrieving and memorizing dates, events, and historical figures. As Stockdill (2011) found in teaching high school students to use discipline specific reading practices, the cultural models students have about history and reading have a significant influence on how they engage with "new" models that contrast with their prior conceptions and models. Thus, explicit work that elicits PSTs' models of history and reading and "disrupts" (Stockdill, 2011) them when necessary is needed in teacher education, as well. Although these PSTs' conceptions *did* become more discipline specific over time, they never reached the levels of their peers, such as Christa, Jared, and John, who entered the TE program with models and epistemological understandings of reading and texts that were already discipline specific.

These findings provide further support for the premise that PSTs' disciplinary backgrounds matter, but they also caution us to pay attention to the substantive content and experiences of PSTs, not just the name of the academic major. This has implications for teacher education and for education policy, as often TE programs and state teacher certification departments require just a certain number of courses for history and/or social studies certification. As I mentioned previously, requiring a history course for social studies majors that focuses on historical inquiry and disciplinary approaches to reading in history is one policy that university and state officials might consider instituting. Another is assessing PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary literacy in history prior to their entrance in

the TE program; those PSTs with less developed conception might then be required to take an additional seminar or course focused on disciplinary reading in history. Complicating the findings of McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen (2000), I found that there was a significant degree of alignment between the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading in history and the types of reading instructional approaches they used with their students. Thus, strengthening PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history seems to provide them with a stronger foundation on which to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students.

Although it is beyond the scope of my data in this study to make recommendations for middle and high school history instruction, it seems likely that more attention to discipline specific reading and texts in history at this level of education might be beneficial for PSTs. In fact, the work of VanSledright (2002) and Ashby, Lee, and Shemilt (2000) suggests that students as early as fourth grade can interpret historical texts in a sophisticated way when teachers provide support through modeling and scaffolding.

In addition to the understandings of historical inquiry and disciplinary literacy that the PSTs brought with them to their TE program, the TE coursework also seemed to influence their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history. In particular, many PSTs cited how influential the *Content Area Literacy* and *History and Social Science Methods* courses were on their understanding of disciplinary reading and texts in history. For PSTs who entered the TE program with general conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, they found these courses to be "eye opening." Kathy explained that prior to the Content Area Literacy course, she had not thought about

literacy and its relation to history. She stated:

> I don't think I would have even thought about literacy, and thought about how I, how could I incorporate literacy into my lesson plans had I not taken that class last year. . . . 'Cause none of, most of us [her cohort peers], probably didn't really struggle in those areas [reading and writing in history] so we never really had, it was never really an issue that we thought about.

For PSTs with more discipline specific conceptions, like Mark, the literacy and methods courses extended their thinking. For instance, he explained how the methods course helped him to see the importance of viewing a text "as a professional from the discipline would. Like an historian. Like an economist. To view things in their terms. When you can view things in their terms, you can really comprehend how to approach the learning of the material, of the subject." Even PSTs who entered the TE program with discipline specific conceptions of reading and text found these courses enlightening. As Jared explained, the methods course helped him envision how to create opportunities for "students to look at sources and decipher their own histories and compare it to the authoritative texts."

Previous research has indicated that TE is often a weak intervention (Kennedy, 1999; McDiarmid, 1990; Olson, 1993; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Richardson & Pacier, 2001), but the PSTs' commentary and the growth in their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history suggest that this was not the case for these PSTs. Unfortunately, my analysis does not clearly reveal what it was about the TE coursework – such as the content, the pedagogical methods of the instructors, or the course assignments – that was most significant. However, there is some evidence to suggest that the consistent emphasis on disciplinary reading and texts in history that this study's PSTs experienced from the *Content Area Literacy* course, the *History and Social Science*

Methods course, and their practicum seminars seemed to have assisted PSTs in deepening

their understanding of disciplinary reading and texts in history. Although the TE

program structure and the degree of alignment between and across the TE courses was

not the focus of my analysis, the PSTs' comments and the positive changes in their

conceptions of disciplinary reading in history suggest that there may be some benefit to

increasing the coherence across TE courses and the collaboration among TE instructors

(Darling-Hammond, Pacheco, Michelli, LePage, Hammerness, & Youngs, 2005).

Relationship between Conceptions and Reading Instructional Approaches

All of the preceding discussion addressed the first component of my orienting

research question, and in this section I focus on the second component – to what extent

the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history influenced their

instruction. Overall, there was a strong relationship between what the PSTs seemed to

know about disciplinary reading and texts and the types of reading instructional

approaches they used with their students. This reflects the high degree of correspondence

that King and Kitchener (1994) found between the learner's epistemological

understandings and the basis for his or her judgments about ill-structured problems.

Although this finding is not necessarily surprising, it complicates previous

research that indicates that the connection between what teachers believe and know and

what they do instructionally is complicated and not straightforward (McDiarmid &

Vinten-Johansen, 2000; Powers & Zippay, 2006; Richardson, 1996; Wilson, Konopak, &

Readance, 1994). This research base indicates that numerous factors – from beginning

teachers' lack of confidence to the setting in which one teaches to perceived time

constraints – can influence the extent to which a teacher's stated understandings translate

into relevant instructional practices. Although I did find that there were other factors influencing the PSTs' instructional decisions, particularly their orientation toward students, for the majority of PSTs there was a strong degree of alignment between their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history and the reading instructional approaches they used with their students.

Moreover, the degree of alignment between PSTs' conceptions and instruction seemed most strong for PSTs with developing or discipline specific conceptions. For instance, as I highlighted in Chapter 5, John's conceptions of reading and texts were discipline specific throughout his time in the TE program and the types of texts he used as well as the ways in which he taught his students to read like members of the discipline aligned with his conceptions. For John, Jared, and Christa, their strong understanding of the discipline seemed to give them enough of a foundation and confidence to incorporate discipline specific reading instructional approaches in their classrooms, *regardless* of their CTs' reading instructional approaches. For instance, neither Jared nor Christa had CTs during semesters two and three who regularly used such approaches, but both PSTs routinely used discipline specific reading instructional approaches in their classrooms (I return to this finding in a later section of this chapter). These PSTs' orientation toward students only seemed to be a mediating factor between their conceptions and instructional approaches if it was a singular orientation, as in the case of Christa. Recall that she discussed wanting to abandon discipline specific reading instructional approaches for more general ones as a result of her experiences in student teaching (more discussion on this to follow in the next section).

In contrast to PSTs with discipline specific conceptions, for the majority of PSTs

moving from basic to developing conceptions, there was less alignment between their conceptions and reading instructional approaches. For example, as I illustrated in Chapter 5, Rick's understanding of disciplinary reading and texts was developing, but he relied almost solely on basic reading instructional approaches in his teaching. Three factors seem particularly influential for these PSTs. First, Rick, Alex, Georgia, and Kathy all explained that their first exposure to the concept of discipline specific reading practices did not occur until they started their TE coursework. They had comparatively little time – two semesters – to deepen their understanding of this concept and content before incorporating it into their teaching. Second, these PSTs worked with CTs who did *not* regularly use discipline specific reading instructional approaches, and it seemed they needed these models, more so than their peers who had more advanced conceptions of disciplinary reading. Without models to help them translate their developing understandings to their instruction, Rick, Alex, Myron, and Georgia relied on what they knew, the textbook and some basic reading approaches (Kathy is the exception here).

Third, most of these PSTs – specifically, Rick, Myron, and Georgia – had singular orientations toward students. Rarely were students the focus of their commentary, and when they did discuss students, it was usually in the context of their general reading and writing struggles. Taken together, these factors seemed to lessen the degree of alignment between these PSTs' conceptions and the reading instructional approaches they used with their students. The one exception to this pattern was Kathy, who held similar conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts as these PSTs but whose comprehensive orientation toward students seemed to assist her in utilizing reading instructional approaches that reflected a more discipline specific conception (more on this in the next section).

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There are several noteworthy implications for teacher education that stem from these findings. First, because the degree of alignment between PSTs' conceptions and reading instructional approaches appears to become stronger as PSTs' conceptions become more discipline specific, it behooves us to continue our efforts in TE programs and in history departments to strengthen PSTs' conceptions of reading and texts in history. As I mentioned previously, these efforts might include more deliberate collaborations that bring together instructors in TE and history departments. Additional avenues include forming discussion sections of history courses focused on discipline specific reading pedagogies and/or requiring PSTs to engage in supported historical inquiry projects that make explicit what it means to engage in discipline specific literacy practices.

Second, it is also important to recruit CTs who routinely utilize discipline specific reading instructional approaches, so that all PSTs have models of these approaches within the field context. However, it is often challenging to recruit enough CTs whose instructional practices reflect those espoused by the TE program (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005). For example, only John had CTs who regularly utilized discipline specific reading instructional approaches. Thus, it might be necessary to pursue other options to maximize the benefits the field experience has to offer with regards to strengthening PSTs' understanding and ability to use disciplinary reading instructional approaches.

One possibility is to purposefully pair PSTs and CTs (Clift & Brady, 2005; Richardson, 2004) so that those PSTs with the least developed conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts might be placed with the CTs most effective at using and

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explaining how to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches. For instance,

John might have used discipline specific reading instructional approaches even without

his CTs modeling these approaches due to his own discipline specific conceptions. But

what might have been the influence of John's CTs on the reading instructional

approaches of PSTs with less developed understandings, such as Rick?   Given Rick and

John's respective understandings of disciplinary reading in history, Rick might have had

more to gain than John from working with these CTs. Purposefully pairing PSTs and

CTs based on their strengths and needs requires that TE programs be quite familiar with

the conceptions and orientations of PSTs *and* the reading instructional approaches and

orientations of CTs. Assessing PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in

history early on and throughout their TE program would increase the TE program's

ability to make appropriate pairings. Using an assessment instrument like the one

developed by the Advancing Literacies project might be a place to start (see Appendix

D). Furthermore, increasing our understanding of CTs' instructional practices, prior to

placing PSTs, would also be essential and require a significant commitment from TE

programs.

Another option for increasing PSTs' opportunities to work with CTs who

regularly use discipline specific reading instructional approaches is to structure at least

one of the field experiences as a "rounds" model, as is currently occurring within the

University of Michigan's TE program. In this scenario, PSTs in small groups of 4-6

rotate over the course of a semester among a handful of CTs, each of whom demonstrates

a particular component of effective history instruction and is skillful in explaining his/her

instructional decisions to novices. I argue that at least one of these CTs would be a

model of how to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches and have a comprehensive orientation toward students. The rounds model might enable all PSTs to "see" effective models of discipline specific reading instruction and to begin strengthening their skills in this area. This approach to the field experience requires the TE program to focus their efforts on developing strong relationships and knowledge of a few teachers' instructional practices instead of the average 8-12 CTs that are typically needed for each cohort each semester when PSTs are placed in pairs for their initial field experience.

Finally, another possibility (and these are not mutually exclusive) is developing strong partnerships with a few schools in the area, such as the University of Michigan is doing currently with an area elementary and middle school (Mitchell-Scarlett Teaching and Learning Collaborative, 2011). By targeting a few schools, TE personnel are better able to increase their knowledge of teachers' instructional practices and can be instrumental in helping to effectively match PSTs and CTs. In addition, having several PSTs within the same building creates opportunities for these PSTs to offer one another more immediate support and for them to observe and work with more than one CT who models effective and discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

A third implication related to the degree of alignment between PSTs' conceptions and reading instructional approaches is the need to surface and strengthen PSTs' orientations toward students. I elaborate on this implication in the following section.

Preservice Teachers' Orientation toward Students

In addition to my orienting research question, I explored two related sub-questions in this dissertation: *What factors and other conceptions did these preservice*

teachers hold that might have influenced their understandings of disciplinary reading and texts in history and their use of related instructional approaches? To what extent did the teaching context influence the preservice teachers' conceptions and use of disciplinary reading instructional approaches? In this and the following section, I describe how the PSTs' orientation toward students – which the field context helped to surface – was an additional and significant factor that seemed to influence the reading instructional approaches that some PSTs used with their students.

Once I identified the significance of the PSTs' orientation, I turned to defining what aspects of it seemed to matter most for the instructional practices they used. Although scholarship related to the knowledge base for teaching (e.g., Ball & Cohen, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Reynolds, 1989) indicates that PSTs' knowledge and views about students are important, there is limited work detailing what it is *specifically* about PSTs' knowledge and ideas that matters most for instruction. Similarly, the multicultural education literature (e.g., Banks, 2006; Cochran-Smith, 2000; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2000; Nieto, 2002; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) contends that PSTs' conceptions of diversity and multiculturalism influence their ideas about teaching underserved students, but there is again a lack of specificity about what aspects of their conceptions matter most for instruction, besides teacher expectations.

My data analysis revealed that the following dimensions were significant: a) the PSTs' perceptions of students' literacy and academic abilities; b) their sense of responsibility for students' overall growth and development; and, c) the level of importance they placed on knowing students as individuals. As I did with the dimensions of disciplinary reading and texts in history, my next step was to create a continuum to

illustrate how the PSTs' orientations toward students advanced. My data analysis made me sensitive to the shifts in the PSTs' growth and development and assisted me in defining three levels of orientation related to each dimension. Although I cannot claim that these dimensions of the PSTs' orientation toward students would be equally as relevant for PSTs outside of this cohort, this work is significant in that it is an initial foray into exploring how PSTs' orientations influence the reading instructional approaches they use with their students. Furthermore, as teacher educators seek to strengthen PSTs' orientations toward students, the dimensions I have identified might serve as preliminary areas of focus.

Notably, the PSTs' orientations did not affect all PSTs' instruction in the same ways (Hollingsworth, 1989). For some PSTs, such as John and Mark, it was difficult to determine the relative influence of this factor due to the strong alignment between their conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and the instructional approaches they used with their students. For other PSTs, such as Rick and Myron, their singular orientation coincided with a basic but developing conception of disciplinary reading and texts in history, making it challenging to clarify the influence of their orientations.

However, for other PSTs, particularly Christa and Kathy, the influence of the PSTs' orientation had a more obvious influence on their reading instructional approaches (see Table 10, p. 198 for a summary of the PSTs' conceptions, orientation, and instructional approaches). In Chapter 5, I illustrated how, by the end of student teaching, Christa's singular orientation toward students actually trumped her discipline specific conception of reading and texts in history; she discussed how she would use basic reading approaches with this group of students moving forward. Christa seemed to focus on her

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students' literacy struggles, not acknowledging how knowing her students as individuals might have helped her see what they *could* do. In contrast, Kathy used some reading instructional approaches that bordered on being discipline specific despite having more general but developing conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts. What seems to have encouraged Kathy to use these approaches was the comprehensive orientation she developed across her time in the TE program. By the end of student teaching, Kathy was more enthusiastic and positive about her students than any of the other PSTs. Although she worked with students of similar demographic and academic backgrounds as Christa, Kathy viewed her students as more agentic, recognizing the importance of knowing her students as individuals and on building upon their strengths and interests.

The significance of the PSTs' orientations toward students on their instruction suggests that this might be another area – in addition to the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history – that teacher educators might deliberately work to strengthen. This requires that instructors first elicit PSTs' orientations. A number of different pedagogies might be utilized to do this, such as field experiences with diverse learners; responding to video or written cases in which the PST takes the role of a teacher in a diverse classroom context; and/or, cultural-immersion experiences (I discuss each of these in more detail in a later section of this chapter). Once teacher educators have a sense of what the PSTs' orientations are, we must find ways to work *productively* with what the PSTs present to us. This is challenging, particularly when a PST seems to focus on students' deficits or conflates students' demographic background characteristics with deficits. Research and the wisdom of practice caution us that unless teacher education disrupts PSTs' conceptions that are incompatible with what we know about effective

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instruction, we risk that the PSTs' conceptions will become more solidified by the field

experience (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992;

Richardson, 1996).

This seems to be what occurred with Christa. Several instructors in the TE

program, including myself, were aware of Christa's singular orientation early on in the

TE program. Yet, we did not have a coordinated or explicit plan of how to work with

her, or with PSTs like her, on her orientation. By the end of her second semester in the

TE program, I noted some positive changes in Christa's orientation. These changes were

likely influenced by the consistent messages she heard about disciplinary literacy and

actively engaging students in learning and the initial success she had in instituting

discipline specific reading instructional approaches with her students. Her instructional

successes seemed to be changing her beliefs (Hollingsworth, 1989; Richardson, 1996).

However, Christa returned to a more singular orientation by the end of student

teaching. Although the data do not clearly indicate why her orientation became more

singular, it is clear that her TE instructors, including myself, did not adequately support

her. First, it seems important that TE programs have an explicit, coordinated strategy for

how to work productively with PSTs who exhibit orientations that are more singular

and/or that focus on students' deficits. Second, since I had already developed a rapport

with Christa and knew of her strengths and challenges, it might have been helpful for me

to continue to be her field instructor during student teaching.

A third avenue worth pursuing is providing Christa, and ideally all PSTs, with

opportunities to observe and work with CTs who are successful in working with diverse

learners (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Zeichner et al., 1998). Similar to pairing PSTs who

have basic conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts with CTs who regularly use discipline specific reading instructional approaches, it might also be beneficial to pair PSTs who have singular orientations with CTs who exhibit comprehensive orientations. Based on my observations and interactions with Christa's CTs, none of them clearly exhibited comprehensive orientations. Working with such models might have assisted Christa. Finally, in addition to CTs as models, it might also be valuable for Christa – and for all PSTs – to see PSTs who are working effectively with underserved students. For instance, providing opportunities for her to see Jared successfully engage his students in discipline specific reading and to discuss with him his rationale for these instructional approaches might have been helpful for her.

Although there appears to be a relationship for some PSTs between their orientation toward students and the reading instructional approaches they used, I cannot make a similar claim about the relationship between the PSTs' *conceptions* of disciplinary reading and texts in history and their *orientation* toward students. For instance, I cannot argue that PSTs with discipline specific conceptions will also have comprehensive orientations, although both John and Jared did, because Christa shows us that having discipline specific conceptions does not cause or ensure that a PST will have a comprehensive orientation. Similarly, although Rick and Myron's general but developing conceptions of disciplinary reading coincided with their singular orientation toward students, Kathy illustrates how PSTs with developing conceptions can also have comprehensive orientations toward students. Nonetheless, the relationship between PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and their orientation toward students is an interesting one and worthy of further investigation.

Another noteworthy aspect of the PSTs' orientation toward students was how certain field experiences seemed to be more effective at surfacing their orientations. Specifically, working in field contexts with students of diverse ethnic, cultural, racial, and academic abilities seemed to elicit more information about the PSTs' orientations toward students than did working in more homogenous settings (with the exception of John, who discussed his students at length across both of his field contexts which were with students of fairly homogenous demographic backgrounds and literacy abilities). This affirms the importance that activity theory places on the learning context (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999) and is not necessarily surprising, as "differences" often spark more reflection than do contexts with which learners are already familiar (Mueller, 2004). For instance, both of Rick's field experiences were in settings where the vast majority of his students were middle to upper middle class, white students with fairly strong literacy skills. Recall that Rick exhibited a singular orientation toward students across his time in the TE program, and never mentioned the importance of building personal relationships with students. This led me to wonder if the singular orientation that Rick demonstrated throughout his commentary was influenced by his field contexts. Would being in a more diverse field setting have influenced Rick's commentary and even his orientation toward students?

PSTs in field contexts that were more diverse than Rick's spoke at length about their orientations, and this is perhaps most apparent with Christa. Her first field experience was in a classroom with students from more homogenous demographic backgrounds and who exhibited a narrower range in literacy abilities than did her students during the second and third semesters in the TE program. Although she

discussed her students during the first interview, her commentary was not as extensive or as in-depth as it was once she began working with a more diverse student population. This makes me wonder how Christa's commentary about her orientation might have differed had she *not* worked in a field context with students from a variety of demographic backgrounds and literacy abilities. Perhaps we would not have known as much about her orientation; moreover, her entering conceptions about students might not have been as contested by field experiences with more homogenous student populations. Scholarship in multicultural education (e.g., Banks et al., 2005; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Villegas & Lucas, 2002) and the increasingly diverse student population in this country warrant having all PSTs work with diverse learners. My analysis suggests that one benefit of working with students from diverse demographic backgrounds is that it can bring to the surface PSTs' orientations toward students. Teacher educators need to know what PSTs' orientations are before we can strengthen or disrupt them (Stockdill, 2011). Of course once we elicit this information, then we need to be prepared to work effectively with what the PSTs' orientations are.

Finally, reflecting activity's theory attention to the activity (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999), it seems that the interview format, more so than class discussions, field notes, course writing assignments, or the TE assessment elicited information about the PSTs' orientation toward students. For example, some components of the TE assessment purposely sought to elicit and measure the PSTs' understandings of students. For instance, the PSTs were asked to respond to prompts like: "What would you need to know about the students you'll be teaching?" Sub-questions included: "What would you want to know about your students'

cultural/racial/ethnic backgrounds? What would you want to know about your students' linguistic and text-based experiences?" (See Appendix D for all assessment prompts). In general, the PSTs' responses did not include deficit comments about students. Christa's assessment response is typical of other PSTs:

> Demographic information would be useful in determining the interests and experiences of my students. If their parents are all workers in the 'Big 3' plants, for example, it might be of particular interest to students to focus on the 'labor question' throughout my teaching.

Had I relied only on Christa's assessment responses as an indication of her orientation toward students, I would likely not have found her to have a singular orientation. This finding supports activity theory's emphasis on the activity and the context (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999).

Similarly, PSTs rarely focused their commentary in class discussions on their responsibility for students or the importance of knowing their students. It is not clear from the data why this was the case, but I speculate that the university classroom setting, in which PSTs are still considered students and are eventually graded on their understandings, led some of the PSTs to focus their commentary on what they thought was valued in that setting (Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999). Discussing or putting into writing their concerns about working with students' literacy challenges or with students of different demographic backgrounds might have seemed too "risky" to these PSTs. In contrast, the interviews were usually conducted by graduate students not responsible for grading these PSTs or were conducted during the final semester with someone they knew well – me.

This finding has implications for how we in teacher education create opportunities to gain information about PSTs' orientations. One option is to have each PST participate

in an interview that focuses on their orientation prior to their entrance into the TE program. This interview would service as a diagnostic tool, developing the TE program's understanding of each PST and supporting the TE program in designing effective instructional approaches for developing PSTs' orientation toward students. I do not recommend that the interview serve as a gatekeeper to entrance into the TE program, as my findings illustrate that PSTs' orientations can develop and grow across their time in the TE program.

Another way to assess PSTs' orientation toward students is to have PSTs respond to an "authentic" classroom situation (via viewing a video case or reading a case) that purposefully places the PST into the role of teacher in a context where there are students of varying demographic and academic backgrounds. This might serve as a baseline for initial conversations into how PSTs' orientations matter for instruction. For instance, one of the initial, and final, assignments in the current version of the *Education in a Multicultural Society* course, required of all PSTs in this TE program, has successfully used such an approach. At the beginning of the course, PSTs read a written case (Silverman, Welty, & Lyon, 1996) and respond to it in writing; PSTs then revisit this case at the end of the semester, commenting on their initial responses and indicating places where they might now respond differently. This assignment is not only self-reflective, but provides TE instructors with information about PSTs' orientation toward students at two distinct points in time.

A third approach, for which there is much support in the multicultural education literature (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Hollins and Guzman, 2005; Melnick & Zeichner, 1997; Murrell & Diez, 1997; Sleeter, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), is requiring all

PSTs to engage in a well supported cultural-immersion experience. As the name implies, these types of experiences engage the learner in a cultural context with which he or she is unfamiliar, although the experiences do not necessarily need to be in school settings. Through guided experiences and discussions, the learner considers what it means to be a cultural being and begins to enhance his/her skills in working effectively with people from different cultural backgrounds to his/her own. Not only does the cultural-immersion experience serve as a catalyst for eliciting PSTs' orientations toward students, but also might function to strengthen PSTs' orientations by helping them to see the "funds of knowledge" that others have (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992). Ideally, the cultural-immersion experience might be a pre-requisite to entrance into a TE program. It is well known that the amount of time PSTs spend in teacher education is short, typically four semesters or less for undergraduates. Thus, we need to seek avenues in which educating prospective teachers becomes the broader responsibility of the whole university, not just the School of Education.

Influence of the Field Context on PSTs' Reading Instructional Approaches

Activity theory (Engeström, 1993; Engeström et al., 1999; Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999) brings our attention to the influence of the learning context, one of which was the PSTs' field experiences. Although I have mentioned the field experiences throughout my discussion in this chapter, it is significant to note that the majority of PSTs, regardless of their field context, used some reading instructional approaches that reflected a developing or discipline specific level of understanding. For instance, Kathy worked in a field context in which her students' literacy abilities ranged significantly and where reading in her CTs' classrooms was either the textbook or

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supplanted by role playing and simulations. In addition to not having relevant models, Kathy demonstrated a basic but developing conception of disciplinary reading and texts in history. We would not expect someone in these circumstances to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches, but Kathy did, as exemplified by the JFK project I described in Chapter 5. As I argued in the previous section, the comprehensive orientation toward students that Kathy developed was a factor that seemed to help her consider such approaches; she viewed students' overall growth and development as her responsibility. She noted throughout her time in the TE program that her CTs' approaches to reading in history did not seem beneficial to the students, and this might have further encouraged her to consider using the types of instructional approaches modeled in the TE courses.

This counters some previous research (Angell, 1998; Bean & Zulich, 1992; Doppen, 2007; McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000) that indicates that PSTs are more likely to adopt the instructional approaches of their CTs than the approaches they learn about in their TE coursework. Few PSTs in my study worked with CTs who regularly used discipline specific reading instructional approaches (perhaps only John), so this does not appear to be a significant factor. However, all of the CTs seemed open to allowing PSTs to try "new" approaches. Although the data do not clearly indicate what enabled the PSTs in my study to institute more discipline specific reading instructional approaches, one factor seems to be the PSTs' level of understanding of disciplinary reading and texts in history. Besides Kathy, all of the other PSTs who did use developing or discipline specific reading instructional approaches were those with more advanced conceptions of reading and texts in history. This might have given these PSTs the

foundation and confidence to try such approaches even when they did not see these practices modeled in the field classroom. In addition, the emphasis in the PSTs' coursework on disciplinary literacy and engaging students might have been another factor encouraging the PSTs to institute more discipline specific reading instructional approaches.

This conclusion does not imply that the field experience or the cooperating teachers with whom the PSTs worked were insignificant. Rather, the cooperating teachers' instructional practices might have mattered more for PSTs with more basic conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts and/or with more singular orientations toward students as opposed to their peers with more developed conceptions and orientations. For instance, neither Rick nor Myron used reading instructional approaches that were discipline specific; both of these PSTs had basic but developing conceptions of reading and texts in history and singular orientations toward students. Furthermore, Rick in particular noted that "seeing" models of how to incorporate discipline specific reading instructional approaches would have been beneficial for him. For example, in the final interview he described learning about a discipline specific reading instruction approach and thinking:

> 'Oh man, that'd be cool.' But without actually seeing them modeled for you, it's hard to one, make it apply to your specific content and two, know exactly how it's supposed to go and what it's supposed to look like. So I guess I could use some actual training on some of those reading strategies in action. . . . I feel I was kind of unprepared as far as implementing literacy strategies. So if there could be more even videos of students that are allowed to view these specific strategies going on in the classroom and to be able to say, 'Oh, that's a jigsaw. That's how that's supposed to work. That's a pretty good activity.' And to be able to see that and to do that in your own classroom, I feel like that would have prepared me a little bit more and just seeing any kinds of activities for instruction. That's really where I felt like my deficiency was in student teaching and still is.

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Clearly, Rick wanted more visual models of the reading instructional approaches he was learning about in his TE coursework, and it is likely that he would have benefitted from working with CTs like John's.

I draw several implications, some of which I have noted previously, from these findings related to the field experience. For example, building coherence across the TE program might strengthen the extent to which the TE program influences PSTs' instructional approaches, as seemed to be the case for the PSTs in this study. Another area to pursue is fostering and developing relationships with CTs whose instructional practices reflect those supported by the TE program. Ideally, all PSTs would have opportunities to work with CTs who model discipline specific reading instructional approaches. However, at a minimum, it is important that the PSTs with general conceptions of reading and texts in history be placed with the CTs best able to model and support them in strengthening their conceptions *and* their understanding of how to incorporate discipline specific reading instructional approaches with their students.

 In addition, to further encourage PSTs to "try out" some of the reading instructional approaches presented in their TE coursework in their field classrooms, TE programs might consider instituting additional modeling and support. Modeling might take the form of video records or instructor modeling, for example. Micro-teaching experiences (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005; Gage, 1978) might also help to build PSTs' knowledge, skill, and confidence in trying reading instructional approaches they have not yet seen modeled by their CTs in the field classrooms. Field instructors might also help PSTs to work with CTs unfamiliar with or reluctant to use discipline specific reading instructional approaches. Furthermore, field

instructors can provide PSTs with targeted support and feedback about using discipline specific reading instructional approaches. As these suggestions imply, I do not think there is a one-size-fits-all approach to successfully working across the far too common campus-K-12 divide, so numerous strategies and approaches might be necessary to ensure that PSTs have ample models and support in beginning to appropriate reading instructional approaches specific to history.

Future Work

Although this work has begun to shed light on the substance and influences on PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading and texts in history and the reading instructional approaches they use with their students, there is much still to investigate. Given the scope of the dissertation study, I can imagine work that focuses more explicitly on disciplinary reading, PSTs' orientations toward students, or PSTs' professional development. First, as I mentioned earlier, the dimensions of disciplinary reading I identified and described in this dissertation might not be the only ones pertinent to effective history instruction (although they appeared to be the ones most pertinent to these PSTs). Work that further explores these dimensions, perhaps by examining the conceptions of a different cohort of PSTs, might assist in refining and/or adding to these dimensions. I can also envision a study that examines how secondary students engage with the reading instructional approaches they learn from their PSTs. In addition, I did not explore the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary writing in this dissertation study; doing so would lead to a more comprehensive understanding of how PSTs conceive of disciplinary literacy practices in history.

Second, the PSTs' orientation toward students is another area worthy of further investigation and refinement, as I did not examine in this study the influences on the PSTs' orientation toward students. Given the significance the PSTs' orientation had on some of their reading instructional approaches, it seems important to look at this in more detail. It would also be useful to explore the relationship between PSTs' orientation and their perception of their students' literacy abilities. For instance, did Christa's more singular orientation prevent her from paying more attention to her students' successes than their shortcomings? Or, what might have happened to Christa's level of orientation if her students had responded in more positive ways to the discipline specific instructional approaches she used during student teaching? Furthermore, I did not have enough evidence to claim that the PSTs' underlying beliefs and assumptions about underserved students influenced their overall orientation toward students, but it at least seemed to be a factor for Christa. Further investigating this relationship will provide additional insight that can inform how teacher educators can work to disrupt and counter as necessary PSTs' deficit perspectives about underserved students.

Finally, another fruitful area to explore is examining to what extent PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading influence their reading instructional approaches as they enter their first years of teaching. While it is significant that almost all of the PSTs in this study used some reading instructional approaches that were more discipline specific as preservice teachers, I recognize that there are additional pressures on teachers once they enter their own classrooms, and I wonder how these might influence new teachers' instructional practices. Furthermore, as Zeichner (2005) explained, there has been very little research attending "to how teachers are affected over time by their

preparation" and how this influences their subsequent teaching (p. 742). Because I have already collected some data from three focal PSTs who worked with underserved students during their first years of teaching, I might begin the next phase of this work by analyzing these data.

My preliminary analysis suggests that these PSTs, Jared, Kathy, and Mark, did *not* routinely use discipline specific reading instructional approaches during their first years of teaching. Not surprisingly, their status as new teachers was a factor, as they were navigating the demands of state standards, assessments, and their respective schools' instructional norms and expectations while attempting to incorporate the reading instructional approaches they had learned about during their TE program and had tried with some success. Another influential factor seemed to be their teaching assignments. Jared taught primarily geography, which was outside of his certification area and with which he had no disciplinary coursework or teaching experience (recall that he was a history major and political science minor). Would it have made a difference had he taught history, a discipline in which Jared had a keen interest and substantive content and pedagogical content knowledge?

Kathy had four preps her first year and did not have previous teaching experience in three of them. Furthermore, after earning the "teacher of the year award" at her school after her first year of teaching, Kathy was assigned to run the school's computer lab for students trying to meet their high school graduation requirements. Instituting discipline specific reading instructional approaches in this context was particularly challenging. Finally, during Mark's first year, his school charged him with creating a curriculum for a civics class, a task for which he had no prior experience and which required a significant

amount of time and work. He explained that this task consumed the time he would have otherwise spent on creating more history units centered on inquiry and discipline specific reading practices. Sadly, all three of these promising teachers left the classroom for other careers before their third year of teaching. This is even more troubling to me as all three were committed to working with underserved students and had met with some success in doing so.

Jared, Kathy, and Mark's experiences spark my interest in two related questions: what factors influence new teachers, particularly those working with underserved students, to stay – or leave – the profession? What are the benefits and challenges of TE programs providing their graduates, particularly those in underserved areas, with on-going professional development and support during their first years of teaching? Studies of national data suggest that 40-50% of new teachers leave the profession within five years, and this number is higher for teachers working in urban schools (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Given this, Ingersoll & Smith argue that it is vital that we closely examine new teachers' experiences and base our supports on this analysis. They suggest that providing new teachers with effective, coherent professional development is one avenue to pursue. Jared, Kathy, and Mark all noted that the new teacher staff development they received through their respective districts (all three were teaching in different states) focused on non-instructional tasks, such as attendance keeping procedures. What if these sessions had focused instead on topics that these teachers nominated or that research indicates are the most significant on new teachers' instructional practices?

Furthermore, what if these new teachers had opportunities to collaborate again with their cohort peers and their TE instructors? Building on the rapport this group

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already had, I can imagine myself, or another TE instructor, holding periodic sessions via Skype or another video medium (few in this cohort – and in our secondary, undergraduate TE program as a whole – remain in this geographic area to teach). These sessions would provide these new teachers with an opportunity to continue building on what they have learned through their TE program. Providing recent graduates with targeted support might help to address some of their instructional concerns and might be the type of collegial support that makes it more enticing to remain in the classroom.

Such professional development might serve as continuing education units or credits that almost all state boards of education require for renewing one's teaching certification. Of course, instituting an approach like this requires that we re-envision the role of TE instructors and of what it means to provide staff development, but it seems an area worth exploring as the current support structures for new teachers working with underserved students do not seem adequate, as demonstrated by the high attrition rate. Using an action research model, I am interested in investigating the benefits and challenges of supporting and following our graduates who work with underserved students through their first years of teaching.

Final Thoughts

As Pace (2004) reminds us, "the instruction 'read' has such a radically different meaning in the context of courses in physics, accounting, English, or history that we probably do students a disservice by even using the same word" (p. 13). I contend that if we are to strengthen secondary students' reading skills in the disciplines, then it will be necessary to teach them to read in discipline specific ways. This study's findings suggest

that prospective teachers can learn to utilize discipline specific reading instructional approaches in history with their secondary students. To increase their effectiveness in doing so, teacher education programs should provide cohesive and consistent messages about the significance of discipline specific reading instructional approaches, as well as multiple experiences, within their programs and in their sister history departments that enable PSTs to develop their understanding of and their skill in using discipline specific reading practices. In addition, it is also necessary to purposefully elicit, work with, and develop PSTs' orientations toward students. These efforts will help to ensure that prospective teachers enter the profession with a strong foundation on which to build all of their students' discipline specific reading skills in history.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Teacher Education Program Requirements

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Appendix A: Teacher Education Program Requirements

History: MAJOR Requirements for Secondary Teacher Certification

Please note: Major/minor requirements are subject to change. All candidates are expected to consult with a School of Education advisor as they plan and progress through their program.

History majors must complete a minimum of 30 credits including the following:

Course Number	Course Title	Credits
Education 432	Teaching of Social Studies in the Secondary School	3
History 160	US History to 1865	3-4
History 161	US History 1865 – Present	3-4

Select one of the following two-course regional world history concentrations:

East Asia:		
History 204	East Asia: Early Transformations	3-4
History 205	Modern East Asia	3-4

OR

South and Southeast Asia:		
History 206	Indian Civilization	3-4
History 207	Southeast Asian Civilization	3-4

OR

Africa:		
History 246	Africa to 1850	3-4
History 247	Modern Africa	3-4

OR

Latin America:		
History 347	Latin America: The Colonial Period	3-4
History 348	Latin America: The National Period	3-4

Select one course in European history		3-4
History 396 or 397	History Colloquium	3-4
History electives, as needed, to reach the minimum 30 required credits		3-9

Social Studies: MAJOR Requirements for Secondary Teacher Certification

Please note: Major/minor requirements are subject to change. All candidates are expected to consult with a School of Education advisor as they plan and progress through their program.

A minor in Social Studies is not available.

Social Studies majors must complete a minimum of <u>36 credits</u> including the following:

Course Number	Course Title	Credits
Education 432	Teaching of Social Studies in the Secondary School	3
History 160	US History to 1865	3-4
History 161	US History 1865 – Present	3-4

Select one of the following two-course regional world history concentrations:

Africa:		
History 246	Africa to 1850	3-4
History 247	Modern Africa	3-4

East Asia:		
History 204	East Asia: Early Transformations	3-4
History 205	Modern East Asia	3-4

Europe:		
History 110	Medieval, Renaissance, and Reformation Europe	3-4
History 111	Modern Europe	3-4

Latin America:		
History 347	Latin America: The Colonial Period	3-4
History 348	Latin America: The National Period	3-4

South and Southeast Asia:		
History 206	Indian Civilization	3-4
History 207	Southeast Asian Civilization	3-4

Political Science 101	Introduction to Political Theory	4
Political Science 111	Introduction to American Politics	4
Economics 101	Principles of Economics I	3-4
Economics 102	Principles of Economics II	3-4
Geography 111	Introduction to Global Change: Human Impacts	4
Geography 245	Global Interdependence	3
One elective from one of the four major social studies disciplines (economics, history, geography, or political science), if needed, to meet the required 36 credit minimum.		

Political Science: MAJOR Requirements for Secondary Teacher Certification

Please note: Major/minor requirements are subject to change. All candidates are expected to consult with a School of Education advisor as they plan and progress through their program.

Political Science majors must complete a minimum of 30 credits including the following:

Course Number	Course Title	Credits
Education 432	Teaching of Social Studies in the Secondary School	3

Select one course:

Political Science 101	Introduction to Political Theory	4
Political Science 301	Development of Political Thought: to Modern Period	3
Political Science 302	Development of Political Thought: Modern and Recent	3

Select one course:

Political Science 111	Introduction to American Politics	4
Political Science 310	American Political Processes	3
Political Science 311	American Political Processes	3

Select one course:

Political Science 140	Introduction to Comparative Politics	4
Political Science 336	Comparative Politics	3
Political Science 349	Political Change in the Developing World	3

Select one course:

Political Science 160	Introduction to World Politics	4
Political Science 360	Problems in World Politics	3
Political Science 370	Comparative Foreign Policy	3

Select one course:

Political Science 391 **(preferred course)**	Introduction To Modeling Political Processes	3
Political Science 488	Political Dynamics	3
Political Science 490	Game Theory and Formal Models	3
Political Science 499	Quantitative Models of Political Analysis	3

Additional upper-level (300 and above) Political Science course(s) to meet the 30 credit required minimum	Varies

Appendix B: Background Information on Preservice Teachers and Field Placements

Name	Academic Background	Field Placement 1 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 1 School Type	Field Placement 1 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*	Field Placement 2 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 2 School Type	Field Placement 2 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*
Jared Male, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** Political Science	8th grade U.S. History	Mid-sized middle school in small city	Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies; some projects	8th grade U.S. History; 6th grade World Studies	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced middle school in large city	Heavy reliance on textbook; writing test preparation
Kathy Female, Caucasian	**Major:** Social Studies **Minors:** Psychology & Political Science	10th grade U.S. History	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; read text aloud in class; answer textbook questions; historical movies	10th grade U.S. History	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced high school in small city (Same school as semester 1 though different teacher)	Limited use of text; emphasis on hands-on activities such as simulations and role playing
Mark Male, Caucasian/ Latino	**Double Major:** History & Social Studies	9th grade U.S. History; 11th & 12th grade Sociology	Small, diverse, under-resourced, charter high school in large city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; differentiated instruction	7th grade Eastern Hemisphere Studies	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced middle school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; end of unit culminating projects
Christa Female, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** Political Science	9th-12th grade African Civilization; 9th-12th grade Law	Small, alternative high school in mid-sized city	Some disciplinary reading approaches; multiple forms of text	10th grade U.S. History; 10th-12th grade Criminal Justice; 10-12th grade Civics	Large, diverse high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies
John Male, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** English	9th grade U.S. History; 11th & 12th grade A.P. European History	Large high school in small city	Multiple disciplinary reading approaches; multiple forms of text	9th-10th grade U.S. History; all grades, Model UN	Small, alternative high school in mid-sized city	Some disciplinary reading approaches; multiple forms of text

Name	Academic Background	Field Placement 1 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 1 School Type	Field Placement 1 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*	Field Placement 2 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 2 School Type	Field Placement 2 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*
Myron Male, African American	**Major:** History **Minor:** English	10th grade U.S. History	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; read text aloud in class; answer textbook questions; historical movies	10th grade U.S. History; 9th grade Civics; 11th grade Economics & Govt.	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced high school in small city (Same school as semester 1 though different teacher)	Heavy reliance on textbook; answer textbook questions
Rick Male, Caucasian	**Major:** Political Science **Minor:** Spanish	8th grade U.S. History	Mid-sized middle school in small city	Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies; some projects	10th & 11th grade Civics and Economics	Large high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; some simulations and role playing
Alex Male, Caucasian	**Major:** Social Studies **Minor:** Math	10th & 11th Geometry and Pre-calculus	Large high school in small city	**Math Placement	8th grade U.S. History; 8th grade Algebra	Mid-sized middle school in mid-sized city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies
Ameena Female, Arab American	**Major:** History **Minor:** Political Science	10th & 11th grade Civics; 12th grade A.P. Government	Large high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; some simulations and role playing	8th grade U.S. History; 6th & 7th grade World Geography	Small, parochial K-8 school in mid-sized city	Heavy reliance on textbook; answer textbook questions; some projects
Bethany+ Female, Caucasian	**Triple Major:** History, English, & Social Studies	7th grade Eastern Hemisphere Studies	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced middle school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; end of unit culminating projects	+ Deferred her 2nd and 3rd field placements to finish academic major coursework		

Name	Academic Background	Field Placement 1 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 1 School Type	Field Placement 1 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*	Field Placement 2 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 2 School Type	Field Placement 2 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*
Georgia# Female, Caucasian	**Major:** Social Studies **Minor:** Psychology	10th grade U.S. History; 10th & 11th grade History of Stalin & Hitler	Large high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; historical movies; note taking	10th grade U.S. History	Large high school in small city	Some disciplinary reading approaches; multiple forms of text
Howard Male, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** English	7th grade Eastern Hemisphere Studies	Mid-sized, diverse, under-resourced middle school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; end of unit culminating projects	8th grade U.S. History	Large middle school in mid-sized city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; some projects
Jessica Female, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** Psychology	9th grade U.S. History; 11th & 12th grade Sociology	Small, diverse, under-resourced, charter high school in large city	Heavy reliance on textbook; general reading strategies; differentiated instruction	10-12th grade Global Issues	Large, diverse, under-resourced high school in large city	Some disciplinary reading approaches; multiple forms of text
Michelle Female, Caucasian	**Major:** Social Studies **Minor:** History	7th grade Geography	Mid-sized middle school in small city	Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies; some projects	10th grade U.S. History	Large, diverse high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; answer textbook questions
Scott Male, Caucasian	**Major:** History **Minor:** Political Science	10th & 11th grade Civics; 12th grade A.P. Government	Large high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook; some simulations and role playing	9th & 10th grade World History; 12th grade A.P. U.S. History	Large high school in small city	Heavy reliance on textbook

Name	Academic Background	Field Placement 1 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 1 School Type	Field Placement 1 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*	Field Placement 2 Grade & Subject	Field Placement 2 School Type	Field Placement 2 CT's Common Instructional Approaches*
Stacey Female, Caucasian	**Double Major:** History & Social Studies	7th grade Geography	Mid-sized middle school in small city	Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies; some projects	9th grade U.S. History	Large high school in small city	Primarily used textbook; some general reading strategies

*   Description of reading instructional approaches based on my observations and substantiated by preservice teachers' comments.

** Math placement as opposed to history or social studies classroom, thus I do not comment on CT's instructional approaches.

\+   Deferred her 2nd and 3rd field placements to finish academic major coursework, so I do not have data for these semesters.

 \#   Did not complete student teaching; thus, I do not have data from her third semester in the TE program.

Notes:
a) During semester 1 in the TE program, the PSTs were placed in pairs in classrooms, and for semesters 2 & 3 they were placed individually.
b) I define school size as follows: small (250-500); mid-sized (501-950); large (901+)
c) I identify schools as "diverse" if 33% or more of the student population is considered minority.
d) I identify schools as "under-resourced" if 40% or more of the student population is eligible for free and reduced priced lunches (http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=158).
e) I define city size as follows; small (1,000 – 75,000); mid-sized (75,001 – 250,000); large (250,000+).

Appendix C: Conceptual and Practical Tools PSTs Mentioned Most Often

	Content Area Literacy	**History & Social Science Methods**
Conceptual Tools	- Viewing literacy as more than reading and writing (such as computer literacy, visual literacy, etc.) - Developing an understanding of the teaching context and one's students - Using developmentally and culturally responsive ways of engaging students - Pre-assessing students' literacy abilities - Critically analyzing texts before deciding to use them with students - Using before-during-after reading instructional approaches - Using instructional scaffolding	- Eliciting, working with, and building upon students' prior knowledge - Problematizing history: using historical/ intellectual problems - De-deifying the textbook - Considering the structure of history and the social science disciplines when planning instruction - Teaching with concepts - Creating units and lessons using backward design
Practical Tools	- Adapting and utilizing specific before-during-after reading activities, such as having a class discussion to activate students' prior knowledge or having students take guided notes as they read - Designing and utilizing content reading inventories as a strategy for assessing students' reading abilities related to the discipline - Adapting and utilizing reading activities in the "Buehl" book, which contained numerous instructional strategies and activities related to the before-during-after reading framework - Utilizing a range of criteria to assess disciplinary texts prior to deciding to use the texts with students	- Using multiple texts (and types of texts) related to an historical/ intellectual problem - Teaching students how to use reading heuristics: sourcing, contextualizing, corroborating - Using a range of informal writing formats to support students' engagement with and understanding of disciplinary texts - Modifying primary texts - Designing and facilitating concept formation lessons

Note: My data analysis revealed that these are the conceptual and practical tools the PSTs mentioned most frequently in their interview and assessment responses and are the ones most apparent in their instruction.

Appendix D: Teacher Education Program Assessment

Pre-Service Teacher Assessment
University of Michigan, Teacher Education Program
SOCIAL STUDIES
<u>Administration #2</u>

Name: _____

Term: _____

Date: _____

<u>Section 1</u>: Literacy Survey

In this section, we ask you to rate statements that indicate what you believe and know about reading, writing, and teaching and learning in social studies. You should think of each question in relation to your content area. Responses range on a scale of 1-7, with 7 indicating high agreement or frequencies and 1 indicating low agreement or frequencies.

(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = In-between;
5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

A social studies teacher is obliged to help students
improve their reading abilities.

Social studies teachers should teach content and
leave reading instruction to reading teachers.

Knowing how to teach reading in social studies
should be required for teaching certification in
social studies.

Social studies teachers should be familiar with the
theoretical concepts of the reading process.

Only teachers of English should be responsible for
teaching reading comprehension in middle schools.

Only teachers of English should be responsible for
teaching reading comprehension in high schools.

(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = In-between; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Every social studies teacher should teach students how to read social studies materials.

The primary responsibility of a social studies teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge.

A social studies teacher should be responsible for helping students comprehend at an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read.

Social studies teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading and how to monitor their own success.

Social studies teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide.

Teachers who want to improve students' interest in reading should model their own use of reading to obtain information in social studies.

How clearly a social studies text is written matters most in how a reader comprehends a passage.

Text reading in social studies requires a special understanding of how language is used in disciplines such as history, economics, or government.

Social studies teachers are responsible for teaching technical vocabulary terms in the social studies

Social studies teachers are responsible for teaching students to learn words of many different types to help develop their understanding of the social studies.

When students read in social studies, the readers interact with the social studies text to invent new meaning not found in the text or possessed by the readers.

Prior social studies knowledge is required for social studies text reading to be more than just an exercise in saying words.

(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = In-between; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

The ideas that a reader brings to a social studies text matter most in how well a reader comprehends a passage.

To understand social studies, a student needs the ability to determine the accuracy of information when reading primary text sources.

The ideas that an author conveys in a social studies text matter most in how a reader comprehends a passage.

While comprehending a new social studies concept from reading, most readers relate text information to familiar examples in their memory.

The social studies text contains all the information needed by the reader to understand the idea or concept.

Students require no background on a topic to read and comprehend text on that topic.

To understand history and the social sciences, a student must develop the ability to corroborate evidence across from multiple text sources.

Readability formulae are a good way to determine whether a text is appropriate for a particular age group.

Sentence and paragraph structure in social studies textbooks need to be different from that of other content area textbooks because of the type of information they convey.

Students who can read age-appropriate non-social studies texts will have no trouble reading age-appropriate social studies texts.

The problem with poor readers is that they do not follow the logical structure of paragraphs.

To understand history and the social sciences, a student must develop the ability to assess the quality and impact of data when reading primary text sources.

(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = In-between; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

The ability to predict upcoming text can be used to distinguish between good and poor readers.

To understand historical and social science texts, a student must approach texts with a problem or question in mind.

Titles and headings in a text are useful for effective reading comprehension.

Social studies technical vocabulary should be introduced to students in class before they encounter those terms in a text passage.

Sentence and paragraph structure in social studies textbooks need to be different from that of other content area textbooks because of the way historians, economists, psychologists, and other social scientists communicate their findings.

To understand social studies, a student needs the ability to analyze point of view in a text when reading primary text sources.

Most texts for secondary social studies are written at or below the grade level for which they are intended.

To understand history and the social sciences, a student must be able to situate the text within multiple contexts (e.g., historical, cultural, geographic, political) in which it was written.

Sentence and paragraph structure in social studies textbooks must be different from that of primary sources in the social studies because textbooks are written for younger audiences than are primary sources.

Writing in social studies requires knowledge of how to synthesize primary and secondary source information, work with data, and provide reasoned warrant for claims.

The context (e.g., the room, the class, or the political environment) in which a person reads can shape the meaning the person makes of a social studies text.

(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = In-between;
5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

If readers have an idea of why they're reading a
particular social studies text, then they are more
likely to comprehend the ideas in the text.

Writing in the social studies is like writing in any
other discipline.

Primary source texts useful in social studies are
written like any other texts students might encounter
in high school.

The context (e.g., the room, the class, or the political
environment) in which a person writes can shape the
information the writer chooses to include in a social
studies text.

It is not necessary for the reader to know the
purpose for reading social studies text material.

Section 2: Planning for Instruction

In the following section, you will be asked to provide a general overview of your thinking
and answer a number of questions addressing instructional planning in history. There are
a total of 4 questions in this section.

Question 1: It is the beginning of the year and you have just been hired to teach U.S.
history to eleventh-grade students. Your building principal welcomes you to the school
and then informs you that she will expect your first unit plan and accompanying lesson
plans one week before classes begin. What kind of information would you need to know
in order to begin your planning?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 2: What would you need to know about the context in which you'll be
teaching?

Try to address each of the questions below in your response:

•What would you want to know about school or departmental goals for your content
area?

•What would you want to know about state standards?

•What would you want to know about departmental practices?

•What would you need to know about the school environment and structure?

•What would you need to know about your students' backgrounds and experiences?

•What will be the central concept of study for your first unit?

•How long will the unit last?

•How many lessons will you plan to include?

•What are some of the general concepts you will cover in each of those lessons?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 3: What would you need to know about the <u>texts</u> you'll have as resources for teaching and how would you go about using them?

Try to address each of the questions below in your response:

•What kind of support will you provide to students to help them comprehend, extract information, or use these texts for their history learning?

•What would you want to know about the various resources you'll have available in your classroom?

•What types of texts will you incorporate into your instruction?

•How will you know whether your students are able to read the texts you assign?

•What texts will you expect students to produce?

•What kind of support will you provide to students to help them produce the texts you assign?

•How will you know whether your students are able to write the texts you assign?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 4: What would you need to know about the <u>students</u> you'll be teaching?

Try to address each of the questions below in your response:

•How will you decide the level of information that your eleventh-grade students will be able to handle?

•What will be your student learning objectives for the unit?

•How will you know throughout the unit whether your students are learning what you are teaching?

•How will you know at the end of the unit whether your students have learned what you taught?

•What will you do if you find that students are struggling with a concept or a skill in your class?

•What would you want to know about your students' cultural/racial/ethnic backgrounds?

•What would you want to know about your students' linguistic and text-based experiences?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Section 3: Analyzing Texts

In the following section, you will be asked to explain how you approach the texts of your content area. You will be asked to read two different texts. After each text, you will be asked to answer two sets of related questions. Since both of the texts you will be reading are lengthy, you should be sure to monitor your time carefully.

Assume that you want your students to read the following primary source text as part of a history unit. This is the "Why Women Should Vote" text on your handout.

Question 1: The Nature of the Text: "Why Women Should Vote"

Which of the state standards (list will be provided) would this text address?

What intellectual problem in social studies would this text address?

How would you describe the structure and tone of this text?

What are the key ideas or concepts in the text?

What are the key words or technical terms in the text?

What strengths do you see in the text?

What weaknesses do you see in the text?

How would you assess the organization and flow of ideas within this passage?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 2: The Text and the Reader: "Why Women Should Vote"

What challenges does the text pose for you, as an adult reader with relatively deep knowledge of this subject?

What challenges might the text pose for adolescent readers of this text?

What knowledge does the author seem to assume a reader will bring to this text?

How will you find out whether your students have the necessary knowledge prior to reading this text?

How will you help students build the necessary knowledge before reading this text?

What would you want to know about your students' cultural/racial/ethnic backgrounds?

What would you want to know about your students' linguistic and text-based experiences?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Now assume that you also want your students to read the following history textbook selection as a part of the same history unit.

This is the "Chapter 19: Growing Pains" text on your handout.

Question 3: The Nature of the Text: "Chapter 19: Growing Pains"

Which of the state standards (list will be provided) would this text address?

What intellectual problem in social studies would this text address?

How would you describe the structure and tone of this text?

What are the key ideas or concepts in the text?

What are the key words or technical terms in the text?

What strengths do you see in the text?

What weaknesses do you see in the text?

How would you assess the organization and flow of ideas within this passage?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Question 4: The Text and the Reader: "Chapter 19: Growing Pains"

What challenges does the text pose for you, as an adult reader with relatively deep knowledge of this subject?

What challenges might the text pose for adolescent readers of this text?

What knowledge do the authors seem to assume a reader will bring to this text?

How will you find out whether your students have the necessary knowledge prior to reading this text?

How will you help students build the necessary knowledge before reading this text?

What would you want to know about your students' cultural/racial/ethnic backgrounds?

What would you want to know about your students' linguistic and text-based experiences?

How will you help students make connections between this text and the primary source text that you read previously?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Section 4: Assessing Student Work

In the following section, you will be asked to explain how you approach the texts that high school students produce in social studies and how you go about providing feedback to those students.

As part of an examination in your tenth grade history class, you gave the following assignment to students addressing the Progressive Era:

"Using evidence, explain what you think was the legacy of the progressive movement."

Below are a student's pre-lesson and post-lesson journal entries on the first day of the Progressive unit. After you read these entries, please move on to the same student's end-of-unit essay shown below.

Journal Entry: Beginning of class on November 4th

"In my opinion, progress is when you start with little and move on to things that are bigger & better. Progress, in my life, is our kitchen remodel. First you only have the cabinets put in, but then you move on to sinks and countertops. That is progress because the kitchen is farther along than it started out."

Journal Entry: End of class on November 4th

"Today's lesson on progress contested with what I knew about it. I already knew that it was when something moves forward for the better, but it is also showed that bad things go with progress as well. Like in the Industrial Revolution, there were bad working & living conditions, but even through it all, we progressed to what our country is today."

Now that you've read the journal entries, please read the same student's final essay on the Progressive Era written upon completion of the unit and then respond to the questions listed at the bottom of the page in the space provided. Feel free to refer to or provide feedback on the journal entries as well.

Student Essay on Progressive Legacy: December 1st

the Progressive Era was from 1890-1920 that consisted of reformers from different backgrounds who joined together to bring change to American society. The government became much more active during this time and 6 new reform laws were passed.

The first reform was <u>Labor Rights</u>. It banned children from working and made workdays only be 8 hours long. Also, both men and women were given minimum wages. The employers also had to pay the employees.

Next, a new reform came out that was <u>consumer</u> protection. After reading "The Jungle" by Upton Sinclair, people saw just how bad the cleanliness of meat packaging really was. The Meat Inspection Act was passed as well as the Pure Food and Drug Act. This last act made packing plants put the right labels on food and medicine.

With <u>political</u> reform, voting became a much more private affair with the passing of the Australian Ballot; which allowed you to vote in secret. Also, there were referendums and you could recall politicians by popular vote. Most importantly was the 17th amendment, which made senators only elected through votes.

The 4th reform was <u>Environmental</u> reform. Teddy Roosevelt loved nature and thought people were using natural resources un-wisely. He set aside more than 80 million acres

for national forests. With the help of John Muir, he made national parks such as Yellowstone and Yosemite.

Regulation of <u>Industry</u> came next. The progressives made new laws for the government such as the Sherman Anti-trust Act in 1890 and the Clayton Anti-trust Act in 1914. both of these acts broke up trusts and big monopolies. The Interstate Commerce Act was also made and it regulated railroad rates across the country.

Last came <u>Redistribution</u> of wealth. In 1913 the 16th amendment was formed which revolved around income tax. For the first time, the rich people had to pay tax. This shortened the huge gap between the rich and poor people and I'm sure it made the poor not feel so low down!

Throughout time, there have been so many changes made to our country that I probably couldn't even count them all! But without the progressives, would there have been any changes? These people left a great legacy behind for us so we could have a better life. Women have the right to vote today as well as any race. You can vote in secret so nobody kills you for voting the opposite they did. We still have out national parks where you can go and see natures beauty, just like Teddy Roosevelt did. But best of all, we have freash food and medicine and can eat as much as we want since there is no fear of dying. Thanks Progressives.

1. What feedback would you provide for each of these students' responses?

2. What additional information would have helped you in your ability to give appropriate feedback?

3. How would these responses inform your next steps instructionally?

PLEASE TYPE YOUR RESPONSE HERE:

Appendix E: Interview Protocols 1-3

Note: Interview questions that remained consistent (or very similar wording) are italicized across the three interview protocols.

Advancing Literacies Semi-Structured Interview Protocol 1 – End of Semester 1

- *Before we start, would you mind telling me quickly what each of the courses are that you're taking this term? I already know that you're taking Ed 392, 402, and 307. What else? (If they don't know the exact course number, make sure to get instructor name and some sort of course title.)*

- *Also, can you tell me the school/grade level(s)/subject(s) that you're currently observing in your field placement right now? And what is your technical major/minor right now?*

1. How did you think about literacy before entering this program?
   1. Do you see yourself as a reader?
      a. What kind things do you read? (Ask about text types)
      b. Is there a particular type of reading that you are really good at?
      c. Is there a particular type of reading that you struggle with yourself as a student?
         i. What strategies do you use when you find yourself challenged by a text? (Perhaps ask them to think about a specific text.)
         ii. OR, if they say they don't struggle, ask: Have you ever thought about what makes you a good reader? What are your reading skills?
   2. Do you see yourself as a writer?
      a. What kind things do you write? (ask about multiple forms of representation, particularly slam poetry, online fanfiction, letters to editor, work-related writing, etc.)
      b. Is there a particular type of writing that you are really good at?
      c. Is there a particular type of writing that you struggle with yourself as a student?
         i. What strategies do you use when you find yourself challenged by a text? (Perhaps ask them to think about a specific text.)
         ii. OR, if they say they don't struggle, ask: Have you ever thought about what makes you a good writer? What are your writing skills?

2. Now I want to ask you a twist on these questions: Do you see yourself as a teacher?
   A. What does it mean to you to be a teacher?
   B. What made you decide to become a teacher?

We've been talking about your thoughts about and experiences with literacy apart from your undergraduate course work. Now we'd like to ask you a few questions about how your views of literacy are being shaped by your university courses and teacher education field experiences.

3. *How have the courses you've been taking shaped your notions of literacy?*
   A. *How has the ED 402 class affected your notion of literacy?*
   B. *How has your field experience affected your notion of literacy?*
      a. *Describe the nature of your involvement in your field classroom?*
      b. *How are reading and writing or general literacy practices approached in your field classroom?*
      c. *How does your notion of literacy cohere with your cooperating teacher's notion?*
   C. *How has ED 392 shaped your notions of literacy?*
   D. *How do your LSA courses shape your notions of literacy?*
      a. *How are reading and writing or general literacy practices approached in your other university courses, particularly in the classes for your major requirements?*

4. *Given all these different perspectives, how would you define literacy?*

5. *Before starting the program, had you given a thought to the type of reading and writing you would or should ask your students to do?*

6. *What do you see as your responsibility in developing literacy in your students?*

7. *What literacy skills do students need to have in your content course?*

8. *How can you determine what literacy skills or needs students bring into your content course?*

9. *How can you address students' literacy needs in your teaching?*

10. *How do you think about meeting the needs of students who struggle to read?*
    A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about meeting those needs?*
    B. *How does your field experience help you think about meeting those needs?*

11. *How do you think about teaching students to read like members of the discipline (fill in appropriate one)?*
    A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about that?*
    B. *How does your field experience help you think about that?*

12. *How would you go about <u>choosing</u> appropriate text for your students?*
    A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about choosing text?*
    B. *How does your field experience help you think about choosing text?*

13. *How would you go about <u>using</u> these texts with your students, particularly in a classroom with a mix of reading and writing ability levels?*
   A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about using text?*
   B. *How does your field experience help you think about using text?*

14. *What are some of the literacy routines and strategies that you could use effectively in your content area?*
   A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think these routines/strategies?*
   B. *How does your field experience help you think about these routines/strategies?*

15. *When do you imagine using them?*
   A. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about this?*
   B. *How does your field experience help you think about this?*

16. Based on your experiences this term, what are your expectations for what will happen in the methods class?

17. Based on your experiences this term, what do you hope will happen in the methods class?

18. *Sometimes when one participates in an interview, the questions make you think about things you've never considered before. Is there anything that you didn't get a chance to say about literacy and/or teaching in your area that you just have to say before we conclude?*

19. *So, if you had to summarize your thinking about literacy instruction in your subject area at this moment, what would you say?*

Advancing Literacies Semi-Structured Interview Protocol 2 – End of Semester 2

- *Before we start, would you mind telling me quickly what each of the courses were that you took last term as well as the courses that you are taking this term? (If they don't know the exact course number, make sure to get instructor name and some sort of course title. Include education courses in case they happen to be taking a non-traditional SOE class).*

- *Also, can you tell me the school/grade level(s)/subject(s) that you have had so far for your field placements both last term and this term? And what your technical major/minor is right now?*

1. What made you decide to pursue a major in (major subject)?

2. Of the courses that you have taken since starting college (non-education courses), which of those—you're welcome to mention as many as you think relevant—do you feel

have prepared you well for the types of knowledge, skills, and practices that are necessary for **success** in your discipline?

3. How would you characterize your own content knowledge in your discipline right now?

4. Similar to the question I just asked you, of the courses that you have taken since starting college (non-education courses), which of those—you're welcome to mention as many as you think relevant—do you feel have prepared you well for the types of knowledge, skills, and practices that are necessary for **teaching** in your discipline?
   a. What is it about those courses that makes you feel that way?

5. Last term, you talked a little bit about what your expectations for your methods course were. What do you remember about what you expected?
   a. How have those expectations been met, not met, or expanded now that you're well into your second term and more familiar with the nature of that course?

2. How have your methods courses corresponded with your courses from last term, particularly in relation to literacy and instruction in your discipline?

3. *How have the courses you've been taking this term affected your notion of literacy?*
   a. *How has your methods course affected your notion of literacy?*
   b. *How has your field experience affected your notion of literacy?*
      i. *Describe the nature of your involvement in your field classroom?*
      ii. *How are reading and writing or general literacy practices approached in your field classroom?*
      iii. *How does your notion of literacy cohere with your cooperating teacher's notion?*
   c. *How has ED 391 shaped your notion of literacy?*
   d. *How do your current non-education courses affect your notion of literacy?*
      i. *How are reading and writing or general literacy practices approached in your other university courses this term, particularly in the classes for your major requirements?*

4. *Given all these different perspectives, how would you define literacy?*

5. *What do you currently see as your responsibility in developing literacy in your students? (wait for response) How are you currently thinking about diversity in relation to your students' literacy development? (wait for response) How are you currently defining the term "diversity"?*

6. *What literacy skills do students need to have in your content course?*

7. *How can you determine what literacy skills or needs students bring into your content course and how could you go about addressing those needs in your teaching?*

8. *How do you think about meeting the needs of students who struggle to read and write?*
   a. *How have your teacher education courses (both this term and last term) helped you think about meeting those needs?*
   b. *How have your field experiences (both this term and last term) helped you think about meeting those needs?*

9. *How do you think about teaching students to read and write like members of the discipline (fill in appropriate discipline here)?*
   a. *How have your teacher education courses (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*
   b. *How have your field experiences (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*

10. *How would you go about <u>choosing and using</u> appropriate text for your students, particularly in a classroom with a mix of reading and writing ability levels?*
    a. *How have your teacher education courses (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*
    b. *How have your field experiences (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*

11. In thinking about text and the teaching profession, what kinds of texts do <u>teachers</u> need to be able to read and write?

12. *What are some of the literacy routines and strategies that you could use effectively in your content area and how do you imagine using them in your teaching?*
    a. *How have your teacher education courses (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*
    b. *How have your field experiences (both this term and last term) helped you think about that?*

13. As you encounter different ideas, instructional practices, teaching approaches, readings, etc. in your education courses and field work, how do you decide how valuable that information is and whether or not you will incorporate it into your own teaching?

14. Now thinking about your own literacy, have you noticed anything about your own personal literacy practices that you hadn't considered or noticed prior to starting the TE program? Are you approaching reading or writing differently?

15. Literacy Portfolio/Record: So can you walk me through the different things that you do on a daily or weekly, or even monthly basis, in terms of how you spend your time? So things like work, school, social activities, family activities, volunteer work, personal hobbies, religious or political groups for example, or sports or card or game playing, clubs that you're a part of? We just want to get an idea of how you spend

your time in general. (allow for response) Do you consider any of those things to be personal literacy practices?

16. *To wrap up, is there anything that you didn't get a chance to say about literacy and/or teaching in your area that you would like to say before we conclude?*

17. *And finally, if you had to summarize your thinking about literacy instruction in your subject area at this moment, what would you say?*

Advancing Literacies Semi-Structured Interview Protocol 3 – End of Semester 3

*Any reference to "your teacher education courses" should be understood to include courses they took during their first two semesters <u>as well as</u> the student teaching seminars and professional development workshops that they are attending during the current semester.

**XXX notation in questions requires interviewer to refer to the interviewee's discipline.

At beginning of interview, ask student for the specifics surrounding their student teaching placement: Placement School, list of specific courses/grade levels that they teach/participate in throughout the day, additional activities they've participated in at school (i.e. attending shows/games, department meetings, etc.)

1. Tell me about student teaching.
    a. How's it going? What are you teaching? How often are you teaching? What are the school and the community like?
    b. What kind of interaction have you had with the other teachers and staff at the school? How about your interaction with you CT? How's that relationship going?
    c. What challenges have you faced so far? How did you handle them?
    d. What are your students like?
        i. What ages do you have in your class?
        ii. What are the racial/ethnic/gender/class distributions in your classes?
        iii. What's the range of abilities?
            1. Do you have any sense of what's contributing to differences among students?
            2. How do you deal with that range of abilities?
            3. What do you do to respond to individual students' abilities?
            4. What resources do you have to help you?
    e. Are there things that you'd like to do in your student teaching that you don't feel like you're able to do? (Prompt for examples)

2. *Tell me about your students' literacy skills.*

3. *How do you assess their skills?*

4. *What have you been doing to support the range of literacy skill levels in your classroom?*

5. *Tell me about some literacy practices you use in your classroom. Which of these would you identify as XXX literacy practices? Give some examples of how you've taught students to read like members of the discipline.*

6. Describe the most successful lesson you have taught this semester. Why successful? Is there anything you would have done differently?
     a. What do you think the students learned? How do you know?
     b. Which of the activities in that lesson were intended to help develop students' XXX literacy skills and strategies?
     c. Where did you learn these practices/activities?

7. Describe the least successful lesson you have taught this semester. Why unsuccessful? What could you have done differently?
     a. What do you think the students learned? How do you know?
     b. Which of the activities in that lesson were intended to help to develop students' XXX literacy skills and strategies?
     c. Where did you learn these practices/activities?

8. *So, how are you defining literacy?*

9. *What do you currently see as your responsibility in developing your students' literacy?*
     a. *(If they do not respond as a responsibility issue, ask them: So, I heard you say this, but what I actually asked about was what you think YOUR responsibility is in making that happen?)*

10. *How do you think about meeting the needs of students who struggle to read and write?*
     a. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about meeting those needs?*
     b. *How does your field experience help you think about meeting those needs?*

11. *How you would define XXX literacy?*
     a. *How has that definition been shaped by your experiences in student teaching?*
     b. *How has that definition been shaped by your experiences in your teacher education courses?*
     c. *How has that definition shaped by your experiences in your non-SOE courses?*

12. In what ways do you model literate practices (be prepared to clarify "literate practices") in your subject area/discipline for your students?

13. *Give some examples of texts you've chosen to use with your students. Given those examples, can you talk a bit about how you're defining text? How do you make your text selections? What other resources do you use for teaching? (Probe responses.)*

14. *How would you go about <u>using</u> these texts (and other resources) with your students, particularly in a classroom with a mix of reading and writing ability levels?*
    a. *How do your teacher education courses help you think about using text?*
    b. *How does your field experience help you think about using text?*

15. What kinds of reading and writing do you find yourself engaging in most of the time now that you're student teaching? Are there other kinds of texts that you think you, as a teacher, need to be able to read and write as part of your profession? What other activities do you think you will need to engage in as a professional?

16. As you encounter different ideas, instructional practices, resources, teaching approaches, etc. in your teacher ed program and your field work, how do you decide how valuable that information is and whether or not you will incorporate it into your own teaching? Can you give me some specific examples of ideas, resources or approaches that you've decided to use or not to use during student teaching and why you made that decision?

17. *So, if you had to summarize your thinking about literacy instruction in your subject area at this moment, what would you say?*
    a. *What do you feel you know about literacy instruction in your discipline?*
    b. *What do you think you need to know more about (in terms of literacy instruction)?*

18. Do you plan on teaching next year and if so, where are you looking for jobs? What kind of job are you looking for? (middle school vs. high school; additional subjects or jobs beyond certification major such as coaching or teaching a minor course)

19. *Is there anything that you didn't get a chance to say about literacy and/or teaching in your area that you just have to say before we conclude?*

Appendix F: Excerpt from Participant Case Report

<u>Interview 1 and Assessment 2 – Kathy Case Report</u> (5.18.10)

Conceptions of disciplinary literacy:
- Conceptions of literacy
    - o Didn't think much about it prior to TE program
    - o now cognizant of own literacy practices (ex: text messaging, 180); wider range than just reading and writing
    - o Struggles to define literacy when asked explicitly to do so. Tentative definition: "I want to say 'reading and writing' but I want to say an act of acquiring or observing knowledge" (246). Ends explanation with "I guess" (253).
        - ▪ Gives example of "reading" the Mona Lisa
- Conceptions of disciplinary literacy
    - o Some awareness that reading differs by content area (unprompted response)
        - ▪ in poli sci: "old" texts such as Locke and Machiavelli and newspapers
    - o Some awareness that writing differs by content area (unprompted response)
        - ▪ in reference to psych papers: "It's just a different type of organization than I'm used to" (128)
        - ▪ for history: "you make a claim and you defend it" (129)
    - o Need to use literacy strategies on daily basis in history due to heavy use of text
    - o "literacy instruction in ss . . . it's *really* important. It's vital" (539)
        - ▪ Field has reinforced this idea by its absence
    - o Mentions reading heuristics she now uses herself: who is the author, time period, what are we doing in the class?" (86)
    - o In history papers – you make a claim and defend it
    - o Reading and interpreting things are important to ss
    - o "You're almost always going to have to do some type of reading before you can tackle an activity or an assignment or something that's related to history, because it's all related to texts. So, now I see it as something that's really important in a history classroom that needs to be practiced all the time" (499) – with regards to when she'd use lit strategies

Instructional Approaches:
- General teaching principles
    - o Need to find material students can relate to so that you can engage them
    - o Supporting students as they read; provides several examples of how to do this
    - o Work w/key words and write important info on board
    - o Need to use different reading strategies to get all students involved

- Teaching and disc lit language:
  - Mentions throughout:
    - Disc lit language: primary sources
    - Instructional practices:
  - Mentions once or twice:
    - Disc lit language: interpret, cause and effect, relate things to others you've read
    - Instructional practices: jigsaw
- Disciplinary literacy instructional practices
  - "You're almost always going to have to do some type of reading before you can tackle an activity or an assignment or something that's related to history, because it's all related to texts. So, now I see it as something that's really important in a history classroom that needs to be practiced all the time" (499) – with regards to when she'd use lit strategies
  - With regards to responsibility for literacy, vague practices:
    - Challenging and encouraging students
    - Adapt to students' literacy levels
    - Provide after school support
    - Give them things they can handle (283)
  - Assessing student literacy, vague practices:
    - Practices
      - "read a chunk of something and then write about it" (291)
      - Observing the students as they read/write
      - Give an initial evaluation at beginning of year (does not elaborate on what) to identify student reading skill level (P4)
    - Uses language of "formative and summative assessments"
    - Formative assessments:
      - Discussion
      - Writing about big ideas
      - Use "well thought out critical thinking questions"
      - Wants to avoid asking questions that students can answer directly from book (ex of field influence)
      - Pop quiz
      - Journal responses
    - Summative assessment:
      - Will use a chapter test w/multiple choice, short answer, and essay questions (influence of field as this is all she saw) (P4)
    - Student work assessment: (SW)
      - Begins each w/positive comment to student
      - Focus in on writing structure, lack of thesis, not on content
      - Would want to know about:
        - Assignment requirements
        - What covered in class
        - Students' ability with writing

- o See other students' essays
- o What students need to be able to do:
  - Read and understand
  - Interpret primary sources
- o Practices she'd use – vague when asked at first; expands on these throughout interview
  - Initial response:
    - "Practice, practice, practice"
    - Take it slow
    - Individual attention – the "biggest thing" (315)
    - Start w/small texts and assignments without much writing
    - Need to use literacy strategies on daily basis in history due to heavy use of text
  - Supporting students w/reading tasks (PI3)
    - Support she'd give depends on students' reading level
    - Read aloud, particularly challenging texts
    - Discuss main points/concepts
    - One-on-one help
      - o Though important not to correct students a lot, be patient and let them sound out the words
    - Use different techniques for key words:
      - o Wrote words on board and discuss prior to reading
      - o Relate words to students' lives
      - o Use charts to categorize
      - o LGL?
    - Previewing activities – uses this language throughout, and gives some examples: KWL, class discussion, writing key words on board and explaining, ask questions related to text prior to reading, provide key questions prior to reading
  - Supporting students w/writing (PI3,4)
    - Show examples of good and poor writing and have students critique and provides description as to how she'd use it and why – mentions this in two separate parts of assessment
    - Self and peer editing w/some rationale as to why important
    - Give students individual help after school
    - Want students to write "well planned out 5 paragraph essays or short answers"; no explanation as to why the difference
    - Want students to develop an argument and use evidence (different from her assessment 1 response)
    - Provide individual or whole class support as needed
- o Teaching students to read like historians:
  - Be explicit, explain why and what: "I'm teaching you to read like a historian. It's different than reading this book that you read for fun" (368)

- Use primary sources, considers these best ways to learn to read like an historian
- Admits that she doesn't really know as just mentioned it in class
  o Texts:
    - Choosing texts - vague
      - Conception of text: not addressed directly here
      - Adolescent literature – might not be as useful in SS but have some available in room.
      - Textbook:
        o Need to evaluate textbook (but vague; ideas should flow and a "good read")
        o Start w/textbook; a resource
      - Look on internet or ask other teachers
      - To determine which texts to use, need to "see if they meet [your] goals" (393)
    - How to use texts:
      - Introduce what they're reading
      - KWL
      - Prediction based on title
      - Read as a class; stop and summarize as you go
      - Draw timeline on board
      - Jigsaw – teaching partner used this; good strategy because cannot take books home to read; "saves time"
      - Review key words – vague about this; write them on board
    - Evaluating texts:
      - Accurately identifies strengths/weaknesses in texts
      - Accurately identifies some challenges students will face: sentence length, wordiness, uncommon vocab (A2); lots of numbers, assumes students have read previous section, know something about industrialization (A4)
  o Practices for struggling readers:
    - Individual attention
    - Talk to parents; "not effective depending on the type of parents the student has" (334) – [may be the only PST to mention parents in this way]
    - Get students engaged, by finding texts they can relate to [she may be only one who addresses engagement at this point]
    - Spend more time on a concept/skill
    - Find new way to teach it
    - Ask other teachers for ideas
    - Research to find a better way
- Making instructional decisions/planning:
  o Identifies very general objectives (lack content) (P4)
  o Want to know about textbook and if enough to take home as this impacts what she can do in class

Appendix G: Excerpt from Semester Case Report

Semester 1 Case Report - Conceptions of Disciplinary Literacy and Reading

The majority of PSTs are developing an awareness of what disciplinary reading means in history. PSTs' conceptions of the discipline and their skill in using disciplinary reading practices themselves seem to influence their conception of disciplinary reading.

<u>Use some disciplinary literacy language</u>
- Primary sources/documents (K,Ja, My, Jo, C, R (Though some of the things he discusses are not actually primary sources)
- Interpret/interpretation (K,Ja)
- Cause/effect (K)
- "larger perspective" (Ma) – referencing more of a global perspective
- Argument (My, Jo, C)
- Narrative (My)
- Thesis (C)

<u>Beginning awareness of the relationship between literacy and history (K, My, R)</u>
- in history: "you make a claim and you defend it" (129). Mentions reading heuristics she now uses herself: who is the author, time period, "what are we doing in the class?" (86) (K)
- Discusses this in terms of teaching a primary source lesson to his students, but certainly applies to history: "to be able to look at someone's writing and being able to understand their assumptions and their main arguments in their points of view" (229) (My)
- What students need to be able to do: "read and write because the social sciences are mainly based upon those two forms of representation. If you can't read the material, you can't really understand the content. And if you can't write about it, then you can't give your own opinions on it" (254) (R)
- Due to amount of research in social sciences, students need computer literacy skills (may be only PST to mention this) (R)
- "ss is a field dominated by reading and writing" (A2)

<u>General awareness of the relationship between literacy and history (Ma, Jo)</u>
- "I would say it's very important for the kids to be able to read different types of people's perceptions about history and understand how it's not necessarily cut and dry. And how they can have a say so in it, as well. Like what they think might matter, as well. And different types of writing can influence their perceptions about whatever we're learning about at that time . . . using different types of literacy to open up kids' perception of history" (642) (Ma)
- Bring in multiple sources so "that way they can think of something like an historical event, not just in terms of how the textbook shows it but how different people can perceive it" (517) (Ma)
- Mentions importance of putting a text in its historical context (A1 & A4) (Ma)

- Discusses how an author's audience impacts how he/she writes (A2, SW) (Ma)
- Mentions focusing on historical importance in student writing (SW) (Ma)
- Important to include visuals, arts, music as part of the history (CT rarely includes these things) ; in assessment, mentions multiple forms of text: "I would first like to see the material that the school has to offer regarding the subject, be it textbooks, tradebooks or novels, films (documentary or otherwise)" (Jo)
- Primary documents (includes here: speeches, essays, political speeches) use dense language "seemingly poetic like, the author is sort of overloaded with a lot of fluffy language . . . tying to parse out the substance is difficult" (563) * good passage to use in dissertation (Jo)
- "with history it's more difficult because there's the idea of understanding facts and dates and times, which I don't know it it's necessarily the same thing as being able to tackle a reading a passage and understand it" (599) (Jo) (one of only PSTs to make this distinction)
- Students need to be able to read, actively engage in textual material, comprehend lecture materials, see how everything connects (1st PST to discuss lecture so often) (G)

More sophisticated awareness of the relationship between literacy and history (Ja, C?)
- Connects being able to find bias in a primary source w/being able to analyze political leaders [(Ja), only one to do this so far]
- References it when talking about his own reading in college: "where is this person coming from? What else are they leaving out? What might their biases be?" (128) (Ja)
- Discusses recognizing bias and perspective (Ja)
- Discusses his own improved ability, as a result of history courses, to "ask more questions of a text" (126) (Ja)
- Description of textbook: "mostly a reference text, not any actual explanation" (175); does not allow students to reinterpret history for themselves and it has a "simplistic, uncritical stance" (A3&4) (Ja)
- Mentions importance of constructing an argument throughout response (P4) (Ja)
- Mentions importance of understanding the historical context and that he'd build students' background knowledge prior to reading (A2) (Ja)
- Mentions interpretation in several places in assessment and interview (Ja)
- First unit would be about the methods and reasons which historians use and would emphasize this unit's purpose throughout the year (Ja)
- w/regards to reading like members of the discipline: "being able to relate certain texts to other texts, or relate them to other events in history, or knowledge about people or places or events." (C)
- Reading critically, because "as a historian you have to know things about the author, things about the time period, things about the event or series of events that a piece of text may be referring to" (C)
- "the most important thing that comes to mind in terms of literacy instruction in history is learning ways to read a text that really delve into the deeper points of a text. I think that the most important part of reading history and writing history is being critical. Because, again, there are so many facets to history and history can

be told in so many different ways, it's really important for students to be critical of different views of history. That's how they make their own opinion, that's how they have theoretical arguments that really bring out certain aspects of history. I think that you can't read, you can't take history as a given. I think that you have to be critical and thoughtful when you're reading history" (678) * good quotation to use. (C)
- Recognizes some challenges students may face w/Primary sources: (C)
    o more difficult to understand for students (C)
    o Difficult to "situate themselves when reading this kind of piece, because students, especially females, are not used to the Victorian ideal of womanhood" (C, A2) (one of only PSTs to discuss student challenges in this way) (C)
- Teaching disc reading: "what does this title say to you? Or what audience do you think this author was speaking to?...and then English goes hand in hand with that" (but not clear what she means here (852) (B)
- "Who write it, what that person was, what their motivation is in writing that, who their addressing in that document, who was supposed to read it, the time that it came from, what caused them to write it" (746) (Z)
- Reading just to read/for ideas, and reading as someone from the discipline might read:
    o Fun to read literature as a story, but when think about the time period and context, "it becomes different when you read it with that in mind, when you're looking for certain things…It's not just a story right here but there's more to it and you can read it in different ways. And the same with primary documents in history…it's very interesting just to read on it's own, reading it for the ideas. But then you think about who's writing it, who their writing it for." Changes what you learn and how you use the text (391+) (Z)
    o Depends on your purpose for reading, what you're going to be looking for and what you get out of it (only PST to make this distinction) (Z)

Some discussion of how literacy differs by content area – only SS people mention this.
- Some awareness that reading differs by content area (unprompted response). Example: in poli sci "old" texts such as Locke and Machiavelli and newspapers are important. (K)
- Some awareness that writing differs by content area (unprompted response). Example: in reference to psych papers: "It's just a different type of organization than I'm used to" (128). (K)
- Polt science and geography "geared toward looking at things in a more scientific manner than history is. Actually, it's entirely different" (273*). This impacts the type of reading: "here are my methods, here's my hypothesis, here's findings. Other than history where it's just this is a kind of what we think happened. So it's a different type of reading. It's a lot more academic I would say" (274*). (Ma)
- Later adds that novels and poetry as important to history. (Ma)
- Important for students to learn to write differently in different content areas. Mentions the ss disciplines and need to write differently in and for each. (Me)

- o This should not be a guessing game. Be explicit and tell students what each requires/is like (Me)
- "you can't just read like you're always a member of the social studies community…I think you have to be able to read from angle that you need to..there's certain ways you need to read that scientific journal to reading a primary document to reading a newspaper or watching the news" (720+) (H – History major/English minor)

<u>View literacy practices as important in history/ss (is this a better fit w/disciplinary literacy practices?)</u>
- Need to use literacy strategies on daily basis in history due to heavy use of text: "You're almost always going to have to do some type of reading before you can tackle an activity or an assignment or something that's related to history, because it's all related to texts. So, now I see it as something that's really important in a history classroom that needs to be practiced all the time" (499). (K)
- "Literacy instruction in ss . . . it's *really* important. It's vital" (539). Field has reinforced this idea by its absence.   (K)
- History is very text intensive, so need to use disc lit practices on a daily basis (454) (Ja)
- Somewhat connected: "… very important to teach students how to read and interpret different texts. How to write about them and how to think critically about them. It's also important to show them how these texts relate to different aspects of their own lives" (566) (My)
- Important to teach students to make a concrete argument about something and then have evidence to support it. This can carry over to when they're actually reading something later; idea of developing a skill to use in future (one of few PSTs to mention this) (Jo)
- Reading critically, because "as a historian you have to know things about the author, things about the time period, things about the event or series of events that a piece of text may be referring to" (C)
- Recognizes some of the difficulties in reading in history and political science (C)
  - o Reading Rousseau (C)
  - o Primary sources in African history with chiefs using broken English (C)

The content area literacy course seems to influence the PSTs' conception of disciplinary literacy and its related practices, regardless of the PSTs' ideas about literacy upon entering the TE program and the instructional practices they observed in the field.

<u>General awareness of literacy:</u>
- raised her awareness of literacy, "really opened my eyes" (176). Now cognizant of own literacy practices (ex: text messaging, 180) (K)
- Notices literacy more and aware of it (K)
- before TE, "ignorant with literacy practices and formal strategies, things you do that I already employed during my reading that I wasn't aware was actually techniques that you used to help teach students" (356) (R)

Appendix H: Excerpt from Cross-Semester Analysis

Conceptions of Disciplinary Reading

	Semester One	Semester Two	Semester Three	Across Semesters
Overall	The majority of PSTs are developing an awareness of what disciplinary reading means in history. *Note: Seems important to look at individuals here so I can see how they change over time.*	At the conclusion of their second semester in the teacher education program, PSTs' understanding of disciplinary reading was more developed and nuanced than after their first semester. Their level of understanding is apparent in: 1) their discussion about the relationship between literacy and history; 2) their explanations about how literacy matters in history; 3) their descriptions of the literacy skills students need in history; and, 4) their use of disciplinary literacy language.	Overall, the PSTs had a greater understanding of disciplinary reading in history now than they did at the beginning of their teacher education program. However, there continues to be some variability across PSTs in terms of the sophistication/ complexity/ depth/ of these conceptions.	Overall, the PSTs had a greater understanding of disciplinary reading in history at the end of their teacher education program than they did at the beginning. However, there continues to be some variability across PSTs in terms of the sophistication/ complexity/ depth of these conceptions. Of the multiple influences on PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading, the following appear to be the most influential: 1) the PSTs' understandings of history; and, 2) the PSTs' own experiences in using discipline specific reading practices.
Relationship between history and literacy	.	Compared to their comments at the end of their first semester in the teacher education program, the majority of PSTs now discuss at greater length and with more detail the relationship between literacy and history.	While all PSTs acknowledge the important link between history/ss and literacy, some PSTs now connect the two so closely that they either struggle to separate literacy from history (K), or they commit themselves more fully to literacy than to the content (J).	PSTs' conceptions of literacy and history become more integrated and more difficult for some PSTs to separate over time.

Literacy skills students need	When asked to describe the literacy skills students need to be successful in the discipline, the majority of PSTs describe basic skills, though the PSTs' conceptions of disciplinary reading suggest that there is much more involved in being literate in history.	In contrast to the PSTs' comments at the end of their first semester, there is greater alignment now between their conceptions of disciplinary reading and their discussion of the literacy skills students need in the discipline.	*Not much discussion of this; no explicit question in interview as in previous semesters.*	
Disciplinary literacy language	In terms of disciplinary literacy language, the most common phrase was "primary sources/ documents."	Most PSTs use disciplinary literacy language more often than in their first semester in the teacher education program, though with varying degrees of sophistication.	Compared to the previous semester, the majority of PSTs used less disciplinary literacy language in their talk this semester. It is unclear why this is the case, but it may be due to the PSTs' focus in this interview on their teaching practices. (Revisit this).	
How literacy differs by content area	The only PSTs who mention literacy differing by content area are social studies majors.	Compared to their comments at the end of the first semester, few PSTs mentioned how literacy differs by content area. It is not clear why this is the case, as there were actually more explicit prompts in the second interview than in the first related to the PSTs' disciplinary majors and minors, which I expected would spur more discussion of disciplinary literacy in different disciplines.	*Not much discussion*	

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