SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF HISTORY AND PEDAGOGICAL ORIENTATIONS TOWARD TEACHING HISTORY

by

KAYA YILMAZ

(Under the Direction of Ronald Butchart)

ABSTRACT

This research study investigated social studies teachers' conceptions history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history by drawing on the methods and procedures of the qualitative research tradition. In-depth, semi-structured interviews of 60 to 150 minutes in length were conducted individually with twelve in-service teachers, six male and six female. The participants' responses were analyzed through the techniques and strategies of inductive qualitative data analysis.

Analysis of the teachers' responses revealed that the majority of the participants' conceptions of history were characterized by a common-sense understanding of history, i.e., a study of the past events, cultures, and people chronologically. More than half of the teachers looked at the outcome of the process of historical knowledge construction without taking its process into consideration or mentioning the forces that shape historical writing. For instance, they did not recognize the role of subjectivity in historical explanations such as the historian's frame of reference, gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, academic training, etc. As a result, instead of seeing the whole relationship or the interplay among the past, the recorded past, and the historian, they saw a part of the relationship among different aspects of history. For this reason,

most participants' conceptions of history were fragmented, partial, and incomplete. A realist view of the world and a naïve epistemological view of history seemed to characterize the conceptions of most participants who viewed history as objective knowledge. Most participants also did not see the relevancy of intellectual and conceptual foundations of history to their profession and professional development.

On the other hand, teachers had sophisticated pedagogical orientations toward teaching history. Teachers' repertoires of instructional strategies and assessment techniques were rich. Their goals were influenced and shaped greatly by the concept of citizenship. The citizenship goals ranged from the goal of passing cultural heritage on to students to the goal of encouraging students to critically examine that cultural heritage. Teachers' conceptions of teaching drew on the elements of different theoretical models of teaching and learning.

INDEX WORDS: Conception of history, Nature of history, Historical imagination, Empathy, Disciplinary history, Historiography, History education, History teachers, Pedagogical orientations, Conception of teaching, Teaching approaches, Instructional practices

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CHAPTER 1

INRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH TOPIC AND QUESTIONS

The aim of this doctoral study was to understand and describe social studies teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history in secondary schools. Research questions that the study sought to answer are as follows (see Appendix A):

- ***What conceptions of history do social studies teachers hold?***

  - ✓ How do teachers define history?
  - ✓ What beliefs do teachers have about the nature and structure of history as an academic discipline or a domain of knowledge? (or how do teachers view the nature of historical knowledge and explanations?)
  - ✓ Do teachers view history as an art or a science?
  - ✓ What are teachers' perspectives on the place of imagination or empathy in historical explanations?
  - ✓ What are teachers' perspectives on the place of theory in historical explanations?
  - ✓ What differences do teachers see between disciplinary history and school history?
  - ✓ What differences do teachers see between academic history books and school history textbooks?
  - ✓ What differences do teachers see between academic historians and school history teachers?
  - ✓ Toward what ends do teachers think they are teaching?

- ***Which pedagogical orientation(s) characterizes social studies teachers' approaches to teaching history?***

  - ✓ How do teachers define teaching and learning?
  - ✓ What characteristics do teachers think an effective history teacher possesses?
  - ✓ What is the image of an excellent student in teachers' mind?
  - ✓ What teaching methods do teachers use to teach history?
  - ✓ What are teachers' perspectives on the role of a history teacher in students' learning?
  - ✓ What kind of relationship do teachers think should exit between a history teacher and students?
  - ✓ What kind of learning environment do teachers think best fosters students' engagement with history?
  - ✓ What assessment techniques do teachers employ to evaluate students' learning in history?
  - ✓ What factors contribute to (or affect) the development of a history teacher's teaching style?

Background to the Study

With the advent of the cognitive revolution in education in the late 1960s, the research emphasis has shifted from observable behaviors to non-observable mental activities or the act of meaning-making. Research studies identified with the cognitive approach began to investigate what is called cognitive architecture or schemata that shape individuals' frames of reference, thoughts, and meaning-making process. As a result, more research attention in the area of teacher education is directed to investigating those topics related to teacher thought patterns, orientations, beliefs, perspectives, conceptions, and values that teachers hold. That is, the importance of teacher knowledge and accompanying attitudes, values, and beliefs that teachers bring to the classroom have come to the fore in the last two decades due mostly to the cognitive revolution (Editorial, 2001).

The Knowledge Growth in a Profession Project led by Lee S. Shulman (1986a/b, 1987), who brought to attention the "missing paradigm" or what is called subject-specific pedagogical knowledge, has been quite influential in giving rise to a series of research studies on the teacher knowledge that includes teachers' beliefs, perspectives, and conceptions. This research study is situated within this line of research on teachers' beliefs and pedagogical content knowledge in that it looks at the ways teachers conceptualize the school subject of history and examines their pedagogical orientations toward teaching history[1].

[1] By Pedagogical content knowledge, Shulman and his team mean content knowledge, substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and beliefs about the subject matter. Pedagogical content knowledge emerges out of the interplay between two domains of knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge, by means of

The Definitions and Characteristics of Beliefs and Conceptions

Researchers characterize beliefs as essentially subjective, affective, and socio-culturally determined through a process of enculturation and social construction (Nespor, 1987; Pajares 1992; Rokeach, 1968). Beliefs are usually not verbalized but manifested implicitly in people's actions and behaviors (Editorial, 2001). They "cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do" (Pajares, 1992). Beliefs have both cognitive and affective functions. As such, they may be descriptive, evaluative or prescriptive. Beliefs are not static but dynamic in nature, so they continue to be changed, modified, revised, and restructured as individuals acquire new experiences through their interactions with social and natural worlds (Rumelhart, 1980; Vosniadou & Brewer, 1987).

A Belief system is defined as "having represented within it, in some organized psychological but not necessarily logical form, each and every one of a person's countless beliefs about physical and social reality" (Rokeach, 1968, p.2). Since belief systems are idiosyncratic and do not require group consensus or internal consistency, a person's belief system might include beliefs that are inconsistent or conflicting with each other (Nespor, 1987). Changes in beliefs or belief systems occur by means of Gestalt shift rather than through reasoning or convincing arguments (Nespor, 1987) and cognitive disequilibrium paves the way for a person to change his or her beliefs (Posner, Strike, Hewson, & Gertzog, 1982).

As mental constructs imbued with meaning, beliefs are considered to play a fundamental role not only in structuring the individual's frame of reference, theory of action, and purposes of behaviors, but also in shaping the ways he or she constructs an interpretation of others' intentions and actions in a given social and environmental context (Ekeblad & Bond, 1994; Pratt, 1992;

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which teachers construct domain-specific instructions and strategies in order to make the subject matter knowledge accessible and comprehensible to students.

Ross, 1987; Tobin, 1990; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987). Lastly, a pedagogical belief can be described as "a knowledge and understanding of the nature of a discipline, its skills, processes and related syntactic concepts" (Editorial, 2001).

In a synthesis of research on teachers' beliefs and conceptions, Thompson (1992) distinguished among knowledge, beliefs, belief systems, and belief clusters. Arguing that conceptions are more overarching than beliefs in terms of their scopes, he defined conceptions "as a more general mental structure, encompassing beliefs, meanings, concepts, propositions, rules, mental images, preferences, and the like" (p.130). According to Pratt (1992), conceptions stand for different categories of ideas that inform the descriptions of how a given phenomenon or event is experienced by people from different walks of life. Since conceptions are socially and culturally shared cognitive configurations or phenomena, they are not uniform but multi-dimensional (van den Berg, 2002).

Significance of the Study

The conceptions that teachers have about their subject matter affects their curricular and pedagogical judgments and decisions. A number of conceptual and empirical studies indicate that teachers' conceptions are instrumental in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (Bandura, 1986; Brophy & Good; 1974; Calderhead, 1996; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Clark & Yinger, 1987; Cornett, 1990; Elbaz, 1983; Hancock & Gallard, 2004; Harnett, 2000; Hollingsworth,1989; Johnston, 1990; Marton, 1981; McDiarmid, Ball, & Anderson, 1989; Onosko, 1989; Pajares, 1992; Peterson, Fennema, Carpenter, & Loef, 1989; Thompson, 1992; Thornton,1992). Therefore, not only teachers' classroom teaching but also student learning is influenced by teacher conceptions and thought processes to a significant extent. Teachers' conceptions of and approaches to teaching affect students' approaches to

learning and the quality of student learning (Lember & Gow, 1994; Trigwell, Prosser, & Lyons, 1999).

Through a review of research on teachers' beliefs and practices, Fang (1996) showed that many research findings support the notion that teachers maintain implicit beliefs and theories about different aspects of curriculum and instruction, and these theoretical beliefs shape the nature of their instructional practices and classroom interactions. This review also demonstrated that even though there is an accumulated body of research on teachers' knowledge or theoretical beliefs, this new line of study is still in its infancy as proclaimed by Bean and Zulich (in Fang, 1996). They argued that one of the areas of research that still remains little explored is that of teacher beliefs about particular components of a subject area.

Drawing attention to the importance of teachers' mental constructs in social studies education, Thornton (1991) argued that the failure of the *New Social Studies* movement (aimed at promoting inquiry and discovery teaching and learning) stemmed not from the materials or curriculum guides developed by outside authorities, but from the teacher who determines the operational or implemented curriculum to a good extent. That is, teachers' beliefs, views, perspectives, and interpretations of the official curriculum and instructional guides play a central role in transforming the official curriculum into the implemented curriculum. Teachers modify and reshape the idealistic goals for instruction to fit and correspond to their philosophies and beliefs (McNeil, 1988).

Therefore, the above explanations about the roles that teachers' conceptions play in their curricular and instructional decision-making clearly demonstrate the reasons why educators should investigate teachers' mental constructs. All of these research studies indicate that in order to understand the way teachers teach, we must come to grips with the structural components of

teachers' thoughts (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). It is suggested that systematic inquiries about teachers' beliefs and views be conducted in order to understand different aspects of curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Stanley, 1991). Likewise, Armour-Thomas (1989) and Borko et al. (1997) argued that investigations of teacher conceptions and the relationships among those concepts is needed not only for effective teaching and learning but also for obtaining information that may revolutionize the ways the teaching process is traditionally conceived.

Educators in science and math education departments have taken the insight gained from cognitive psychology to heart and conducted numerous studies on teacher conceptions of their subject areas by examining teachers' mental constructs in relation to a wide range of factors affecting their conceptions. That is, the importance of teachers' understanding of the nature of a given discipline in the teaching and learning process has been recognized in science education. This recognition manifests itself in the efforts to help science teachers and students develop a sophisticated understanding of the nature of science which is deemed to be a major goal in science education and a central component of scientific literacy by science education organizations and science educators who stress the role that a nuanced understanding of the nature of science plays in fostering higher levels of scientific literacy (AAAS, 1993; Bell, Lederman, & Abd-El-Khalick, 2000; Bybee, 1997; NRC, 1996). Unfortunately, that is not the case in the field of social studies education. The same emphasis on the importance of the nature of subject matter has not been realized in history education yet. But, as the editors of *International Journal of Historical Learning, Teaching and Research* convincingly argued (Editorial, 2001), it is an indispensable task for social studies and history educators to take on:

> Education and training of teachers needs to take fully into account the mental map of the teachers of a subject – what they know and understand about the nature of what they are teaching…. Without a due emphasis upon developing an understanding of the nature of the discipline, and related attitudes towards its teaching, meaningful curricular progress is

> doomed to failure. Teachers will fall back upon their existing knowledge of what the subject involves, a knowledge that is atavistically culturally determined.

The body of literature on social studies teachers' conceptions of history is very small, still in its infancy, and thus in need of growing. Furthermore, what few studies we have on this fundamental topic suffer from some conceptual and methodological weaknesses. (e.g., imposing previous categories on new studies, misusing historical concepts such as scientific historian, not recognizing diversity of perspectives on the nature and function of history, etc.). If one looks at the ways the researchers formulated questions and analyzed the data, one of the major sources of these shortcomings in their studies become visible, the neglect of historiography and its implications for history education. In other words, few researchers have studied the nature of historical research thoroughly enough to ask the sorts of questions that will adequately probe teachers' beliefs and practices. Therefore, we need more studies to have a refined and better understanding of teachers' conceptions of history. A leading scholar in history education, P. Seixas, stated, "I think teachers' conceptions of history is still a very much needed area of study" (personal email-communication, 31 December, 2004).

For the above reasons, this research study investigated social studies teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history. It differs from previous studies on the same or similar research topics in several important respects. First, while most of other research studies examined either teachers' conceptions of teaching or teachers' conceptions of history, this study with two foci illuminated both teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history. The scope of this research study is broader than the other studies on teachers' conceptions of teaching in terms of examining teachers' perspectives on different dimensions of teaching and learning. For instance, many research studies did not look at teachers' views of the relationship between the teacher and students and

their views of the learning environment. However, this research endeavor investigated teachers' perspectives on a variety of factors affecting teaching and learning in secondary schools by looking at their conceptions of teaching from a broader perspective.

Secondly, categories of teacher conceptions and pedagogical orientations were constructed on the basis of teachers' own responses rather than the imposition of a set of pre-established categories on teachers' responses. Since many qualitative researchers place a great emphasis, when evaluating the validity and reliability of qualitative research studies, on the explanations of categories, research findings, and the arguments of the researcher through rich and detailed quotations from participants' own words, this study explained all emerging categories by providing rich quotations from teachers' responses. Furthermore, a great care was taken to avoid shaping or directing the participants' thoughts by means of semi-structured and open-ended questions that allowed the participants to freely express their views on the different aspects of teaching and learning in history.

Thirdly, and most importantly, this research study was carried out under the guidance of disciplinary history, benefiting from historiography's implications for research on history education. Even though some distinguished scholars in history education such as Peter Lee (1983), Peter Seixas (2001), and Sam Wineburg (1996) suggested researchers to examine different aspects of teaching and learning history in secondary schools from a disciplinary history perspective, there are only a handful researchers that heeded these scholars' suggestions (Hartzler-Miller, 2001). For instance, few researchers have studied social studies teachers' views of the nature of historical knowledge. What is neglected in the research on history education is the insights that can be drawn from historiography to bear on the effort to understand and represent teachers' conceptions of history. In other words, one of the major shortcomings in the

research literature on history and social studies education has been the failure to recognize the importance of historiography in designing and implementing rigorous and sophisticated history research. As Lee (1983) argued, historiography holds potential to help history educators not only to arrive at a rational way of teaching history but also to adequately address the fundamental issues in history education.

Having done influential research on history teaching and learning as one of the advocates of the disciplinary-based approach to history education, Wineburg (1991) stressed that people's epistemological beliefs affect their approaches to reading and understanding historical texts. In a review of research on history education, Wineburg (1996) further stated:

> What is being advocated here is a research strategy that can best be termed applied epistemology. Taking it seriously would mean a dramatic reorientation in our discipline, not only in how we design our research but in the very way we socialize our young.... Further, before we can function well in this new role, we will have to attend to issues of epistemology and subject matter…." (p. 434)

Considering the shortcomings of the earlier studies along with the gap in the research literature, the present study sought to broaden an understanding of teachers' conceptions of history, under the guidance of historiography, by adding a new dimension to the topic of the study. Whether history is an art or a science has been vigorously debated among historians since history was recognized as an academic discipline. Still, no researchers have ever elicited teachers' views on this important issue, due most probably to their failure to benefit from historiography. To fill the gap in the research literature on history education, especially on teacher knowledge and cognition, this research study examined and documented teachers' views of whether history is an art or a science along with their views of the characteristic features of historical knowledge. So, the strength and significance of this study lies in its attempt to combine epistemological considerations with historiographical ones. Lastly, because teachers'

conceptions are not static but dynamic in nature and thus subject to change over time, we need to document teachers' conceptions of history periodically to avoid outmoded information that may be misleading. Doing so is likely to enrich our current understanding of history teachers' conceptions of the nature of history.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This research study is undertaken to investigate social studies teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history. The literature provides the context for the study by situating the research topic and questions within the existing literature. This chapter is divided into two sections. Whereas the first part documents the literature on the basic theoretical frameworks along with models of teaching that guide teachers' instructional practices, the second part aims to provide a review of literature on teachers' conceptions of teaching and social studies teachers' conceptions of history.

Part I

Typology of Learning Theories: Behaviorism, Cognitivism, and Constructivism

Learning theories are indispensable for effective and pedagogically meaningful instructional practices. A learning theory provides "clarity, direction and focus throughout the instructional design process," thus an instructional framework should take into account the theoretical bases in which it is grounded if it is to be effective (McLeod, 2003). Likewise, referring to constructivist learning theory, Fosnot (1996) argues, "We again run the risk of short-lived reform unless educators understand the theory behind the practice" (p.X).

There are a plethora of labels used to describe a variety of learning theories. However, the spectrum of learning theories can be categorized into three main areas. This section takes a look at the three major typologies of learning theories -behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism- and their implications for classroom instruction. Since the behaviorist and constructivist schools of thought represent the extreme ends on the continuum, the emphasis will be on these two theories.

Behaviorism

As an influential movement in psychology and in schooling, behaviorism provided the primary theoretical bases of curriculum development and implementation for a long time without being challenged by any vying theories. Its roots are grounded in the scientific studies and writings of such pioneer theorists as Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike, and Skinner in the early twentieth century (Atkins, 1993; Burton, Moore, & Magliano, 1996). It was John. B. Watson who coined the term behaviorism and laid the foundations of the behaviorist view of learning by proclaiming that the only legitimate object of study in human psychology was objectively observable, quantifiable and measurable behaviors. For this reason, Watson is generally considered to be the founding father of behaviorism (Schunk, 2004, p. 41).

Influenced by Pavlov's theory of classical conditioning (i.e., automatic or involuntary responses to neutral stimuli), Watson defined learning as a change in behavior stemming from the response actions of an organism to a stimulus present in environment. The core of his argument was that instead of studying the mind or the "black box" that he thought cannot be accessed scientifically, social scientists should study only overt behaviors because inner states such as motives and mental processes can be neither objectively observed nor quantitatively measured (Blumenfeld, 1984; Fosnot, 1996; Good & Brophy, 1990; Greenwood, 1999). Therefore, the focus of his scientific studies was on the overt behavior and the physical stimuli that elicit the behavior. He purposefully ignored the mental states of the individuals or how the stimulus was being processed.

E. L. Thorndike's behaviorist theory of learning, known as *connectionism*, had been quite influential in applied educational practices in the United States in the twentieth century. This theory views learning as a process of making a connection between stimulus and response. It is

composed of three laws of learning: (1) *law of effect* referring to the assumption that when a connection between stimulus and response is made, the strength of the connection will depend on whether it is followed by a reward or punishment; (2) *law of readiness* stating that organism should be in a state of readiness to make and maintain a connection; (3) *law of exercise* positing that the strength of connection is dependent on the number of times it has been repeated; that is, the more practice the stronger the connection (Gillani, 2003; Kristinsdottir, 2001; Schunk, 2004).

Skinner strengthened the foundation of behaviorism by his theory of operant conditioning. The learning principle behind operant conditioning is that positive reinforcement leads to new learning and repeated actions. (Atherton, 2003; Good & Brophy, 1990; Schunk, 2004). According to this theory, a majority of human behaviors are operant responses which occur at random for no apparent reason (Gilani, 2003). Depending on whether an immediate reward or a punishment is present, voluntary behaviors are either weakened or strengthened and become rooted in human behavior (Evans, 1968; Gillani, 2003). That is, if one's behavior is reinforced in some way, he or she is likely to perform it again. Similarly, if one's responses enable him or her to avoid painful and undesirable situations, she or he is likely to repeat them again. When applied to education, this means that irrespective of the complexity of learning tasks, teaching is just a matter of arranging or sequencing the contingencies of reinforcement under which students learn (Skinner, 1968, 1974). Like Watson, Skinner too didn't pay much attention to inner processes like motivation and consciousness but instead focused on observable cause and effect relationships.

As is clear from the above paragraphs, the major elements in behaviorism are the stimulus (i.e., an event eliciting a behavior), the response (i.e., observable reaction to a stimulus), and the relationship between these two concepts. How the association between the stimulus and response

is made, strengthened, and maintained is what concerns advocates of behaviorist orientation most in studying overt behaviors. They place a particular emphasis on the arrangement of stimuli and consequences within the environment. Behaviorist perspective views learning as a passive process of absorbing knowledge and as a change in either the form or frequency of a behavior. Learning is believed to occur when the learner gives a proper response to a specific environmental stimulus or adapts to the environment by responding correctly to its demands (Burton, Moore, & Magliano, 1996). The learner is assumed to be reactive to conditions in the environment rather than taking on an active role in the learning process.

Psychologists with a behaviorist view focus their studies on "the effects of reinforcement, practice, and external motivation on a network of associations and learned behaviors" (Fosnot, 1996, p.8). Likewise, educators employing a behaviorist framework design a preplanned curriculum by breaking up curriculum materials into component parts to be logically sequenced into a hierarchy of learning tasks ranging from simple to more complex (Atkins, 1993; Fosnot, 1996). Educators' approach to teaching is characterized by the effort to develop a well-structured curriculum and to determine how learners will be motivated, reinforced, assessed, and evaluated (Fosnot, 1996). In other words, the emphasis is placed on prescribing steps and procedural sequences in building curriculum and instruction in the form of rules, categories, principles, and formulas (Atkins, 1993; Gillani, 2003).

From the behaviorist perspective, the goal of instruction is to direct the learner to give a desired or proper response to a stimulus. The teacher is expected to (1) determine which cues elicit the desired responses; (2) arrange practice situations in which prompts are paired with the target stimuli that initially have no eliciting power but which will be expected to elicit the responses in the natural (performance) setting; and (3) arrange environmental conditions so that

students can make the correct responses in the presence of those target stimuli and receive reinforcement for those responses (Ertmer & Newby, 1993). How the learner progresses towards attaining pre-established goals is assessed by measuring objectively observable and quantifiable outcomes; that is, behaviors on pre-determined tasks (Fosnot, 1996). The mastery model embodies this approach in that mastery is conceived of as behavioral competence. It assumes that wholes can be broken into parts and skills into subskills. Much of the prevalent traditional approach to teaching in schools are based on the behaviorist framework (Fosnot, 1996)

According to Merriam and Caffarella (1999), three assumptions characterize behaviorist theorists' conceptions of learning: (1) rather than internal mental processes, overt behavior is deemed to be the object of study. (2) rather than the individual, the environment plays a key role in shaping behavior; (3) the learning process is best explained by the principles of contiguity (simultaneity of stimulus and response in time or space are likely to be associated) and reinforcement. Basic characteristic features of behaviorism look like as follows in instructional practices:

- An emphasis on producing observable and measurable outcomes in students [behavioral objectives, task analysis, criterion-referenced assessment]
- Pre-assessment of students to determine where instruction should begin [learner analysis]
- Emphasis on mastering early steps before progressing to more complex levels of performance [sequencing of instructional presentation, mastery of learning]
- Use of cues, shaping and practice to ensure a strong stimulus-response association [simple to complex sequencing of practice, use of prompts]
- Use of reinforcement to impact performance [tangible rewards, informative feedback] (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

One of the implications of behaviorism for instructional practices is the development of clearly stated, operationally defined, and measurable instructional objectives that state what behavior the learner is to display to demonstrate that he or she has grasped the knowledge or gained skills specified in the instruction (McLeod, 2003). Instructional objectives specify the

stimulus/environment, the performance or the response, and the criterion by means of which the acceptable level of behavior is to be judged. Identifying the objectives, the teacher specifies the most logical sequence of instructional materials to be presented to students (Gillani, 2003).

A number of teaching models such as direct instructional model, instrumental teaching, mastery learning, programmed instruction, and personalized system of instruction are based on the principles of behavioral theories and applied behavioral analysis (Gillani, 2003; Jarvis, Holford, Griffin, 2003, p.29-30). Of numerous behavioral teaching models, John B. Carroll's mastery learning is deemed to be the most suitable model for effective instruction (Gillani, 2003, p.33).

Strength and Limitations of Behaviorism

Behaviorist teaching is based on the objectivist epistemology and positivist tradition, and thus identified with the objectivist model, which is considered by some scholars such as Jonassen (1991) to be inadequate in understanding the nature of knowledge, learning process, and the role between the teacher and students. Criticizing this model, Jonassen (1991) has described the assumptions of an objectivist approach to learning as follows:

> Objectivists believe in the existence of reliable knowledge about the world. As learners, the goal is to gain this knowledge; as educators, to transmit it. Objectivism further assumes that learners gain the same understanding from what is transmitted....Learning therefore consists of assimilating that objective reality. The role of education is to help students learn about the real world. The goal of designers or teachers is to interpret events for them. Learners are told about the world and are expected to replicate its content and structure in their thinking (p. 28).

The strength of behaviorist instructional design rests on its specification of goals to be met by the learner who is expected to accomplish a clear goal whenever there are cues to prompt his or her behavior (McLeod, 2003; Shulman, 1996). K. Peter Kuchinke (in McLeod, 2003) states, "The strength of this framework lies in its ability to find quick responses to well-defined

problems." On the other hand, having and sustaining the proper stimuli to maintain the intended behavior is difficult to realize in a stimulus-response-based instructional approach. Thus, if the teacher cannot provide an appropriate incentive for the learner, the expected and desired performance may not occur. For this reason, instructional practices within behaviorist framework depend, to a significant extent, on the instructor and require "high demands on resources in order to adapt to changes and needs, which can be costly and time-consuming" (McLeod, 2003). The principles of behavioral theories are most successfully applied to the treatment of educational and social problems such as anxiety and aggression (Gillani, 2003). Even though behaviorism does explain behavioral change, it fails to elucidate conceptual change (Fosnot, 1996, p.9).

All in all, the prevailing influence of behaviorist orientation on teaching and learning can be seen in the traditional, teacher-directed or controlled classrooms in which the teacher routinely transmits pre-digested knowledge and students passively receive it (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005). The practice of high-stakes standardized tests aimed at evaluating students' acquisition of disconnected factual information, the use of rewards and punishments in the school system, and the separation of the instructional process into distinct parts are best examples of the effects of behaviorist theory on schooling. Since behaviorist learning theories have dominated American education for the last fifty years, most in-service and pre-service teachers are thought to have attended K-12 schools where objectivist framework guided curriculum and instruction (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).

Cognitivism

The genesis of cognitivism as a learning theory can be traced back to the early twentieth century. The shift from behaviorism to cognitivism stemmed from the behaviorist tradition's failure to explain why and how the individuals make sense of and process information (i.e., how

the mental processes work). In other words, it was the limitations of behaviorism that spawned the cognitive movement. Dissatisfied with the behaviorism's heavy emphasis on observable behavior, many disillusioned psychologists challenged the basic assumptions of behaviorism. They claimed that prior knowledge and mental processes not only play a bigger role than stimuli in orienting behavior or response (Deubel, 2003) but also intervene between a stimulus and response (Winn & Snyder, 1996). They argued that people are neither machines nor animals that respond to environmental stimuli in the same way (Matlin, 1994).

The works of Edward Chase Tolman, Jean Piaget, Lev VyGotsky, Jerome Bruner, and German Gestalt psychologists were instrumental in engendering the dramatic shift from behaviorist to cognitive theories**.** Edward Tolman is usually considered as a pioneer in initiating the cognitive movement (Bruner, 1990, p.2). In the 1920s, Edward Tolman's experiment with rats suggested that rats knew how the maze in which they were put was structured because they had its mental map. Accordingly, Tolman asserted that rather than an automatic response to an event, behavior had both purpose and direction, and occurred without reinforcement. He saw motivation as the key to transmuting expectations into behavior. For these reasons, "Tolman's system was often justly treated as a precursor of contemporary cognitive psychology" (Greenwood, 1999, p.9).

It was the years in the mid-1950s that the impact of cognitive theories in education was so tremendous as to be called the "cognitive revolution." The second half of the twentieth century had witnessed an outburst of theoretical and empirical works on such cognitive processes as memory, attention, concept formation, and information processing within cognitive framework. This new line of research is characterized by a search for new ways to understand what learning is and how it occurs. These cognitive psychologists have investigated the mental structures and

processes to explain learning and change in behavior. Like behaviorists, they have also observed behavior empirically but in order to make inferences about the internal mental processes**.** As opposed to the behaviorist orientation's emphasis on behavior, the cognitive school focuses on meaning and semantics (Winn & Snyder, 1996). Their primary emphasis is placed on how knowledge is acquired, processed, stored, retrieved, and activated by the learner's mind during the different phases of learning process (Anderson & Simon, 1997; Greeno et al., 1996).

The cognitive school views (a) learning as an active process "involving the acquisition or reorganization of the cognitive structures through which humans process and store information" and (b) the learner as an active participant in the process of knowledge acquisition and integration. (Good & Brophy, 1990, p.187; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 254; Simon, 2001, p.210). This theory describes knowledge acquisition as a mental activity involving internal coding and structuring by the learner (Derry, 1996; Spiro et al., 1995) and suggests that learning happens best under conditions that are aligned with human cognitive architecture (Sobel, 2001). Cognitive psychologists place more emphasis on what learners know and how they come to acquire it than what they do. For this reason, the cognitive approach focuses on making knowledge meaningful and helping learners organize and relate new information to prior knowledge in memory. Instruction should be based on a student's existing mental structures or schema to be effective (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

Contributors to the Theory: Major Types of Cognitivism

Cognitivism is not based on the works of a single theorist or a unified group of theorists. Rather, it is informed by a number of theorists' contributions and quite multifaceted. The following theorists and accompanying theories have contributed to the continuous growth of cognitive theories**:** Piaget's *theory of individual cognitive development*, Vygotsky's *theory of*

social cognitive growth (or *zone of proximal development)*, Festinger's *cognitive dissonance theory*, Spiro's *cognitive flexibility theory*, Sweller's *cognitive load theory*, Bruner's *cognitive constructivist learning theory*, and Tolman's *theory of sign learning* -as a bridge between behaviorism and cognitive theory.

Out of the spectrum of cognitive theories, the individual cognitive trend deriving from Piaget's studies and the sociocultural trend based on Vygotsky's works constitute the backbone of cognitivism (Deubel, 2003; Duffy & Cunningham, 1996; Fosnot, 1996; Gillani, 2003). Both theories have also been inspirational for the subsequent constructivist movement (Fosnot, 1996, p. 23; Gillani, 2003, p. 49). For this reason, rather than address each ramification of cognitivism, I will document the core ideas and assumptions of these two distinct strands of cognitivism.

Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development

Piaget explored the genesis of cognitive structures and the process that underlies learning and knowledge construction. Trained as a biologist, Piaget later shifted his interest to how human beings make sense of their environment and experience. The key notions that Piaget employed to elucidate his cognitive theory basically derive from biological concepts. According to Piaget, the process of intellectual and cognitive development resembles to a biological act, which requires adaptation to environmental demands (Gillani, 2003). Having done a large number of experiments to explore the ways children think, Piaget argued that children do not passively receive environmental stimulation. Rather, they actively seek it, naturally explore and act upon their world in order to understand it (Bransford, Brown, Cocking, 2000, p. 80; Fox, 2001).

Piaget's studies and ideas focused on the mechanism of learning within the context of natural sciences instead of the type of logic that learners use (Booth, 1994; Fosnot, 1996). He posited that the biological maturation that human beings go through causes distinct stages in cognitive

development. Each of these stages is sequential, dependent on one another to develop, characterized by acquisition of discernable skills, and reflects qualitative differences in cognitive abilities[2] (Fosnot, 1996; Gillani, 2003; Jarvis, Holford, Griffin, 2003; Piaget, 1970). The cognitive development consists of four invariant stages: (1) *sensimotor* spanning from 0 to 2 year is marked by the reflex behaviours of organism via sensory and motor skills. During this period, the infant learns by discovering the physical environment such as touching and playing with objects. Kids begin to develop such concepts as time and space toward the end of the stage; (2) *pre-operational* which covers period from 2 to 7 years represents the development of symbolic thinking. The child learns how to use language and symbols to communicate objects, events, and his or her thoughts; (3) *concrete operation* which represents years from 7 to 11 is characterized by the ability to think in an abstract and logical way. While thinking, the child engages in analysis and classification of objects; (4) *formal operation* ranging from 11 to 15 years symbolizes highly sophisticated mental activities such as hypothesis formation and testing. The individual of this stage is capable of inductive and deductive thinking or what is called higher-order thinking.

The concept of schema occupies a central place and has an explanatory power in Piaget's theory. Schema[3] refers to hypothetical mental structure for organizing and representing generic events and abstract concepts stored in mind in terms of their common patterns. They can be considered "as a series of interrelated index cards that represent different environmental patterns in one's mental structure" (Gillani, 2003, p.50). Schemata constantly get restructured as one encounters new patterns in his or her learning experiences. Three processes characterize the schemata acquisition and the changes in existing schemata: (1) *accretion* which refers to

[2] The implications of Jerome Bruner's theory of learning for instruction resemble those of Piaget in some respects (e.g., teaching new concepts to students via enactive, iconic, and symbolic presentations).

remembering new information on the basis of existing schema without altering them; (2) *tuning* which happens when new information that does not fit the existing schemata causes schemata to get modified in order to be more compatible with experience; *reconstructing* which is characterized by the formation of totally new schemata on the basis of previous ones that cannot accommodate new experience (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978).

Piaget employed the concept of biological equilibrium-disequilibrium states as the mechanism to explain learning and the changes in cognitive structures in response to new learning experiences (Fosnot, 1996; Gillani, 2003; Palincsar, 1998). For Piaget, behavior and the organism stood as a whole system, thus any changes in a part of the system would give rise to other changes as behavior balanced the structure of the organism against the characteristics of the environment (Fosnot, 1996). Rather than the accommodation of an organism to the environmental pressures, Lamarck's perspective, or the random mutations of an organism, Darwin's position, behaviors serve, Piaget believed, as the driving force of the evolution of new structures[4]. The development of new behavior is believed to generate an imbalance in the regulatory system of the genetic structures.

The implication of this view of the organism as a whole system for the cognitive structures is that the mechanism of change in cognition is equilibration which is a dynamic interplay of progressive equilibria, adaptation and organization, growth and change in the master developmental process (Fosnot, 1996, p.13-14; Ho, 2004). Once encountered with a new learning situation, the individual draws on his or her prior knowledge to make the new experience understandable (Gillani, 2003). Experiencing a new event, situation or learning environment at times engenders contradictions to one's present understandings, which in turn

[3] Bartlett is the originator of the notion of schema in the early 1930s.

makes them insufficient and leads to perturbation and a state of disequilibration in the mental schemata (Fosnot, 1996; Gillani, 2003; Ho, 2004; Palincsar, 1998). To handle this situation and to form a comfortable state of equilibrium in the cognitive structure, the individual needs to modify or reorganize his or her schemata via adaptation. This internal process of restructuring the schemata is done through assimilation and accommodation (Gillani, 2003). While assimilation is a process of integrating new information with existing knowledge, accommodation is a process of modification or transformation in existing cognitive structures in response to a new situation.

According to Piaget (Fosnot, 1996), once confronted with an imbalance, learners may resort to three kinds of accommodations. They may (1) disregard the contradictions and adhere to their original scheme; (2) vacillate by maintaining both theories simultaneously and trying to cope with the contradiction via viewing each theory as separate or specific cases; (3) form a new, modified notion to explain and resolve the prior contradiction. In each type of response to contradiction, the learner's internal and self-regulatory behavior leads to the compensations (p. 16).

Von Glasersfeld (1996) explains Piaget's theory in terms of its epistemological underpinnings. The application of the Piagetian notion of adaptation to cognitive structures of human beings implies that knowledge is not a representation of external reality but a map of actions and conceptual operations. Knowledge springs from (a) the person's "actions" which are grounded in and directed at objects in an environment and (b) his or her "reflection" on objects which embody the person's experiential world (p.3-4).

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[4] He was critical of both theorists' views, considering the former as mechanistic and the latter as purposeless (Fosnot, 1996, p.11-12)

Vygotsky's Social Cognitivism

While Piaget attempted to study and explain learning in terms of the role of contradiction and equilibration, Vygotsky explained learning by means of dialogue (Fosnot, 1996). Another key difference between their works is that whereas Piaget explored the development of logical thinking, Vygotsky focused on categorical perception, logical memory, conceptual thinking, and self-regulated attention (Gredler, 1997, p.269). In contrast to Piaget's assertion that children's development must precede their learning, Vygotsky posited that social learning is likely to precede development. Vygotsky's social cognition learning model views culture as playing a key role in the development of cognition. Vygotsky' s study of learning concentrated on the interplay between the individual and society, and how social interaction and language come into play in affecting learning or the development of cognition (Fosnot, 1996; Gredler, 1997; Jarvis, Holford, Griffin, 2003; Schunk, 2004).

The following principles come to the fore in Vygotsky's work (Fosnot, 1996; Palincsar, 1998). These are the general law of *genetic development*, *auxiliary stimuli*, and the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD). The general law of *genetic development* states every complex mental process is first and foremost interaction between people. The *auxiliary stimuli* affect the mastery of one's own behavior. The individual can remember and think in an innovative ways by means of *auxiliary stimuli*. The ZPD is defined by Vygotsky (1978) as **"**the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). That is, the ZPD represents the potential levels of development or what one can do with assistance. It basically proposes that learning should be

compatible with the child's level of development and interaction should orient instruction toward the ZPD if it is to avoid lagging behind the development of the child (Palincsar, 1998).

According to ZPD where a child's spontaneous concepts (emerging naturally from everyday experiences) meet scientific concepts (evolving out of the structured activity of classroom instruction as more formal abstraction and logically defined concepts), concepts are not in a ready-made form for learners to absorb. Instead, they go through significant development depending on the existing level of the child's ability to grasp the adult's model (Fosnot, 1996, p.19). For example, "Historical concepts can begin to develop only when the child's everyday concept of the past is sufficiently differentiated -when his own life and the life of those around him can be fitted into the elementary generalization "in the past and now" (Vygotsky, 1986, p.194). Vygotsky's work on social cognition was further explored in subsequent works by other psychologists who developed the notion of scaffolding (Fosnot, 1996).

Implications of Cognitivism for Classroom Practices

Instruction based on cognitive principles should be authentic and real. The teacher is expected to provide a rich classroom environment for the spontaneous exploration of the child. Students are encouraged to explore instructional materials and to become active constructors of their own knowledge through experiences that encourage assimilation and accommodation (Wadsworth, 1996). Teaching is tailored to the needs, interests, and backgrounds of students (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005; McLeod, 2003). The teacher is more concerned with constructing a meaningful context than directly teaching specific skills.

From the cognitive perspective, because students learn by receiving, storing and retrieving information, the teacher is urged to thoroughly analyze and consider the instructional materials, proper tasks, and relevant learner characteristics to help learners to effectively and efficiently

process the information received (McLeod, 2003). In order to activate and utilize schema for learning, Barton states, the learner should be "made aware of his background knowledge and exposed to strategies to 'bridge' from pre-requisite skills to learning objectives" (in McLeod, 2003).

Instructional materials should include demonstrations, illustrative examples, and constructive feedback so that students can have mental models to embody. Because information contained in instructional material is first processed by working memory, for schema acquisition to occur, instruction should be designed to reduce working memory load and to facilitate the changes in long term memory associated with schema acquisition (Sweller, 1988). The teacher is expected to have a set of schemata for instructional activities too in order to adroitly handle interactions between disparate goals and activities. "These schemata include structures at differing levels of generality, with some schemata for quite global activities such as checking homework and some for smaller units of activity such as distributing paper to the class" (Leinhardt & Greeno,1986). The teacher uses advanced organizer techniques to help students understand and organize the ideas, concepts, themes, issues, and principles (Marzano, 1998). Students are encouraged to use metacognitive strategies such as goal specification, process specification, process monitoring, and disposition monitoring (Marzano, 1998 p.127). Basic characteristic features of a classroom instruction based on cognitive theories can be summarized as follows:

- Emphasis on the active involvement of the learner in the learning process [learner control]
- Metacognitive training [e.g., self planning, monitoring, and revising techniques]
- Use of hierarchical analyses to identify and illustrate prerequisite relationships [cognitive task analysis procedures]
- Emphasis on structuring, organizing, and sequencing information to facilitate optimal processing [use of cognitive strategies such as outlining, summaries, synthesizers, advance organizers, etc]
- Creation of learning environments that allow and encourage students to make connections with previously learned material [recall of prerequisite skills; use of relevant

examples, analogies] (Ertmer & Newby, 1993).

Constructivism

Constructivism is a philosophy evolving out of dissatisfaction with the tradition of Western theories of knowledge and thus sharply contrasts with the objectivist epistemology and positivist stance. (Crotty, 1998; Hendry, Frommer, & Walker; 1999; Von Glasersfeld, 1995). As opposed to the objectivist notion that there is an objective truth and meaning rests in their objects independently of any consciousness, constructivism postulates that knowledge cannot exist outside our mind; truth is not absolute; and thus knowledge is not discovered but constructed by individuals on the basis of experiences (Crotty, 1998, p. 42; Fosnot, 1996; Hendry, Frommer, & Walker; 1999). Constructivism replaces the traditional conception of truth --as the correct representation of an external world-- with the concept of viability which means that description of states or events of the world are relative to the observer (Von Glasersfeld, 1995, p.8). The constructivist perspective, therefore, posits that knowledge is not passively received from the world or from authoritative sources but is constructed as individuals or groups make sense of their experiential worlds (Maclellan & Soden, 2004).

Constructivism brings to the fore the notion of meaning-making and knowledge construction as its foremost principles (Crotty, 1998, Fosnot, 1996; Phillips, 1995). It views knowledge as temporary, nonobjective, internally constructed, developmental, and socially and culturally mediated (Fosnot, 1996). Individuals are assumed to construct their own meaning and understanding and this process of meaning-making is believed to happen through the interplay between their existing knowledge and belief and the new knowledge and experiences that they come into contact (Richardson, 1997; Richardson, 2003; Schunk, 2004). This view of meaning-making by means of previously constructed knowledge implies that:

1. Learners are intellectually generative (with the capacity to pose questions, solve problems, and construct theories and knowledge) rather than empty vessels waiting to be filled;
2. Instruction should be based primarily on the development of learners' thinking;
3. The locus of intellectual authority resides not in the teacher nor in the resources, but in the discourse facilitated by both teachers and learners. (Maclellan & Soden, 2004)

Domains of Constructivism

Constructivism is not a single or unified theory. Rather, it is characterized by plurality and multiplicity of perspectives. There are a wide variety of theoretical orientations with respect to constructivism (Phillips, 1995). They address and unfold different facets of constructivism such as cognitive development, social aspects, and the role of context. According to Matthews (2000), 18 different forms of constructivism can be identified in the educational literature in terms of methodological, radical, didactic, and dialectical considerations. Yet, many theorists and scholars agree that three radically distinct types of constructivism color and delineate all sects of constructivism. These are sociological, psychological, and radical constructivism. All share the same epistemological assumption that knowledge or meaning is not discovered but constructed by the human mind (Richardson, 2003). Phillips (2000) explains the definition and attributes of the former frameworks as follows:

> *Social constructionism* or *social constructivism:* A theory that bodies of knowledge or disciplines that have been built up are "human constructs, and that the form that knowledge has taken in these fields has been determined by such things as politics, ideologies, values, the exertion of power and the preservation of status, religious beliefs, and economic self-interest" (Phillips, 2000, p. 6). This approach centers on the ways in which power, the economy, political and social factors affect the ways in which groups of people form understandings and formal knowledge about their world. These bodies of knowledge are not considered to be objective representations of the external world.
> *Psychological constructivism*: This approach relates to a developmental or learning theory that suggests that individual learners actively construct the meaning around phenomena, and that these constructions are idiosyncratic, depending in part on the learner's background knowledge. The development of meaning may take place within a social group that affords its individual members the opportunity to share and provide warrant for these meanings. If the individuals within the group come to an agreement about the nature and

> warrant of a description of a phenomenon or its relationship to others, these meanings become formal knowledge. (in Richardson, 2003).

Radical constructivism is introduced by Ernst Von Glasersfeld. This approach is marked by the assumption that external reality cannot be known and all knowledge ranging from everyday observations to scientific knowledge production is constructed by the knowing subject and thus knowing inevitably reflects the perspective of the observer (Molebash, 2002; Terhart, 2003). According to radical constructivists, it is impossible to judge knowledge in terms of an ontological or metaphysical reality (Terhart, 2003). They claim knowing without metaphysics is possible and meaning exists in the realm of experimental world and not ontologically, the view which is called post-epistemology (Von Glasersfeld, 1995, p.6-7).

Gergen (1995) provides an explanation of radical constructivism by using esoteric terms that he has coined. Before defining radical constructivism, Gergen (1995) makes a distinction between the views of knowledge by dividing them into two categories, exogenic (or word centered) and endogenic (or mind centered). The exogenic tradition generally embraces a dualism in which the existence of an external world (typically a material reality) is set against the existence of a psychological world (cognitive, subjective, symbolic, or phenomenological). Knowledge is achieved from this perspective when the inner states of the individual reflect or accurately represent the existing states of the external world, or when the mind serves as a "mirror of nature." The exogenic theorist views the external world or material world as a given. On the other hand, the endogenic thinker is likely to view the mental world as self-evident. In contrast to the exogenic theorist's concentration on the environment, the endogenic theorist often places chief emphasis on the human being's intrinsic capacities for reason, logic, or conceptual processing. Radical constructivism embraces the endegonic view of knowledge in that the primary emphasis is on the mental processes of the individuals and the way in which they

construct knowledge of the world from within. This perspective does not see knowledge as a reflection of the world as it is (p.18).

Constructivist Pedagogy

Because constructivism is a recently emerged epistemological stance or a theory of knowledge and knowing, it has come to inform different bodies of knowledge or disciplines ranging from philosophy to psychology, anthropology, and sociology. It has implications for pedagogical theory and research as well. Since its inception as an epistemology and philosophy, the constructivist theory has informed educators' effort to construct constructivist pedagogy. Educational scholars have conceptualized a wide range of definitions of constructivist learning and its attributes. Rooted in the field of cognitive science, constructivist pedagogy is especially informed by the later work of Jean Piaget, the sociohistorical work of Lev Vygotsky, the works of Jerome Bruner, Immanuel Kant, John Dewey, William James, Howard Gardner, Thomas Kuhn, Ernest Von Glasersfeld, and Nelson Goodman (Fosnot, 1996; Kivinen & Ristele, 2003). Richardson (2003), the editor of the *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (2001), defines constructivist pedagogy as "the creation of classroom environments, activities, and methods that are grounded in a constructivist theory of learning, with goals that focus on individual students developing deep understandings in the subject matter of interest and habits of mind that aid in future learning."

Catherine Twomey Fosnot (1996), the winner of the 1994 award[5] for "Best Writing on Constructivism," offers one of the most elaborate and lucid explanations of constructivist learning in a book called "*Constructivism: Theory, Perspectives, and Practice.*" She succinctly

[5]The award was given to her by the Special Interest Group on Constructivism of AERA. Fosnot served as the previous director of the Center for Constructivist Teaching as well.

outlines the characteristics of constructivist pedagogy. From the constructivist perspective, she defines learning as:

> a self-regulatory process of struggling with the conflict between existing personal models of the world and discrepant new insights, constructing new representations and models of reality as human meaning-making venture with culturally developed tools and symbols, and further negotiating such meaning through cooperative social activity, discourse, and debate. (p.IX)

As a theory of learning, constructivism proposes that learning is not a stimulus-response phenomenon or a passive process of receiving knowledge. Rather, as an adaptive activity requiring the building of conceptual structures and self-regulation through reflection and abstraction, learning is an active process of knowledge construction which is influenced by how one interacts with and interprets new ideas and events (Lambert et al., 1995; Maclellan & Soden, 2004; von Glasersfeld, 1995). "Individuals bring past experiences and beliefs, as well as their cultural histories and world views, into the process of learning" when they construct knowledge internally by interacting with environment (Kamii, Manning, & Manning, 1991). This perspective views the developmental stages as constructions of active learner reorganization. Likewise, it sets concept developments and deep understanding --rather than behaviors or skills-- through authentic tasks as the goal of instruction. (Fosnot, 1996, p.10-11).

Vygotsky's theories come into play in shaping constructivist pedagogy. Slavin (2000) states:

> Modern constructivist thought draws most heavily on Vygotsky's theories, which have been used to support classroom instructional methods that emphasize cooperative learning, project-based learning, and discovery. Four key principles derived from Vygotsky's ideas have played an important role. Two of them are very important for cooperative learning. First is his emphasis on the social nature of learning. Children learn, he proposed, through joint interactions with adults and more capable peers. On cooperative projects children are exposed to their peers' thinking process; this method not only makes the learning outcome available to all students, but also makes other students' thinking processes available to all. Vygotsky noted that successful problem solvers talk themselves through difficult problems. In cooperative groups, children can hear this inner speech out loud and can learn how successful problem solvers are thinking through their approaches. The second key concept is the idea that children learn best the concepts that are in their zone of proximal

> development. When children are working together, each child is likely to have a peer performing on a given task at a slightly higher cognitive level, exactly within the child's zone of proximal development. (p. 256)

Constructivist theory is descriptive rather than prescriptive, so it does not prescribe rigid rules or procedures for designing a learning environment (Wasson, 1996). Since constructivist view of learning evolved out of cognitivism, it shares a number of similarities with cognitive learning theories. But, what distinguishes constructivism from cognitivism is the notion that "knowledge does not and cannot have the purpose of producing an independent reality, but instead it has an adaptive function" (Von Glasersfeld, 1996, p.3). The basic assumptions and principles of the constructivist view of learning are as follows:

- Learning is an active process.
- Learning is an adaptive activity.
- Learning is situated in the context where it occurs.
- Knowledge is not innate, passively absorbed or invented but constructed by the learner.
- All knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic.
- All knowledge is socially constructed.
- Learning is essentially a process of making sense of the world.
- Experience and prior understanding play a role in learning.
- Social interaction plays a role in learning.
- Effective learning requires meaningful, open-ended, challenging problems for the learner to solve. (Boethel & Dimock, 2000; Fox, 2001)

Implications of Constructivist Framework for Classroom Teaching

Constructivism is a theory of learning, not a theory of teaching (Fosnot, 1996; Richardson, 2003). For this reason, although there is an enormous body of literature on constructivism, the elements of effective constructivist teaching are not known (Richardson, 2003). Constructivist teaching theory is presently built on constructivist learning theory and a set of prescriptions that disparage the practices of the transmission model. For all the current state of the nascent constructivist teaching theory, some educational researchers offer essentially quite a different approach to teaching than those approaches used in most schools, the behaviorist paradigm of

instruction. They make suggestions about how to establish links between constructivist theory and a constructivist approach to teaching and learning. Experiential learning, self-directed learning, discovery learning, inquiry training, problem-based learning, and reflective practice are some examples of constructivist learning models (Gillani, 2003; McLeod, 2003; Slavin, 2000).What follows next is the descriptions of constructivist approach to teaching.

Fosnot (1996) elucidates constructivism in relation to teaching. Teaching resting on constructivism discards the idea that teachers can transmit meaning to students via symbols; concepts can be taken apart as discrete entities and taught out of context. Rather, the constructivist approach to teaching provides the learners with the opportunity to engage in meaningful, concrete experiences by means of which learners can look for patterns, construct their own questions, structure their own models, concepts, and strategies. The classroom becomes a place of micro-society for learners to jointly engage in activity, discourse, and reflection. Teachers take on the role of facilitator and guide as opposed to that of director acting autocratically. Autonomy, mutual reciprocity of social relations, and empowerment characterizes a constructively conducted classroom (p.IX-X).

Students are provided with opportunities to develop in-depth understandings of the instructional materials, to understand the nature of knowledge construction, and to construct complex cognitive maps for connecting bodies of knowledge and understandings (Richardson, 2003). Since meaning, knowledge, and conceptual structures are constructed differently by each individual, the teacher should be cognizant of the fact that the ways students view their environment such as curricula, textbooks, didactic props, and micro-worlds, may be different from those of his or her own. Thus, the teacher should accordingly dispense with the notion that teachers can transfer conceptual knowledge to students by the means of words (Von Glasersfeld,

1996). The teacher is concerned with how learners understand the process of knowing and how they justify their beliefs (McLeod, 2003). Students are challenged by the teacher to justify and defend a position so that they can change their conceptual frameworks (e.g., beliefs, assumptions and conceptions). In the constructivist classroom, learning emphasizes not the product but the process. How one arrives at a particular answer is what matters. The teacher also recognizes the pivotal importance of discourse.

Fosnot (1996) argues that neither "cookbook teaching styles" nor pat set of instructional techniques can be abstracted from this orientation to propose as a constructivist approach to teaching. However, she suggests some general principles of constructivist view of learning that she thinks can be applied to educational practices (see Figure 1.1). These principles are as follows:

- Learning is not the result development; learning is development. It requires invention and self-organization on the part of the learner. Thus teachers need to allow learners to raise their own questions, generate their own hypothesis and, models as possibilities, and test them for viability.
- Disequilibrium facilitates learning. "Errors" need to be perceived as a result of learners' conceptions and therefore not minimized or avoided. Challenging, open-ended investigations in realistic, meaningful contexts need to be offered, thus allowing learners to explore and generate many possibilities. Both affirming and contradictory. Contradictions, in particular, need to be illuminated, explored, and discussed.
- Reflective abstraction is the deriving force of learning. As meaning-makers, humans seek to organize and generalize across experiences in a representational form. Allowing reflection time through journal writing, representation in multisymbolic form, and/or discussion of connections across experiences or strategies may facilitate reflective abstraction.
- Dialogue within a community engenders further thinking. The classroom needs to be seen as a "community of discourse engaged in activity, reflection, and conversation." The learners (rather than the teacher) are responsible for defending, proving, justifying, and communicating their ideas to the classroom community. Ideas are accepted as truth only insofar as they make sense to the community and thus rise to the level of "taken-as-shared."
- Learning proceeds toward the development of structures. As learners struggle to make meaning, progressive structural shifts in perspectives are constructed –in a sense, "big ideas". These "big ideas" are learner-constructed, central organizing principles that can

be generalized across experiences and that often require the undoing or reorganizing of earlier conceptions. This process continues throughout development (p. 29-30)

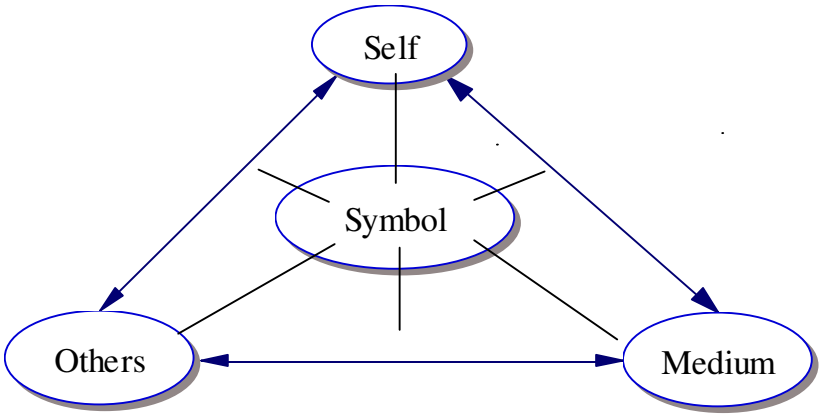

Figure 1.1 Constructivist learning model (Source: Fosnot, 1996)

Other educators have also attempted to elaborate on the characteristics of constructivist teaching and learning. Richardson (2003) identifies five principles as the premises of the constructivist pedagogy:

1. Attention to the individual and respect for students' background and developing understandings of and beliefs about elements of the domain (this could also be described as student-centered);
2. Facilitation of group dialogue that explores an element of the domain with the purpose of leading to the creation and shared understanding of a topic;
3. Planned and often unplanned introduction of formal domain knowledge into the conversation through direct instruction, reference to text, exploration of a Web site, or some other means;
4. Provision of opportunities for students to determine, challenge, change or add to existing beliefs and understandings through engagement in tasks that are structured for this purpose; and
5. Development of students' metawareness of their own understandings and learning processes.

Maclellan and Soden (2004) make similar suggestions with respect to constructive teaching, drawing on the insights from cognitive psychology. Constructive teaching should:

1. Enable learners to build from previous constructions, errors and misconceptions;
2. Attempt to integrate informal and formal knowledge;
3. Make use of metacognition and strategic self-regulation by learners;
4. Focus not just on the learner's cognitions, but on the learner's affect, beliefs and conceptions of knowledge;
5. Emphasize the role of negotiated and shared meanings;
6. Monitor the effects of discussion and collaboration on the learners' conceptions;

7. Derive not just from the teacher's knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills, but from the teacher's beliefs, conceptions and personal theories about subject matter, teaching and learning.

Benefiting from the works of educators and cognitive psychologists who have applied constructivism to the development of learning environments, Jonassen (1991) proposes the following principles to be implemented by practitioners in classrooms:

- Create real-world environments that employ the context in which learning is relevant;
- Focus on realistic approaches to solving real-world problems;
- The instructor is a coach and analyzer of the strategies used to solve these problems;
- Stress conceptual interrelatedness, providing multiple representations or perspectives on the content;
- Instructional goals and objectives should be negotiated and not imposed;
- Evaluation should serve as a self-analysis tool;
- Provide tools and environments that help learners interpret the multiple perspectives of the world;
- Learning should be internally controlled and mediated by the learner.

Similarly, Honebein (1996) identifies several goals for designing constructivist learning environments:

- Provide experience with the knowledge construction process;
- Provide experience in and appreciation for multiple perspectives;
- Embed learning in realistic and relevant contexts;
- Encourage ownership and voice in the learning process;
- Embed learning in social experience;
- Encourage the use of multiple modes of representation;
- Encourage self-awareness in the knowledge construction process.

Brooks and Brooks (1993) identify some guiding principles of constructivism as well:

1. Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, learning must start with the issues around which students are actively trying to construct meaning.
2. Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. And parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, the learning process focuses on primary concepts, not isolated facts.
3. In order to teach well, we must understand the mental models that students use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models.
4. The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct his or her own meaning, not just memorize the right answers and regurgitate someone else's meaning. Since education is

inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning is to make the assessment part of the learning process, ensuring it provides students with information on the quality of their learning

The following principles drawn from the constructivist position are also applicable to classroom instruction:

- An emphasis on the identification of the context in which the skills will be learned and subsequently applied [anchoring learning in meaningful contexts].
- An emphasis on learner control and the capability of the learner to manipulate information [actively using what is learned].
- The need for information to be presented in a variety of different ways [revisiting content at different times, in rearranged contexts, for different purposes, and from different conceptual perspectives].
- Supporting the use of problem solving skills that allow learners to go beyond the information given. [developing pattern-recognition skills, presenting alternative ways of representing problems].
- Assessment focused on transfer of knowledge and skills (presenting new problems and situations that differ from the conditions of the initial instruction) (Ertmer & 1993).

Conclusion

In light of the postulations of the three learning theories and the goals of social studies education (NCSS, 1993), it is safe to say that cognitive and constructivist theories are of great value to history teachers in their professional efforts to help students grasp the substantive and syntactic components of history. The constructivist approach to teaching has potential to enable history teachers to accomplish their instructional goals.

From epistemological perspective, four types of learners can be classified as absolute, transitional, independent, and contextual learners (Magolda, 1992). The absolute knower believes that (a) knowledge is fixed, absolute, and certain; (b) teachers and textbooks have the right answer; (c) it is the student's duty to get it right; (d) and appreciate efforts by teachers that make it easier to find out what is expected. On other hand, contextual knower believes that (a) knowledge is uncertain, tentative, and subject to change and revision; (b) is comfortable judging

how their knowledge and skills might apply to a situation; (c) and connects concepts to applied settings**.** Practicing constructivist teaching methods, social studies teachers can transform students from absolute learners to contextual learners.

If the goals of teaching social studies and history are to be successfully accomplished, social studies teachers should transform students' engagement in subject matters from rote learning (recall & comprehension) to meaningful learning (analysis, synthesis, application, evaluation) via cognitive and constructivist teaching models and methods.

Teaching Models: Pedagogical Strategies

Instruction is composed of several interrelated components, which structure an instructional framework or domains of instruction. An instructional framework serves as a tool for teachers not only to examine and reflect on their and others' instructional practices but also to enlarge their repertoire of instructional approaches (Saskatchewan Education, 1997). An instructional framework is multidimensional and encompasses instructional skills, methods, strategies, and models (see Figure 2.1[6]).

Instructional skills represent the most specific instructional behaviors such as describing an event, explaining a process, asking a question, discussing an issue, or demonstrating a procedure. Instructional method refers to the way in which the teacher forms a learning environment and specifies the nature of a particular classroom activity for learners to do during the lesson. Instructional strategy represents the extent to which the teacher engages students in learning or lessons directly, indirectly, interactively, experientially, and independently. Instructional models encompass and inform teaching strategies, methods, and skills (see Figure 2.2).

[6] Examples within a given category are not inclusive of all models, strategies, methods, and skills in the educational literature.

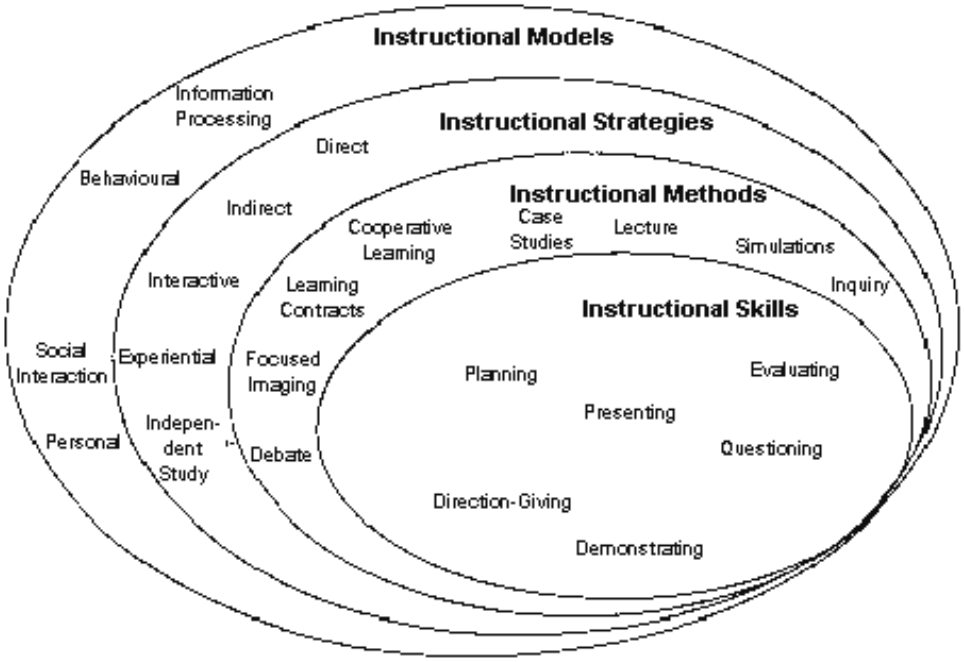

Figure 2.1 Domains of instruction
(Source: Saskatchewan Education, 1997)

Like a mental picture or metaphor, models help us visualize what cannot be seen or experienced directly and thus provide a means of comprehending our world (Dorin, Demmin & Gabel, 1990; Ryder, 2005). Teaching or instructional model refers to a philosophical or theoretical orientation toward instruction and reflects instructional practices at its broadest level (Saskatchewan Education, 1997). Having done "a continuous and worldwide search for promising approaches to teaching" for 40 years, Joyce et al. (2000) have explained the model of teaching as "a description of a learning environment. The descriptions have many uses, ranging from planning curriculums, courses, units and lessons to designing instructional materials -books and workbooks, multimedia programs, and computer-assisted learning programs" (p.13).

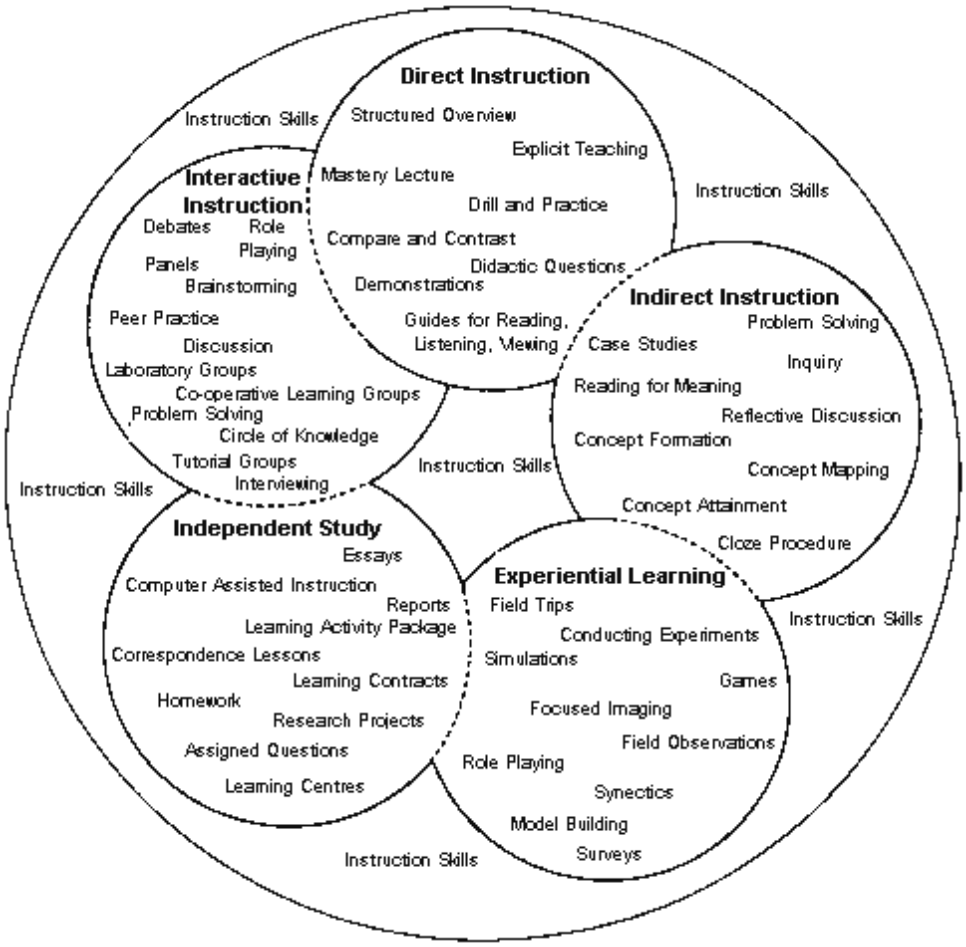

Figure 2.2 Instructional strategies, methods, and skills
(Source: Saskatchewan Education, 1997)

Instructional models derive from philosophical beliefs about learning and an amalgamation of psychological research and theory construction. They include a complex array of learning and instructional factors into a single working system which describes the way instruction is planned, implemented, and evaluated (Wilson & Cole, 1991). Like a blueprint, instructional models guide teachers to select and structure teaching strategies, methods, skills, and instructional activities. In addition, they serve, Gage and Berliner (1992) states, as learning aides and benefit teachers in two ways by (1) accurately and coherently representing what knowledge is needed during

problem solving in some particular domain and (2) facilitating teachers' understanding of domains of knowledge (in McIlrath & Huitt,1995).

There are a wide variety of teaching models that can be classified on a continuum in terms of whether they place the teacher or learner at the center of instruction. While one end of the continuum represents teacher-centered instructional models, the other end of the continuum represents those teaching models based on learner-centered instruction. Of typology of learning theories reviewed, whereas behaviorist theoretical framework characterizes the underpinnings of teacher-centered instruction, cognitive and constructivist orientations come into play in shaping learner-centered instruction. There are other approaches used to categorize instructional methods into models of teaching. A team of researchers at *Virginia Tech's Faculty Development Institute* classify teaching models into three main categories as (see Figure 2.3):

1. Top-down models (i.e., teacher-directed, teacher-delivered, or direct instruction),
2. Social models (i.e., student-teacher-negotiated or mutually-constructed)
3. Bottom up models (i.e., student-centered or radical) (FDI, 2002)

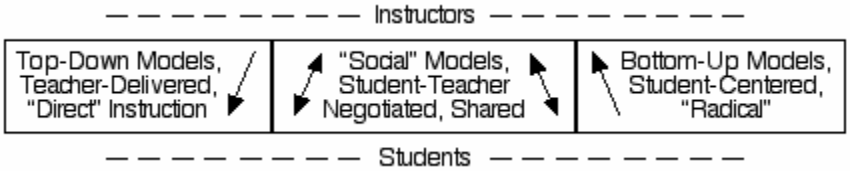

Figure 2.3 Models of teaching (Source: FDI, 2002)

Taking on somewhat different approach to categorizing teaching models, Joyce et al. (2000) classify them into four groups as (see Table 1.1)[7]:

1. The social family: Cooperative learning, Structural inquiry, Group investigation, Role playing, Jurisprudential inquiry.
2. The information processing family: Inductive thinking, Concept attainment, Mnemonics, Advanced organizers, Scientific inquiry, Inquiry training, Synectics.
3. The personal family: Non-directive teaching, enhancing self-esteem.
4. The behavioral systems family: Mastery learning, Direct teaching, Simulation, Social learning, Programmed schedule (task performance reinforcement). (p.14-28)

[7] In terms of instructional models, this approach to categorizing teaching models is the same as the one the *Canadian Studies Curriculum Guide* suggests.

The social family draws from humanism and emphasizes holistic learning and human development. Collaborations or working together, Joyce et al**.** (2004) say, is the key to producing collective energy or "synergy," which is the outcome that the social family models aim to engender. Information-Processing Family models are cognitive in nature and concentrate on those methods aimed at enhancing learners' intrinsic desire to make sense of the world by acquiring, integrating, and organizing information; identifying and finding solutions to problem; and developing concepts and language for putting across their ideas. The personal models of learning begin with "the perspective of the selfhood of the individual." They help both teachers and students understand themselves better, take responsibility for their own education, and ultimately become stronger, more sensitive and more creative in their search for effective and quality instructional activities. The behavioral systems family growing out of behaviorism focuses on observable behavior, unambiguously defined tasks, and methods for letting students know how they progress towards attaining instructional goals (Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2004).

Table 1.1 Models of teaching

Models of Teaching			
The Social Family	**The Information Processing Family**	**The Personal Family**	**The Behavioral Systems Family**
Cooperative learning Structural inquiry Group investigation Role playing Jurisprudential inquiry	Inductive thinking, Concept attainment, Mnemonics, Advanced organizers, Scientific inquiry, Inquiry training, Synectics	Non-directive teaching Enhancing self-esteem	Mastery learning, Direct teaching, Simulation, Social learning, Programmed schedule (task performance reinforcement)

(Source: Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, 2000)

All these models of teaching share a common assumption that instructional methods can be classified into categories in terms of the roles teachers and students play in teaching and learning; that is, teacher-centered versus learner-centered teaching methods. Because the former teaching model is strongly embedded in many classroom settings and notoriously well-known, I will focus my attention on the latter teaching model by providing an overview of its core elements and basic features that can offer a better understanding of cognitive and constructivist learning theories.

Learner-centered Instruction

Although the concept of learner-centered education is a fluid theoretical model and thus subject to change as theorists and applied researchers continuously redefine this term (Henson, 2003), the models of learner-centered instruction in the research literature have several elements in common. The constructionist epistemological stance, cognitive-metacognitive, affective, socio-psychological, and developmental theories together with the progressive theoretical perspective on education come into play in defining the characteristics of learner-centered instruction.

Learner centered instruction is a system of instruction based on the learner's own choices, interests, needs, abilities, learning styles, types of intelligences, and educational goals within an authentic context where situated thinking is deemed important (APA, 1997; McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Weimer, 2002). Building on the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs that learners bring to the educational setting is a fundamental tenet of learner-centered instruction (Weimer, 2002). McCombs and Whisler (1997) define learner-centered education as "the perspective that couples a focus on individual learners -their heredity, experiences, perspectives,

backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs- with a focus on learning." Henson (2003) identifies five premises of learner-centered education as follows:

> 1. Learners have distinctive perspectives or frames of reference, contributed to by their history, the environment, their interests and goals, their beliefs, their ways of thinking and the like. These must be attended to and respected if learners are to become more actively involved in the learning process and to ultimately become independent thinkers.
> 2. Learners have unique differences, including emotional states of mind, learning rates, learning styles, stages of development, abilities, talents, feelings of efficacy, and other needs. These must be taken into account if all learners are to learn more effectively and efficiently.
> 3. Learning is a process that occurs best when what is being learned is relevant and meaningful to the learner and when the learner is actively engaged in creating his or her own knowledge and understanding by connecting what is being learned with prior knowledge and experience.
> 4. Learning occurs best in an environment that contains positive interpersonal relationships and interactions and in which the learner feels appreciated, acknowledged, respected, and validated.
> 5. Learning is seen as a fundamentally natural process; learners are viewed as naturally curious and basically interested in learning about and mastering their world.

By taking into account both psychological factors which are under the control of the learner and external environment or contextual factors that interact with internal factors, APA offers a holistically devised theoretical framework for learner-centered education, which is called *Learner-Centered Psychological Principles* (LCP) (APA, 1997). According to this framework containing 14 principles, four factors in the context of real-world learning situations should be addressed for successful development and implementation of learner-centered instruction in schools: (1) cognitive and metacognitive; (2) motivational and affective; (3) developmental and social; (4) and individual difference factors.

LCPs have resulted in a widely recognized repercussion in education. Those principles have attracted the attentions of educational scholars who either have attempted to elucidate the

framework or put them into practice in schools. For instance, Lambert and McCombs (1998) interpreted the underlying assumptions of LCPs. They state that LCPs assume that students:

- Possess distinct perspectives or frames of reference shaped by their cultural history, the home environment, interests, goals, beliefs, and ways of thinking;
- Demonstrate individual differences, including emotional states of mind, learning rates and styles, stages of development, abilities, and feelings of efficacy;
- Construct their own their own personal and social meanings about their world within a process that makes learning realistic, meaningful, and personally engaging; create, at least to some degree,
- Connect the new information with their prior knowledge and experience;
- Work best in an environment that encourages positive interpersonal relationships and interactions, safety, and order;
- Need to feel appreciated, acknowledged, respected, and validated.

As this framework implies, learner-centered instruction approaches the design of instruction from the perspective of the learner rather than the perspective of the teacher. The learner is central to defining meaning. This instructional approach (a) emphasizes the student as the main agent of learning; (b) makes student learning the principal goal; (c) concentrates on the use of intentional processes on students' part; (d) encourages teacher-student interaction in which students become more active learners; (e) expects the teacher to act as a facilitator or a guide; (f) focuses not on the frequency of information transmission, but on how well students learn; (g) views each phase of the instruction in terms of its effects on students (APA, 1997; Fosnot, 1996; Henson, 2003; McCombs & Whisler, 1997).

Overall, learner-centered instruction requires that (1) learners be given the opportunity to construct their own meanings on the basis of their experiences, beliefs, understandings, and cultural practices they bring to the classroom; (2) the learner's experiences/needs and the learning process be valued; (3) balanced emphasis be placed on the cognitive and affective domains in the learning process; (4) teachers attempt to get a sense of what students know, can do, and care about.

Part II

Research on Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching

This section provides a review of research on teachers' orientations to teaching and learning at the secondary and tertiary levels. As pointed out by Boulton-Lewis et al. (2001), there are more empirical studies on academics' conceptions of and approaches to teaching than secondary school teachers'.

LeSourd (1984) explored fourteen social studies teachers' attitudes toward five selected instructional strategies (making graphs, concept development, inquiry teaching, and value clarification), all of which were constructivist in nature except for "direct reading." It was found that teachers had a uniform and enthusiastic attitude toward the selected instructional strategies. The dominant rationale for the positive response was the usefulness and flexibility of the instructional strategies, student needs, and teacher responsibility**.** Teachers often pointed out the practicality and flexibility of the strategies and expressed a number of concerns as to whether those strategies could be successfully implemented in the face of the realities of teaching situation. They expected the strategy to prove useful, but did not define usefulness or did not elaborate on methods of assessing usefulness. It was also reported that teachers' attitudes toward instructional strategies were basically shaped by the diverse intellectual capacities of students, the role of the teacher in implementation, and the expected results of the implementation.

Byer and Dana-Wesley (1999) investigated pre-service social studies teachers' views of active instructional methods. After the participants were exposed to a four-step procedure for implementing the constructivist approach to teaching in social studies methods classes, their views were elicited via qualitative and quantitative data gathering methods (i.e., survey and interview). The researchers concluded that students' evaluations of the instructor of the active

methods class were significantly higher than students' evaluations of the instructor of the passive methods class. Koeppen's (1999) investigation of pre-service teachers' reactions to issue-oriented social studies involving active teaching methods in primary grade showed that teachers were often uncomfortable with bringing up controversial issues to be discussed with students at the elementary level. Teachers felt that it was difficult to create issues-centered social studies curriculum. Still, all but three of them had a positive reaction to their experiences in issue-based social studies.

Patrick (1992) examined the variations in secondary school history teachers' and physics teachers' conceptions of teaching on the basis of the language they used to describe their teaching orientations and the instructional practices they employed in the classroom. She identified three groups of history teachers in terms of their orientations to teaching. The first group of history teachers emphasized the content of history and the technique and presentation of history, seeing the relation between students and the subject matter as unproblematic. The second group focused on how to help students understand the structure of history along with points of view in historical explanations. They saw students' relation to history as problematic in that they thought that students needed the teacher's help to achieve the sort of historical understanding that the teacher had. But this group failed to see the nature of historical knowledge as complex and problematic. The third group which had the most sophisticated view of history saw history and students' relation to history as problematic and thus paid attention to how students approached, read, questioned, and discussed the historical materials in order to help them construct their own interpretation of history. Identical conceptions of teaching were detected in physics teachers.

Through an interview-based phenomenographic investigation, Boulton-Lewis et al. (2001) examined the teaching and learning conceptions of secondary school teachers who taught a wide

range of subjects at different grade levels in Australia. Four categories of conceptions of teaching and learning were identified in teachers' responses on the basis of the frequency and strength of their comments. Teachers conceived teaching as (1) the transmission of content and skills from the teacher to students, (2) the development of skills and understanding under the direction of the teacher, (3) the facilitation of understanding by means of the interaction between the teacher and students, both of whom work together to construct personal meaning (i.e., the social constructivist view of teaching), and (4) the transformation, a process in which the teacher organizes or structures the learning environment and then lets students gradually take more responsibility for their own cognitive, behavioral, and affective developments as a whole person (i.e., cognitive apprenticeship together with personal development).

Likewise, teachers' conceptions of learning were categorized as (1) the acquisition and reproduction of content and skills by students, (2) the development and application of skills and understanding through a process aimed at developing students' competence in the subject area, and (3) the development of understanding or construction of meaning by means of the interaction between the teacher and students. The most commonly found pattern in this study was that teachers' conceptions of teaching were more sophisticated than their conceptions of learning. It was also found that some teachers' conceptions of teaching and conceptions of learning were incongruent. This was especially the case for those teachers who had the most sophisticated conceptions of teaching.

Doyle (1997) examined the impact of teacher preparation on pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning as they were in the transition from being a student to being a teacher. He reported that teachers changed their views of teaching and learning as they went through the program, becoming more constructivist in their views of teaching and learning. Bowman et al.

(1998) investigated whether elementary teachers' exposure to a five-year cognitively guided instructional program (CGI) would make changes in their beliefs about teaching and learning. Two years after the onset of CGI, the researchers assessed changes in the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning mathematics by administering the CGI Beliefs Scale. They found that during the first year, teachers' beliefs about the value of CGI declined despite all the extensive support they were provided. It took teachers two years to recover their previously held beliefs about CGI.

Dall'Alba (1991) identified seven conceptions of teaching after examining university academics' views on teaching and learning. The participants conceptualized teaching as (1) presenting and (2) transmitting information from the teacher to students, (3) explaining how a theory is manifested in reality or its application to practice, developing in students, (4) the concepts and principles of the discipline and (5) the capacity to be experts in their field of study, (6) constructing meaning or ways of understanding with the participations of students, and (7) making a change in students' frame of reference, conceptions, and understanding of the world.

Likewise, Martin and Balla (1991) offered three broad conceptions of teaching as (1) presenting information, (2) encouraging active learning, and (3) facilitating learning. Both these researchers and Dall'Alba (1991) conceived the relationship among different categories of conceptions of teaching as hierarchical. However, this hierarchical arrangement of conceptions is subject to argument, as the studies by Samuelowicz and Bain (1992), and Martin and Ramsden (1992) found no such a hierarchical relationship between conceptions. Rather, these studies suggested that conceptions of teaching be conceived as "an ordered set of qualitatively differing conceptions" on a continuum (Kember, 1997).

Studying academics' conceptions of teaching, Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) identified five conceptions of teaching as (1) imparting information, (2) transmitting knowledge, (3) facilitating learning, (4) changing students' conceptions, and (5) supporting students' learning. Conception of teaching as "facilitating learning" served as an intermediate category between teacher-centered and student-centered orientations to teaching. Re-studying academics' conceptions of teaching and learning through an interview-based investigation, Samuelowicz and Bain (2001) identified seven orientations to teaching and learning on the basis of a constant comparison method of analysis. These orientations were arranged on a continuum ranging from teacher-centered at one pole and student-centered at the other pole. These conceptions were (1) imparting information, (2) transmitting structured knowledge, (3), providing and facilitating understanding, (4), helping students develop expertise, (5) preventing misunderstandings, (6) negotiating understanding, and (7) encouraging knowledge creation. A significant finding reported by the researchers is that it is the purpose and nature of the interaction that differentiates between orientations in the participants' responses, not merely its presence or absence. This study did not provide empirical evidence to confirm the existence in teachers' conceptions of teaching of Kember's (1997) intermediate or transitional category, "student-teacher interaction/apprenticeship," which serves as a bridge between two broad orientations to teaching.

Kember and Gow (1993, 1994) investigated the relationship between university teachers' conceptions of teaching and their students' approaches to learning in Hong Kong through a questionnaire constructed on the basis of interviews they conducted. Students' study approaches were examined via a separate questionnaire constructed by Biggs (1987). Two broad orientations to teaching were identified as transmitting knowledge from the teacher to students and facilitating students' learning. Whereas the former view emphasized the subject matter

knowledge, the latter stressed learning. This study showed that whereas the learning facilitation orientation had a significant negative correlation with a surface approach to learning, the knowledge transmission orientation had a significant negative correlation with a deep approach to learning. That is, those departments identified with the knowledge transmission orientation foster in students a surface approach to learning. On the other hand, those departments characterized by the learning facilitation orientation encourage students to develop a deep approach to learning. Trigwell et al. (1999) also confirmed the relationship between teachers' approaches to teaching and students' approaches to learning.

Norton et al. (2005) examined university teachers' beliefs and intentions about teaching at four institutions in the United Kingdom by using a modified version of Gow and Kember's (1993) inventory aimed at identifying conceptions of teaching. Their study found both a consistency and a disjunction between teachers' beliefs and intentions. Even though teachers in the study appeared to hold identical beliefs about teaching, they differed from each other in terms of their teaching intentions on such dimensions as interactive teaching, motivating students, and training for jobs. They especially differed in their use of problem solving. The researchers attributed these differences in teaching intentions to the participants' teaching experience and "the particular subject mix of their institutions" rather than to particular institutional constraints.

Trigwell and Prosser (1996, 2004) examined educators' conceptions of teaching and approaches to teaching in the department of physics and chemistry through interviews. By analyzing the participants' responses in terms of the strategies used and the intentions underlying the strategies, they constructed five conceptions of teaching and learning and five approaches to teaching. These conceptions of and approaches to teaching were categorized in terms of transmitting knowledge, either the concepts of the syllabus or the teacher's knowledge, to

students via teacher-focused strategies or in terms of developing and changing students' conceptions via student-centered strategies. Similarly, conceptions of learning were categorized in terms of whether the emphasis was on the accumulation or acquisition of information to satisfy external demands or on the conceptual development and change to satisfy internal demands. Finding a consistency in teachers' conceptions and approaches, they concluded that those teachers who viewed teaching "as transmitting information to students," and learning as "information accumulation to meet external demands," tended to employ teacher-centered strategies. On the other hand, those teachers who conceptualized teaching as "helping students to develop and change their conceptions," and learning as "developing and changing students' conceptions," tended to approach their teaching in terms of student-centered strategies.

Having done research on teaching and adult educators across a wide range of disciplines, contexts, and cultures in five different countries, Pratt (1992, 1998) proposed five conceptions of teaching. These conceptions are as follows:

- A transmission perspective: The emphasis is on the content or subject matter and its delivery and mastery by the teacher and students respectively. This perspective draws on the principles of the behaviorist framework.
- A developmental perspective: The focus is on the development in students of increasingly complex and sophisticated ways of thinking within a content area. Learners' prior knowledge is valued. Cognitivism and constructivism underpin this perspective.
- An apprenticeship perspective: The teacher provides students with meaningful, relevant, and authentic learning tasks and models students how to think with and do a task. This perspective draws on the principles of social constructivism.
- A nurturing perspective: The emphasis is on the importance of the persistent efforts by learners to achieve and on the positive interdependence between the teacher and students and among students.
- A social reform perspective: A set of social ideals come to the fore in this perspective. The teacher is committed to making a positive difference in the world, seeking ways to make society better and more just.

Through a review of literature on teachers' conceptions of teaching at the tertiary level, Kember (1997) found a high level of consistency and correspondence among independent

studies. His synthesis of research resulted in a multiple-level categorization model for conceptions of teaching. Based on the relationship between the teacher, students, and content, the model proposed is composed of two broad orientations as "teacher-centered/content-oriented" and "student-centered/learning-oriented." A transitional orientation called "student-teacher interaction/apprenticeship" served as a bridge between the two orientations (see Figure 2.4).

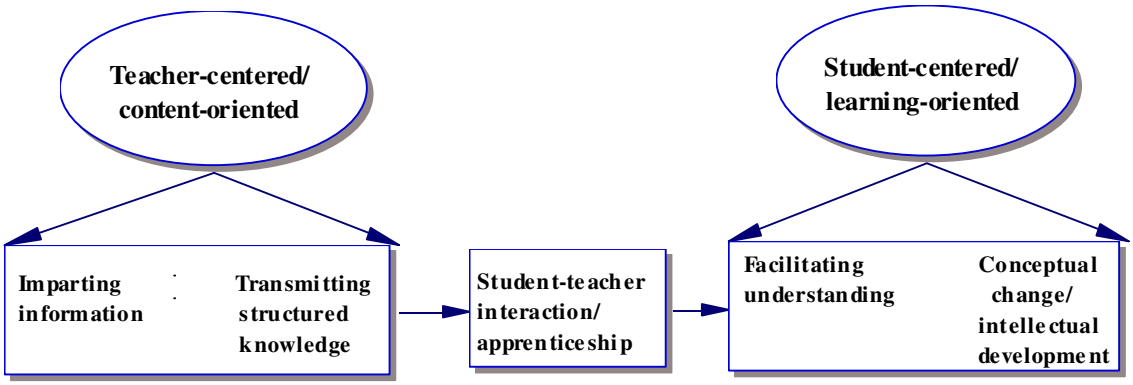

Figure 2.4 A model of conceptions of teaching (Source: Kember, 1997)

Entwistle et al. also (2000) summarized the phenomenographic analyses of lecturers' conceptions of teaching at epistemological and conceptual levels, showing the connection between them (see Figure 2.5). Teaching conceptions were ordered, in terms of their complexity, on a continuum ranging from teacher-centered to learner-centered as (1) imparting information, (2) transmitting structured knowledge, (3), directing active learning as an intermediate category, (4) facilitating understanding, and (5) encouraging conceptual change, which is deemed to be the most complex and sophisticated conception of teaching.

Based on the criteria Kember (1997) devised for identifying and categorizing teachers' conceptions of teaching, a study of Chinese science teachers' conceptions (Gao & Watkins, 2002) yielded five qualitatively different conceptions of teaching as knowledge delivery, exam preparation, ability development, attitude promotion, and conduct guidance, which meant facilitating changes in students' conduct or behavior. A quantitative study of Hong Kong pre-

service teachers (Chan and Elliot, 2004) found a relationship between teachers' epistemological beliefs and their conceptions of teaching and learning. Confirmatory factor analysis of the study suggested a possible causal relationship between epistemological beliefs and conceptions of teaching and learning. Koballa et al.'s (2005) study of inexperienced science teachers' conception of teaching science showed that novice teachers hold ideal and working conceptions of teaching science. As such, their conceptions were resistant to change in spite of well-intentioned instruction.

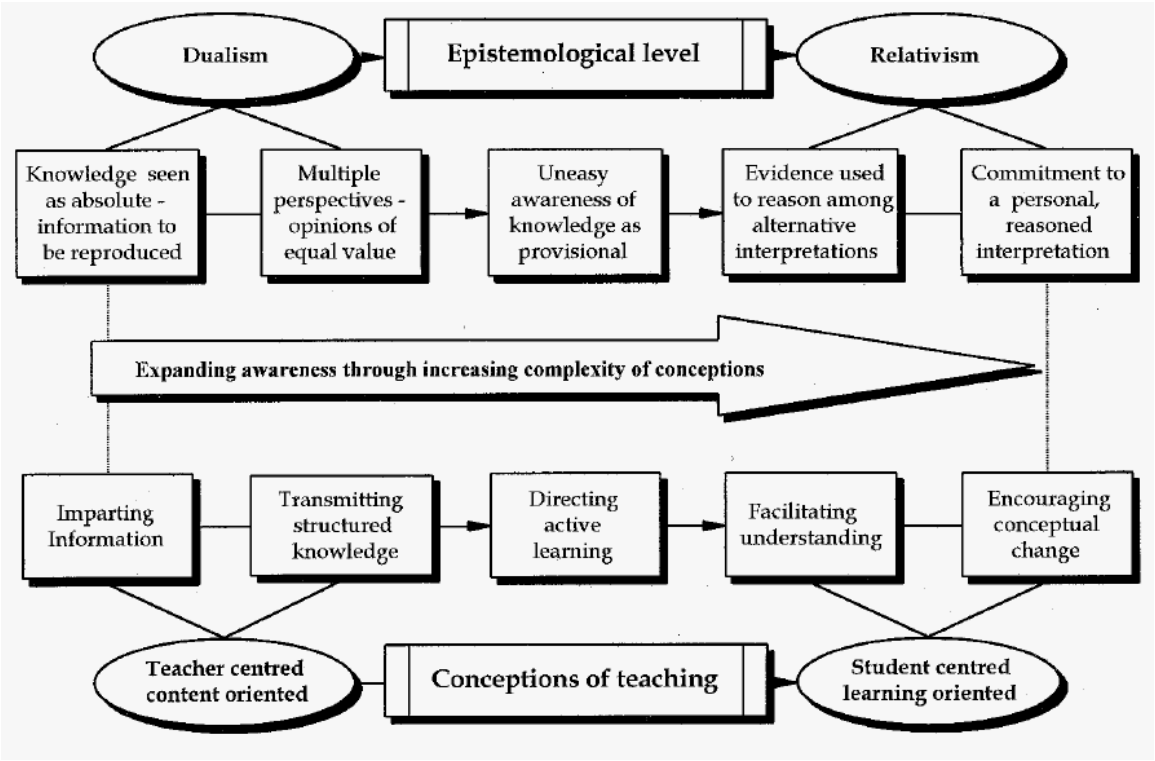

Figure 2.5 Development trends in thinking and conceptions of teaching
(Source: Entwistle et al., 2000)

Epistemology has recently begun to inform studies on teachers' beliefs and orientations. As a theory of knowledge or ways of knowing, epistemology is concerned with the study of the sources, processes, nature, methods, and validity of knowledge. In order to arrive at a better understanding of the multifaceted aspects of teachers' belief structures, Schraw and Olafson

(2002) brought epistemological concerns to bear on a study aimed at understanding the relationship between teachers' epistemological world views, orientations to curriculum, and teaching practices. Epistemological world view was defined, within the context of teaching, as "a set of beliefs about knowledge and knowledge acquisition that influences the way teachers think and make important instructional decisions." Three epistemological world views (realist, contextualist, and relativist) were examined in the study. From a realist's perspective, knowledge is fixed, absolute, and best acquired through experts via transmission and reconstruction. Teachers holding this epistemological view saw students as passive recipients of pre-digested knowledge and taught accordingly by dominating classroom talks and discussions via lectures and textbooks. To contextualists, knowledge is best attained when learners construct shared understandings in supportive contexts under the guidance of a teacher who acts as a facilitator. Teachers identified with this world view emphasized not the type of knowledge but "the process by which students construct that knowledge, and the degree to which that knowledge has authentic application to the context it is learned in." To relativists, the construction of knowledge by each unique learner is both different and equal to other learners' knowledge. Teachers with relativist world views were concerned with forming an environment that is conducive to independent thinking and did not ascribe a privileged status to their own knowledge.

There are also some studies that illustrated teachers' conceptions of teaching through metaphors and images that teacher hold for teaching and learning (Munby & Russell, 1990; Calderhead & Robson 1991; Tobin, 1990, Pehkonen 1999; BouJaoude, 2000).

Research on Social Studies Teachers' Conceptions of History

The research into social studies teachers' conceptions of history investigated different aspects of the topic such as the relationship between teacher conceptions and teaching methods,

background factors influencing the development of the conceptions of history (e.g., the effects of disciplinary backgrounds on their views and practices), the impact that teacher conceptions have on students' beliefs about history, and the conceptions embodied by different types of teachers (e.g., secondary teachers' and teacher candidates' historical thinking). Likewise, history teachers' conceptions were studied in comparison to those of other subjects such as science teachers or teacher conceptions were comparatively examined within different cultural contexts (e.g., US vs. England).

Earlier research studies on social studies teachers' conceptions of the subject focused on their perspectives on social studies as an integrative school subject. After examining student teachers' perspectives on social studies, Adler (1984) found two prevailing profiles, the constructivist and realist or traditional perspectives. Teachers with a constructivist view considered social studies as a construction of tentative knowledge through personal experience, reasoning, and the development of empathy. Their teaching practices were process-oriented. On the other hand, teachers viewing the subject from a realist or traditionalist perspective regarded knowledge as certain and valued public over personal knowledge. Their instructional approaches were content-oriented and aimed at student digestion of pre-structured knowledge. In a follow up study, Adler, together with Goodman (1985), examined elementary student teachers' perspectives toward social studies education by delving into their beliefs and actions. On the basis of the data analyzed qualitatively through a constant-comparison method, they identified six major categories to identify teachers' conceptualizations of social studies as follows: (1) *Social studies as non-subject*, (2) *Social studies as human relation*, (3) *Social studies as citizenship education*, (4) *Social studies as school knowledge*, and (5) *Social studies as social action*.

Their findings supported the assumption that official or idealistic conceptions of social studies fail to bear on pre-service students' beliefs and actions in the classroom. From this premise, their arguments logically proceed to suggest that instead of being preoccupied with idealistic conceptions of what social studies education should be, scholars attempt to understand what conceptions of social studies teachers develop and hold. They called for more research to illuminates teachers' perspectives of the subject.

Evans (1988, 1989 & 1990) investigated teacher and student conceptions of history in successive exploratory studies. He employed qualitative and quantitative research methods to gather and analyze the research data. In his first study (1988), he explored three intern American history teachers' conceptions of the purposes of historical study and of patterns in history or informant beliefs about progress and decline.[8] Their conceptions of the relevance of history or the relation of historical data to the present were also examined.[9]

According to his research findings, the interns' conceptions of the meaning of history differed distinctively from each other. Their conceptions of history not only affected their instructional practices but also shaped student conceptions and learning. Each teacher's conception had significant effects on his or her curricular decisions such the goals to be attained, questions to be asked, and the content or issues to be selected and taught in the classrooms. That is, these teachers' conceptions played a big role in shaping the transmitted curriculum.

Evans used three overlapping categories to represent and demarcate teacher conceptions. For the *social activist and reformer*, the main purpose of studying history was to find solution to contemporary problems facing the society. For this reason, his classroom actions were aimed at

[8] The view of history as an on-going progress or as a decline is called "Whig interpretation of history" and "nostalgia" respectively in the historical literature. Both are characterized by teleological historical writing which is most interested in unfolding patterns in history, progress or decline.
[9] This is called "social relevancy of history," which is colored by presentist concerns, in the historical literature.

getting students to see the problems in the present and their antecedents in the past so that actions could be taken to ameliorate the human condition. For the *cosmic philosopher,* the primary purpose of studying history was to help students build a knowledge base for understanding themselves and each person's unity with humanity. Lastly, for the *storyteller*, the most important purpose of studying history was to understand present issues in order to be able to make informed and reasoned decisions.

In a follow up study, Evans (1989b) continued to explore and clarify teacher conceptions of history, the relationship between their concepts and teaching methods, and background factors influencing development of conceptions of history. His research data were based on survey results and interview transcripts. He identified five categories of teacher conceptions of history: storyteller, scientific historian, relativist/reformer, cosmic philosopher, and eclectic. *Storytellers* were conservatives, saw the knowledge of other times, people, and place as the most important rationale for studying history, paid homage to the predecessors, and taught history in a narrative style through good stories. *Scientific historians* were liberals, considered the knowledge and understanding of historical processes (for understanding current issues) as the key reasons for studying history, attempted to help students develop the skills of historical inquiry, emphasized objectivity and neutrality, and saw historical explanations and interpretation as a means to make history most interesting.

*Relativist/reformers***,** by far the largest group (32 out of 71 teachers surveyed), were democratic liberals, stressed the relation of the past to present problems, and viewed historical knowledge as a background for understanding current issues. *Cosmic philosophers* were liberals but had strong religious connection, regarded grand theory (generalizations or laws of history) as the most interesting aspect of history, saw patterns in history, and had a cyclical view of history.

Eclectic teachers were politically moderate, had no central tendency on any category, displayed the characteristic elements of two or more conceptions of history illustrated above, and had a very practical orientation to make students become interested in history. Evans's approach to constructing a typology of teacher conceptions on the basis of his previous study, which involved only three teachers, is questionable. Instead of thinking flexibly and being open to new possibilities in constructing categories, he stuck to his earlier categories and applied them to new participants' responses.

Evans (1990) kept pursuing the same line of research on teacher conceptions with a few slightly reformulated questions. Five teachers and a total of six students were involved in his third study. According to the research findings, each of the teachers had a different approach to teaching history, their conceptions of history overlapped, and their teaching of history was influenced by their conceptions of history. The study showed that teachers of the reformer and the eclectic orientation had little or no effects on their students' beliefs about history and society. Students of the scientific historian embodied the clearest notions about history. They also acknowledged the empowering impact of the history course on their thinking about history and on their beliefs about society. Students of the storyteller and scientific historian reported positive attitude toward studying history. Students' perceptions of history were quite negative in the eclectic teacher's classrooms. The Cosmic philosopher's conceptions had little effects on students' beliefs. While some students were able to identify their teachers' political affiliations, others could not do so.

Other researchers have also investigated the influence of conceptions on teaching. Wilson and Winburg (1988) investigated social studies teachers' conceptions of history in terms of the

effects of disciplinary backgrounds on their views and practices. Four[10] first year social studies teachers' views of history and pedagogical preferences for teaching history were examined with an emphasis on the process of "learning to teach." Four teachers who majored in different disciplines were interviewed and observed while teaching American history classes in high schools. Qualitative research design was used to illuminate research questions. The researchers found that these participants' disciplinary backgrounds had a great impact on their curricular and instructional decisions. Their perceptions of history affected their pedagogical practices. The researchers also concluded that history had considerably different meanings and functions in the classrooms of four teachers.

The researchers' analysis of the ways teachers viewed and taught history suggests that the researchers lack a broader theoretical framework to view and evaluate these teachers' conceptions and classroom practices. That is, the researchers do not recognize different approaches to reconstructing the past. For instance, they do not seem to realize that scientific historians are purposefully seeking middle-level generalizations, at least to some extent. If one with a scientific mind-set or covering law model read these accounts, he or she might praise the effort to make generalizations. The researchers also make blurry statements concerning such concepts as context and structure of history without even briefly elucidating what they mean by those terms.

In other successive studies, Wineburg (1991a/b) examined the differences in the modes of thinking between eight professional historians' and eight school seniors' engagement with a series of primary and secondary sources containing contradictory information about the Battle of Lexington. While most student participants could display historical thinking and reasoning skills,

[10] The researchers say 6 teachers were interviewed and observed, but for some reasons present only four participants' conceptions of history.

historians successfully employed three heuristics, corroboration, contextualization, sourcing, in their interpretation and evaluation of the sources. Wineburg mainly attributed the differences in both groups of subjects' evaluation of the historical events to the different epistemological perspectives each subject brought to the text.

Yeager and Davis (1995, 1996) explored the characteristics of secondary teachers' and teacher candidates' historical thinking in relation to historical texts. The researchers emulated Wineburg's (1991a) research design in their exploratory study (e.g., think-aloud procedure and protocol analysis were used to look into subjects' cognitive engagement with the task requiring the analysis of different historical sources on the Battle of Lexington). It was found that each teacher had very different historical understanding, interpretations, and conclusions in her or his evaluation of historical texts. Three types of historical thinking emerged out of the participants' responses. These were history as "construction of meaning," history as entertainment or as "a story to be brought to life," history as "a search for accuracy."

In a study examining instructional approaches of teachers, Vinson (1998) also unfolded the goals social studies teachers aspire to accomplish. He identified five elements in teachers' goals for teaching history: (1) history as a transmission of cultural heritage, (2) history as a social science, (3) history as a reflectivity inquiry, (4) history as enlightened social criticism, and (5) history as a means to foster personal development.

Donnelly (1999) looked at history teachers' conceptions in comparison to those of science teachers. He examined the educational goals and the practices of science and history teachers in a qualitatively conducted and quantitatively analyzed comparative study. Thirty-nine teachers of history and science in five schools in England were the study's unit of analysis[11]. He found systematic differences in the aims and instructional practices of both groups. While history

teachers saw the commitment to developing children's interpretations and intellectual judgments as their main responsibility, science teachers emphasized the importance of established knowledge, commonly grounded relevance in instrumentality, and viewed uncertainty as threatening. Donnelly relates the differences in two groups' conceptions to wider differences in the intellectual orientations of the two disciplines. Whereas the science teachers seemed to link relevance with content, the history teachers linked it with skill, especially historical analysis. History teachers saw uncertainty inhabiting two domains; the reliability of historical sources and the different interpretations of historical facts. History teachers accordingly adjusted their pedagogical practices to help students cope with these uncertainties.

In a qualitatively conducted comparative study, Hicks (2001) investigated two female preservice teachers' conceptions of history and approaches to the teaching of history in England and America, with an emphasis on the way student teachers "negotiate the process of learning to teach history." Narrative analysis as a method provided the theoretical framework for studying the subjects' construction of themselves as history teachers and understanding of the nature of history. The research findings indicated that these two teachers had contrasting experiences in and understandings of history and history teaching.

Helen, from England, was provided with experiences in learning the methods of the historian and the skills of the discipline in the context of the Schools Council History Project, her methods course, and internship. As a result, she developed dispositions and habits of trained historian, was concerned with helping students develop history's habits of mind and skills, and aimed to engage students in discussions on controversial issues. Thus, she emphasized the process-centered approach to teaching. On the other hand, Amanda, from U.S., experienced traditional history teaching (throughout her formal education) with an emphasis on the transmission of the

[11] The paper did not draw on all the elements of the interviews.

story of the nation's traditions and cultures rather than the examination of the nature of history "in term of *how we come to know and understand the past in the context of the* present." She devoted herself to providing students with factual information, emphasizing content-centered approach to teaching via a heavy reliance on the textbook. Her aim in teaching history was to increase students' knowledge of influential people, important places, and significant events for an informed citizenry or "for the sake of knowing who we are today."

Aiming to unfold the nature of the belief structures of preservice teachers, Virta (2001) sought to illuminate the question of how student teachers conceptualize history (i.e., their beliefs about the structure and nature of history). Data coming from open-ended written responses of first and second year students in the primary school teacher education program were qualitatively (phenomenographic approach) and quantitatively (content analysis) analyzed to answer research questions. The findings showed that the conception of history as repeating itself[12] was the most commonly found conception. The following reasons for studying history were detected in participants' responses: history provides the context for understanding the present time, society, and culture; plays a central role in shaping people's world views and frames of reference; and has intrinsic value especially for understanding foreign cultures. The research participants' definitions of history were one-dimensional and vaguely organized. They defined history as the past or the continuum of historical periods; as a line of development or the basis for the present; as something that happened. In their views on the relation of history to themselves, participants thought that history is central to understanding contemporary culture and society, structures peoples' worldview, and helps individuals construct their self-image and identity.

[12] This understanding of the past is called "cyclical view of history," which ignores difference and context, in the historical literature.

In a longitudinal case study covering years from 1996-2000, Nichol and Guyver (2004) delved into those factors influencing the professional development of history teachers who were teaching at primary schools. These researchers examined the effects of an Intervention Strategy within Initial Teacher Training course on 18 student teachers' teaching in England. They found that student teachers with a fine-grained syntactic understanding of the discipline were able to develop and display many characteristics of proto-expert history teachers such as having a sophisticated conception of history. Students with little experience in the discipline, on the other hand, were not able to satisfactorily benefit from the intervention program to grow as a history teacher, thus their conceptions of history were limited in comparison to other students of history.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Two mainstream research designs, quantitative and qualitative, fundamentally differ from each other in terms of their epistemological and theoretical underpinnings. Quantitative research is informed by objectivist epistemology and thus seeks to develop explanatory universal laws by measuring what it assumes to be a static reality. On the other hand, qualitative research is based on constructivist epistemology and seeks to explore what it assumes to be a socially constructed dynamic reality through a thick description of the phenomenon under investigation. The emphasis in the qualitative research design is on the context and meaning that participants attached to phenomena, events, activities, programs, processes, and situations.

In contrast to quantitative research studies aimed at uncovering the cause-effect relationship, the primary aim of qualitative research is to describe and understand the phenomenon being studied by capturing and communicating participants' experience of the world in their own words. The researcher attempts to understand and present the world as it is seen and experienced by the participants without predetermining those standpoints via pre-constructed categories of responses. Direct quotations from participants' own responses vividly document their feelings, experiences, and thoughts about the phenomenon under investigation and the meaning they attached to it at a very personal level of experience (Patton, 2002).

Procedure & Sample

The methodological framework of this research study drew on the methods and procedures of the qualitative research tradition. The main method of data collection was in-depth, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions. Social studies teachers were the participants of the study.

Qualitative research design involves purposeful sampling in the selection of the research participants. The main aim of purposeful sampling is to select and study a small number of people or unique cases whose study typically produces a good deal of detailed information and an in-depth understanding of the people, programs, cases, and situations studied (Patton, 2002). So, a purposeful sampling procedure was employed to recruit participants for the study. The main criterion used to select the participants was a range of teaching experience that teachers had. To reflect a spectrum of social studies teachers who were at different stages in their career, i.e., novice, experienced, veteran etc., teachers whose teaching experiences ranged from a couple of years to 25 years or more were selected.

The second criterion for selection of the participants was their levels of education. Since my research topic was quite complex and incorporated some epistemological questions aimed at eliciting teachers' views of the nature of historical knowledge, I recruited those teachers who had a degree beyond the baccalaureate such as master's or more advanced degree. Because teachers with a good deal of teaching experience are in the best position to articulate their teaching orientations and approaches (Cuban, 1991; Entwistle et al., 2000), as contrasted with novice or inexperienced teachers, seasoned teachers with many years of teaching experience constituted the majority of the participants for this study. The participants' average years of teaching experience was sixteen. The third criterion was the gender of the participants. To balance their genders, equal number of male (6) and female (6) teachers were selected.

To protect teachers' identities, each teacher was given a pseudonym of Teacher 1 through Teacher 12 (see 3.1). Teachers were selected from five public schools in three cities in a southeastern state in the US. Teacher 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8 taught in Jefferson High School, Teacher 2 and Teacher 11 in Hoffman High School, Teacher 9 and Teacher 10 in Cedar Middle School,

Teacher 4 in Metro High school, and Teacher 12 in King High School respectively (school names are pseudonyms).

Table 3.1 Demographic information about the participants

Teacher 1

Age	Mid 40s
Gender	M
Education level	NA
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	16
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 2

Age	50
Gender	M
Education level	MA
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	28
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 3

Age	35
Gender	M
Education level	MA
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	11
Race/Ethnicity	Black

Teacher 4

Age	57
Gender	M
Education level	MA
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	18
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 5

Age	35
Gender	M
Education level	MA
Degree in history	Yes
Teaching experience	11
Race/Ethnicity	Black

Teacher 6

Age	52
Gender	M
Education level	EdD
Degree in history	Yes
Teaching experience	19 (just history)
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 7

Age	28
Gender	F
Education level	BS
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	4
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 8

Age	NA
Gender	F
Education level	M.Ed
Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	2
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 9

Age	54
Gender	F
Education level	MA
Degree in history	Yes
Teaching experience	15
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 10

Age	40
Gender	F
Education level	MA
Degree in history	Yes
Teaching experience	18
Race/Ethnicity	White

Teacher 11		Teacher 12	
Age	Late 50s	Age	30
Gender	F	Gender	F
Education level	MA	Education level	M.Ed
Degree in history	No	Degree in history	No
Teaching experience	29	Teaching experience	7
Race/Ethnicity	Black	Race/Ethnicity	White

To identify the participants, I first contacted the head of the Department of Social Science Education to get a list of social studies teachers who teach different strands of social studies at grades 8 through 12. Upon getting the list of teachers and the recommendation of the department head, I contacted the prospective participants through emails or phone calls. While contacting teachers, I briefly explained the purpose of the research project and invited them to participate in my study voluntarily. After I got positive answers from the prospective participants, I selected 12 social studies teachers on the basis of the criteria explained above and scheduled a time to interview them. I then asked the participants to select a time and place that were convenient to them. In response to my request, all but two participants responded that they wanted to be interviewed in their classrooms at a time convenient to them. Teacher 4 and Teacher 12, whose school districts were different from the rest of the teachers, preferred to be interviewed at a restaurant and a cafeteria in a library respectively.

When I met interviewees, I introduced myself to them, explained the purpose of the project and the consent process, and subsequently asked them to read and sign the consent form (see Appendix B). Before conducting the interview, I asked the participants if they had any questions about the research project in order to ensure that they voluntarily participated in the research project and understood its nature. I then conducted the interviews individually with each participant by means of a semi-structured qualitative interview schedule (see Appendix A). Conducting interviews usually took more than one hour (half of the interviews lasted more than

one hour, between one hour and a half and two hours and a half). All interviews were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim.

Interview questions were formulated after an extensive review of literature in two distinct areas, the literature on teachers' conceptions of teaching and the literature on historiography. For each interview question, I employed several probes relevant to the research questions. These probes were either prepared in advance or devised at the site to probe participants' perspectives. When an interviewee stopped talking, I asked those probes to keep them providing me with the information needed to answer the research questions. While the interviewees were putting across their perspectives, I also took brief notes about significant statements the participants made. To keep eye contact with the participants, I tried to minimize note taking by using words, phrases, and short sentences.

Methods of Data Analysis

I employed the techniques and strategies of inductive qualitative data analysis to analyze the participants' responses to the research questions. Inductive qualitative data analysis is described as the messy, ambiguous, iterative, and creative process of selecting, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the mass of data in order to bring order, structure, organization, classification, interpretation, and meaning to the collected data (Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Miles & Huberman 1994).

I will provide a brief definition of what coding in qualitative data analysis means before explaining how I went about analyzing the data set. The term coding encompasses a variety of approaches to organizing qualitative data. Aimed at establishing links of varying sorts among different segments in the data, the process of coding can be considered as data simplification, reduction, and organization (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). According to Miles and Huberman

(1994), "Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information research data. Codes are attached to chunks of varying size –words phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting" (p. 56). Since the goal in coding the data is to make it easy to retrieve the data segments categorized under the same codes, coding is essentially a process of indexing data, e.g., interview transcripts, observation field notes, diaries, letters etc., and linking them to a particular idea or concept (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 27-28). As such, coding helps the analyst interact with and think about the data in order to not only find similarities, differences, themes, patterns, and structures in the data, but also formulate new questions and levels of interpretation about the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p. 30).

I analyzed the data in light of the semi-structured interview questions which were open-ended in nature on the grounds that "conceptual frameworks and research questions are the best defense against data overload" (Charmaz, 2006, p.55), and one way to begin "to code is to start from the foreshadowed research question that inspired the research project" (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p.32). I first read each interview transcript in detail in order to get a general sense of the whole interview and I then re-read each interview transcript to actually start the formal coding in a systematic way. That is, my second reading of the data aimed to develop coding categories or code schemes.

Since the analyst should first determine what the unit of analysis would be for the data before coding (Patton, 2002), I selected sentences and phrases as my units of analysis, which is called line by line analysis. My preference for this type of analysis over others has to do with the benefits associated with its usage in qualitative analysis. Coding in-depth interview transcripts line by line is one way to remain open to the data, to see the nuances in them, and to identify the

participants' implicit as well as explicit concerns and statements (Charmaz, 2006). Line by line coding also helps the analyst avoid becoming excessively immersed in the participants' worldviews, as a result of which the data or the respondents' viewpoints can be critically and analytically examined. It is important to note that "being critical about your data does not necessarily mean being critical of your research participants. Instead, being critical forces asking yourself questions about your data" (Charmaz, 2006, p.51).

Having selected the unit of analysis for the data, I began to analyze each interview transcript by using open or low level codes with little abstraction. My main purpose was to understand the data from the perspective of the participants. To present the participants' viewpoints in their own words, I tried to stay away from imposing previous theoretical framework, concepts, and biases on the data. My attempt was that of letting the data speak for themselves. To accomplish that end, I stayed close to the participants' own words, phrases, and sentences, or what is called "indigenous terms," making some comments about the possible relationship among the codes. In other words, during this process of initial coding, I employed what is called "emic analysis" by means of "in-vivo codes," coding the data on the basis of the participants' own words as a bottom up approach to systematic data analysis. I wrote down in-vivo codes directly on the relevant data passages in the margins. If the informant's own words were not sufficient to code what was emerging from the data, or if there were better catchy terms to code their perspectives, I used "sensitizing codes." Whenever I found a meaningful segment of text in the transcript, I assigned either an in-vivo or a sensitizing code to signify that particular segment. That is, I designated codes to those words, phrases, events, behaviors and other patterns that seem to me to be standing out, making judgments about the significance and meaningfulness of the responses

based on the research questions. I continued this process until I segmented all of my data and completed the initial coding.

Once I coded all the interview transcripts, I began to make cross-case comparisons, which is usually called "constant comparative" method of analysis. Making use of word-processing, I copied all the coded responses to the same question and pasted them under that question. This process was repeated for all questions and answers. Looking at both indigenous and sensitizing concepts, I compared each participant's response to the same question with one another and then began to identify similarities, differences, patterns and themes across the data. That is, I searched the interview transcripts in order to see the common phrases, terms, and concepts to have been used to identify and define categories of responses, recurring patterns and themes. I used two criteria to judge what codes to include in a given category. These two criteria were internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. That means the codes within each category hold together but are dissimilar from other codes in different categories. Category development was an iterative process. That is, depending on the emerging patterns of response in the categories, while some categories were divided into subcategories, others were combined together to fit the categories to the participants' responses.

Once recurring regularities, patterns, and themes in the data began to emerge and became clear through open coding, I used another analytical strategy that involved the examination of divergences which included deviant cases that did not fit the dominant identified patterns. I looked for divergent themes and then sorted both types of themes into categories without discarding them. I did not follow these two analytical strategies, i.e., identification of convergent and divergent cases in coding and categorizing, mechanically or linearly. Rather, I used both simultaneously. During each phase of analysis, I wrote different types of memos in the margins

to reflect my original interpretations of the data, prospective categories and their properties, the relationships among various categories, and consequences of a category and its relationships with other categories.

So, in the early stages of data analysis, I engaged in the process of data reduction or what is called sense-making through open-coding or inductive analysis which involved identifying, coding, categorizing, classifying, and labeling the primary patterns in the data. This descriptive phase of the data analysis was followed by the interpretive phase during which I extracted the meaning from the participants' responses, making comparisons among those responses. Rich quotations from the interview transcripts were used both to illustrate how the categories were constructed and to strengthen the credibility and authenticity of the research findings[13].

Member checking was also conducted to increase the credibility of the research study. I sent the research findings to the participants, asking them to make comments or suggestions on my descriptions and interpretations of their responses. None of the teachers disagreed with the presentation of their viewpoints in this research study. A university professor also read the research findings and offered some minor changes for the constructions of categories on the basis of the participants' responses. Those suggestions were applied to the final revision of the research findings. Finally, the research findings were presented on the basis of the emergent themes with the illustration of concrete examples from the participant's own words.

[13] Rather than employing quantitative researchers' jargons, qualitative researchers prefer to use their own terms to communicate what is meant by reliability and validity in quantitative research. Some researchers even argued that determining the quality of qualitative studies via quantitative concepts or criteria such as internal and external validity is not only irrelevant but also misleading (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551). However, the term validity is used by some researchers in relation to qualitative research. Schwandt (1997) defined validity as the extent to which the qualitative account accurately represents the research participants' views of social phenomena and is credible to them. Likewise, reliability is defined as the extent to which the qualitative study provides an "understanding" of a situation, setting, case, program, or event that otherwise would be confusing and enigmatic (Eisner, 1991, p. 58). Lincoln and Guba (1985) used the concept of dependability to refer to reliability in quantitative studies (p. 300).

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This research study had two interrelated research topics, one on teachers' conceptions of history, and the other on teachers' pedagogical orientations toward teaching history, so the two components of the dissertation will be presented in two parts respectively.

Part I

Teachers' Conceptions of History

Teachers' conceptions of history were examined and analyzed in light of teachers' answers to the questions aimed at eliciting teachers' definitions of history, teachers' views of historical knowledge, teachers' perspectives on the role of imagination and theory in historical knowledge construction, and teachers' views of the differences between academic history and school history. The questions that teachers answered are as follows: How do you define history? What are those characteristics that distinguish history from other types of knowledge or disciplines (What are the characteristic features of history as an academic discipline)? Do you view history as an art or a science? What is your perspective on the place of imagination in historical explanations (Should imagination have a place in historical explanations? Why or Why not)? What is your perspective on the place of theory in historical explanations (Should a theory play a role in historical explanations? Why or Why not)? What are the differences between disciplinary history and school history? What are the differences between academic history books and school history textbooks? What factors differentiate history teachers from professional historians?

Teachers' Definitions of History

Five categories of the definition of history emerged out of the analysis of teachers' responses to the question of what history means. These hierarchically ordered conceptions are (1) history as a nation's memory, (2) history as a story of mankind, (3) history as an enactment in one's mind of the past, (4) history as a study of change and struggle over time, and (5) history as an interpretation of the past. Explanations of each category together with the quotations from teachers' responses follow.

1. History as a Nation's Memory

In this category, history is defined as a nation's memory in the form of recorded events of the past. The concept of citizenship and nationalistic elements underpin this definition of history. In his attempt to conceptualize history, Teacher 1 said:

> Pretty much anything happens from here… from what I have just said five seconds ago that the beginning of time is history…. I tell my students that history is pretty much a nation's memory. People determine what they will do, how they will conduct themselves, what is right, what is wrong about their experiences. So, a nation has to have a memory and a nation's history is its memory. It learns from its mistakes hopefully, it records things that are done, that have been glorifying or good itself for its citizens, for the world and it conducts itself based on those experiences.

What comes to the fore in this definition is the focus on the nation and its past. The teacher defined history in relation to a nation's past experiences more than the experiences of the people of the world, so a nationalist element strongly manifests itself in this definition. The teacher only slightly touched on the world when he said "It records things that are done, that have been glorifying or good itself for its citizens, for the world."

There is a clue in the teacher's response to the question which might explain why the teacher defined history more in national terms than global terms without taking into account the world people's experiences. The teacher said,

> In my forceful situation I teach more American history than I do world history. I cannot teach everything that has happened from the time that European settlement on North America to 2005, in the time I am allotted. So, what I have to do is to try to teach important facts, teach the places they must know.

The implication of this response is that the institutional context in which the teacher teaches restricts rather than enlarges or expands his view of history. The coverage-oriented, state-mandated social studies curriculum that the teacher has to implement and the standardized tests that focus more on US history than world history seem to lead the teacher to be concerned with both meeting the external demands imposed on him and helping students learn the basic facts and places in the face of obligation to teach a large number of historical topics within a limited time period. But, this quotation might explain only a part of the reasons why a strong nationalist element came into play in his definition of history. There are such other reasons as his general philosophical outlook, either as liberal or conservative, his philosophy of teaching, political orientation, past school experiences, etc., that most probably have a stronger influence on his view of history than the external forces mentioned above.

The concept of citizenship is implicit in the teacher's response as well. The teacher saw history as a reservoir of people's experiences to be used as guidelines or an illuminator to help people conduct themselves in the present. The connotation of citizenship in this definition is not surprising given that citizenship is deemed to be the major goal of social studies curriculum and instruction.

Another feature of this definition of history is its implicit utilitarian outlook. The teacher's perspective can be said to be characterized by a belief in the study of the past with utilitarian aims in mind. The teacher said, "It [nation] learns from its mistakes." This means that history should serve a practical purpose by helping people distinguish the right from the wrong and determine how to conduct themselves on the basis of the past experiences. In the discipline of

history, there has been a central debate among historians as to whether historians should study the past for the sake of producing historical knowledge or for some utilitarian purposes and aims. Some argue that having utilitarian aims does not allow the historian to understand the past as it is and thus presents a distorted and subjective view of the past (Tosh, 2002).

Lastly, what is missing in this definition is the human element or subjectivity embedded in historical scholarship. The teacher does not touch on the role that the historian's frame of reference, values, gender, race, ethnicity, academic training, and biases play in the historical endeavor.

2. History as a Story of Mankind

As opposed to the previous definition of history in which a strong nationalist element comes to the fore, this definition of history does not draw on nationalistic terms and concerns. Rather, it is by and large more comprehensive and global than "history as a nation's memory" in that it defines history more globally as the total experiences of the world's people or humankind. According to Teacher 2, "History is what happened yesterday. What happened yesterday is history today…. History is humankind's recorded past in written form, from the beginning of time when writing was invented." Teacher 4 and Teacher 9 provided more elaborate and specific definition of history than Teacher 2, who emphasized the form of history as recorded events of the past. Like Teacher 2, Teacher 4 also made reference to the invention of writing, seeing it as a starting point for history. In addition, he touched on the historical remnants used to understand the past. Teacher 4 stated, "History is a story. Man's journey from the earliest ages, after writing was invented. We can learn from artifacts and archeologists, and recorded history gives us a greater insight to what mankind has done through the ages, and how we get to where we are right now." The basic feature of this definition is that it views history as a story of people in the past

and emphasizes the trajectory of the past events and human development. Teacher 9's definition of history was more comprehensive than the other two teachers'. She said:

> To me, it is a story of people, their lives in the context of chronology and important events, what's going on environmentally, socially, the day-to-day life of the people and the historical events such as wars and certain events…. I am more interested in the flow of events and why and how people played into that and how that affected people.

So, Teacher 9's definition encompasses some important concepts and terms of the discipline of history. Her view of history focused more on the themes and procedures of history than its form. She differentiated among different components of the object of history, emphasizing the cause-effect relationship and the roles of the historical agents in the development of historical events.

3. History as an Enactment in One's Mind of the Past

This definition emphasizes the connectedness of the past, the present, and the future, and the enactment of history in one's mind retrospectively. Highlighting the role of hindsight and retrospective thinking in understanding the past, Teacher 5 said,

> History to me means things that are in our past and things that are yet to come. I think history is again things that occurred in our past. But, it is also things that are yet to come. And that's what I tell kids in my class when they ask about what is history. I tell my kids, you are living in history. You know as you walk through the past, I think you are living in history. You know, you look back many years from now, you live, you live in history.

What is implicit in this understanding of history is the idealist approach to history. The idealist view of history puts an emphasis on the re-enactment of the past in the historian's own mind.

4. History as a Study of Change and Struggle over Time

Change in the past, impact of the past, and interaction among people and with the environment are prominent themes in this category. This definition is culture-oriented and characterized by a multicultural perspective. What are emphasized in this definition are the

experiences and cultures of the world's people rather than a nation's. Interaction among different cultures in the world and subsequent changes in cultures come to the fore in this definition. In other words, the focus is on the cultures and interaction and subsequent changes in society. Teacher 3 defined history as "events that have taken place in the past in our areas of life…. How the world has changed, and how cultures have changed and how people have interacted with each other, and how that affects the society today. It is a definition also of history."

So, sensitivity to other cultures comes into play in shaping Teacher 3's definition of history. This teacher's race and ethnicity or his past experiences as an African-American might have affected his view of the past. Discrimination against people of color and minorities is a well-known notorious phenomenon in the US. The majority of black people in the US experience discrimination in a variety of forms in different aspects of their lives, so this African-American teacher whose culture is somewhat different than that of White-Americans might have developed a sensitivity to other people's cultures. Teacher 7 and Teacher 8 also emphasized the interaction of different sorts and the change in different aspects of the past. But their responses were less comprehensive than Teacher 3's response. Teacher 7 stated, "The study of human events from the time that we consider humans. The focus is on the change of events. I think it is cultural, it is political. There are all types of different ways to bring it down." Teacher 8 gave a brief answer by defining history as, "The passage of humans and their interaction with one another and their environment."

Teacher 11's definition of history was broader and more elaborate than the other three teachers'. In addition to change in the past and the impact of the past on the present, Teacher 11 stressed people's struggle across time to overcome the difficulties facing them in order to ameliorate life conditions for themselves. She said:

> I think I look at it from a chronological point of view, maybe the chronological study of the past events and how those events impacted not only the past societies but how those same events impacted today's generation…. I also look at the history as being the study of change over time, no longer are things the way they used be, and to see how that change, how change evolves, even today the way we are presently…. And also I look at history as a love study in the lives of people. And to see how, when you look at history, studying in the lives of people and seeing how individuals have overcome, I mean, regardless of what ethic or racial group it is, how they just, that particular group overcomes so many, many challenges, and obstacles and events. I am still in admiration as to how they did it. I am still in quandary as to why did not they just give up and say, oh I can't accomplish this, but, just the tenacity of the group and how they strived to accomplish it if they felt that their particular group needed in order to feel, or sense of being an American and the challenges they faced.

As is the case for Teacher 3, this teacher's race and ethnicity, African-American, may have also shaped her view of history as a struggle against hostile conditions, given that African Americans confronted so many formidable challenges such as slavery in the past and had to struggle to surmount them.

5. History as an Interpretation of the Past

As the most sophisticated definition of history, which is defined in broad terms and characterized by a holistic approach and a multidimensional perspective, this view takes into account the way historical accounts are constructed by the historians; that is, it considers both the process (e.g., gathering data, checking the authenticity of sources, marshalling evidence etc.) and the outcome of historical endeavor. This view recognizes the two components of historical accounts, both objective and subjective elements, in the process of the construction of historical explanations. In other words, this view of history sees the whole rather than just one part of what history is about. It also differentiates among different interpretations of the past in terms of the quality and substance of those different interpretations without falling prey to relativism. Multilayered definitions of history drawing on different aspects of history as a discipline color this perspective. The responses of Teacher 6, Teacher 10, and Teacher 12 fit this category.

Teacher 12 very briefly defined what history meant to her. Though her definition of history was very short, she was able to pinpoint the most important feature of history, its interpretative character. She said, "History is the events of the past, just what really took place, not necessarily one interpretation of the past." Teacher 10's view of history also reflects an understanding of history as an interpretative endeavor in addition to expressing a common-sense understanding of history. She said:

> I will define history as the past events, the study of past events, as quickly as five minutes ago being history as much as, you know, two thousand years ago being history. Anything that occurred in time will be history…. I think everybody's history is different. I think history is about their personal, and I think people conceive history. History is something that is not necessarily concrete perceptions of history are going to be different. How I view history may be very different from the way you view history. Even though the facts are the same, how we interpret it is going to be different.

Of all 12 teachers, Teacher 6 provided the most sophisticated definition of history as follows:

> The simplest way to define history is to say history is the interpretation of the past. I don't think that all interpretations are equal. History is more argument, an argument about what impact the past has on the present and what impact may have on the future and so, you have to gather data, you have to gather the best information you can and then you build an argument. So, in one sense, when I say it is interpretation, history is an argument. It is argument that people built. It is not an argument about events. It is argument about patterns. It is argument about meaning. And some arguments are better than others…. I think that it seeks to be objective. It seeks for that. But, it is very difficult to achieve. By the way, if you don't seek that objectivity, why even bother to do, to begin with. You might sit back and say, oh, he thinks this, so I think that…. I don't agree that it is completely subjective. But, I do believe that it is possible to determine that certain things happened in an objective sense. I don't think that people want to argue over whether someone like John Kennedy was killed. I think people can place that in objective history. But, what happens when we move away from that, you know, nobody really wants to talk about those things anyway. They don't want to talk about what was the meaning of his death. What was the impact of his death? And that's where you get into interpretation…. We can find in looking back what arguments we once thought to be very very valid are no longer valid. And as a result, we will dispose of them. But, that does not mean that they were not useful but they were not found effective in different periods of time ended.

This definition reflects an understanding of history as a dynamic discipline**.** In this view, history is basically defined as interpretation or argument about the meaning of the past events

with an emphasis on the impact of the past on the present and the future. According to this view, because history is an argument, it is subject to being revised, replaced, or invalidated by better arguments and thus it can never be a complete argument; that is, history is not absolute. This definition recognizes that even though a subjective element is embedded in historical writing, history strives for an objective explanation of the past. Since history is an interpretation of the past, interpretation of one era is likely to be different from that of another era too. That is, history is a dynamic discipline and historical knowledge is not static but subject to change as time goes on.

The above categories are neither discrete nor linear but hierarchical which means that the elements of lower categories are also found in the upper category, the most sophisticated definition of history. For instance, like lower categories, the upper category, history as an interpretation of the past, also includes such components of history as the study of the past events or the study of human experiences. But, it also adds another dimension to the definition of history by emphasizing the role of interpretation in historical explanations. That is, it recognizes both subjectivity as well as objectivity in historical knowledge construction. As a matter of fact, these five categories can be put into two overarching categories as "a study of the past" and as "an interpretation of the past." The former is characterized by fragmented and partial understanding of history as a common sense understanding of the past (i.e., a study of the past events, cultures, and people chronologically), and the latter is characterized by a sophisticated and nuanced understanding of history as an interpretation of the past.

The majority of teachers in the first category did not recognize the role that subjectivity or the historians' perspectives (along with their biases, background, gender, ethnicity, nationality, academic training, social and cultural climate of a given era) play in constructing historical

accounts of the past events, people, institutions, and processes. The epistemological implication of the first category of responses is that these teachers implicitly hold on to a naïve or realist view of the world, viewing history as objective knowledge. These teachers also did not seem to be cognizant of the fact that history is the subject and the object of its own discipline. In other words, the discipline of history refers not only to what happened in the past but also to the act of writing about the past. This point is missing in most of these teachers' definitions of history.

Teachers' Views on the Characteristic Features of the Discipline of History: What Distinguishes History from Other Disciplines?

The most commonly found pattern in teachers' responses to the question about the characteristic features of history as a discipline is the tendency to answer what is basically an epistemological question from a practical and pedagogical point of view. That is, rather than look at history as a discipline or domain of knowledge, the majority of teachers looked at history as a school subject to teach and answered the question by drawing on their experiences in teaching history. For this reason, almost for every teacher interviewed, I had to reiterate that I was asking them to answer the question not in terms of teaching and learning history but in terms of historical knowledge production or the way historical knowledge comes into being as a discipline. As a result, except for Teacher 6 and Teacher 10 (Teacher 2, 9, and 12, to some extent), the majority of teachers had difficulty seeing the distinctive features of history as a discipline. Some teachers even confessed that the question was rather difficult for them to answer and gave a rationale regarding their difficulty articulating their thoughts about history as a discipline (I have put some interview extracts at the end of categories of responses to illustrate the difficulty teachers had). They said that it was reality that was governing their days rather than theory and that they were dealing with the practical world. Therefore, their rationale implied that

they did not see any point in bothering themselves with conceptual and theoretical questions or issues in their teaching. It was abundantly clear from their responses that they did not see the relevancy of intellectual and conceptual foundations of history as a discipline to their profession and professional development.

As is the case in the teachers' definitions of history, another common pattern in teachers' responses is the lack of attention to the process through which historical knowledge is produced. More than half of the teachers looked at the outcome of the historical knowledge construction process without taking its process into consideration or mentioning the forces that shape historical writing. That is, rather than see the whole relationship or the interplay among the past, the recorded past, and the historian, i.e., both the process and outcome, they see a part of the relationship among different aspects of history. Their responses did not touch on the human element involved in the construction of historical knowledge. The majority of teachers did not talk about the interpretive nature of the discipline. Five teachers, Teacher 2, 6, 8, 10, and 12, recognized this point. Some teachers who talked about change in history did not view history as absolute. However, they did not look at historical knowledge itself or the way it comes into being but only considered the changing nature of its object of study, human experiences, actions, beliefs, values, and institutions. For instance, Teacher 3 said, "History is something that I think changes over time. You do chemistry or whatever is still chemistry. It [history] keeps changing, so it is always different, and new things can be added to it." They basically looked at the changes in historical events themselves and did not see the effects of those changes on human perceptions, intentions, thoughts and actions, and on historical knowledge production. The epistemological implication of this view of history is that teachers hold on to the objectivist epistemological worldview along with a naïve or realist conception of history as a discipline.

Most of these teachers resorted to comparison as a conceptual aid to facilitate their thinking about history. They usually compared history with the natural sciences in terms of the topics and issues each domain of knowledge deals with. What transpired through their comparison of history and science is that natural sciences deal with natural events and phenomena whose laws, regularities, and the mechanism governing the natural events can be found. Still, their comparison of history and science did not help them much to pinpoint the distinctive features of history. Seeing science as absolute, teachers again failed to see subjectivity embedded in scientific knowledge as is the case in their view of history. They did not seem to recognize that scientific knowledge is tentative, subjective, socially and culturally embedded in scientists' frames of reference, i.e., theoretical frameworks along with socio-cultural variables affect the way scientists study chemistry, math, physics and so on to produce scientific knowledge.

While explaining the characteristic features of history or what distinguishes history from other types of knowledge or disciplines, teachers' answers focused on the reasons for the existence of history as a discipline, the benefits of historical knowledge, and the purposes that historical knowledge can serve.

Characteristic Features of History

Analysis of teachers' views of history as a discipline resulted in seven categories. Teachers explained their views of the discipline of history in terms of (1) the object of the historical study, e.g., the content or topics of history, and its characteristics, (2) the nature of history, (3) the methods of historical study, e.g., distinctive features of historical questions, (4) the focus of historical study, (5) the possibilities and limits of historical knowledge, (6) the forms of historical knowledge, and (7) the benefits of historical knowledge. Explanations of each category and the quotations from teachers' responses are as follows (see Figure 4.1).

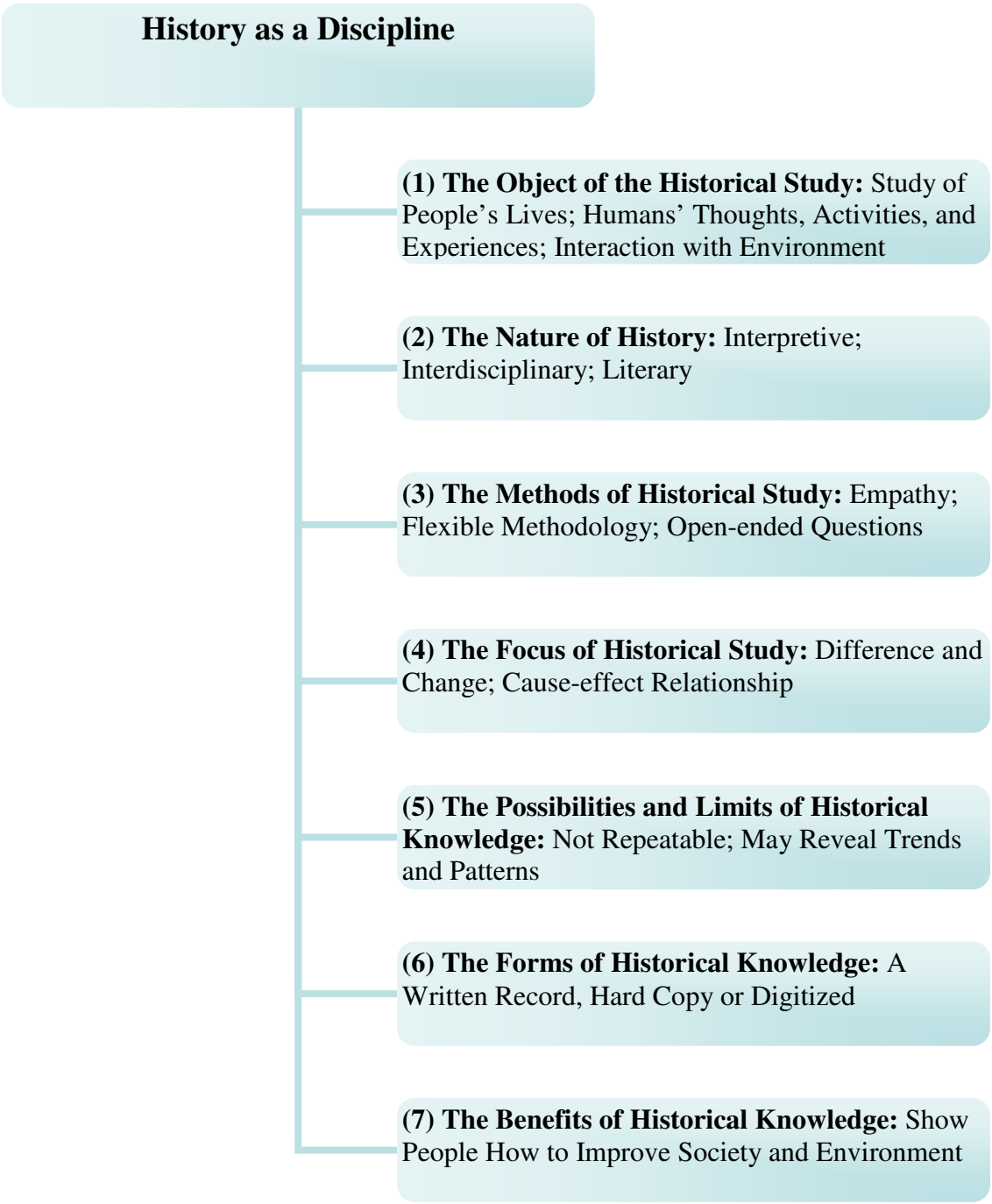

Figure 4.1 Teachers' views of the characteristic features of history as a discipline

1. The Object of Historical Study: Study of People's Lives

More than half of the teachers emphasized that the content of history is different from other types of knowledge. They stated that history deals with humans' thoughts, activities, and experiences and lives in general together with their interaction with environment as its object of study. Emphasizing that history is the study of man's experiences within society, Teacher 1 said, "We just look at it from a factual sense from the experience of people, their lives…. It is more a study of how humans have interacted with their environment and how we could do it better based on our experience." Likewise, focusing on the causes of the historical events, Teacher 11 said, "I look at history as a love [emphasis] study in the lives of people…. So, history is different from other disciplines in that you are looking more at people…. Why people did what they did?" The following teachers also made similar comments on this aspect of history.

"We can look at how people have done things or how people viewed things in the past and hopefully understand why people viewed things the way they view today." [Teacher 2]
"History deals with man's opinions, man's experiences, man's reactions." [Teacher 4]
"What really stands out to me is the fact that it touches upon all, I would say, all aspects of life." [Teacher 5]
"History is based on experience. It is based on observation." [Teacher 6]
"Again, just going back to it being revolved mostly around human and their interactions with nature, with each other." [Teacher 7]
"It is a sort of people. It is a sort of human." [Teacher 8]

2. Nature of History: Interpretive, interdisciplinary, and Literary

Some teachers considered the nature of history by looking at the way historical knowledge comes into being and the way it is presented by the historian who draws on the tools of different disciplines to construct historical knowledge.

A. History as an Interpretative Discipline

Less than half of the teachers mentioned the interpretative nature of history. Teacher 2, 6, 8, 10 and 12 recognized this aspect of history. According to their responses, history is basically an

interpretative discipline, and thus characterized by multiple perspectives. Historical knowledge is not absolute but is tentative and subject to change. Historical knowledge also has objective and subjective components. It is open to new interpretation and revision, so history is a dynamic discipline. Teacher 8 only briefly drew attention to the interpretative nature of history when she said, "I think that things are changing. Events can change but perspectives flow or continue to change. Whereas science like Chemistry is just concrete. You know [history is] living, breathing." Making an implicit distinction between the objective and subjective components of historical knowledge, Teacher 2 stated, "History is not an absolute. History is under constant revision. There are some facts that we do know, happened, that are undisputable," and then pointed out where different readings of the past springs from by saying, "The reason said for [why] those events occurred is always subject to interpretation. Someone looking back says well it is, we see it differently than we did ten years ago." Likewise, Teacher 12 highlighted the diversity of viewpoints in history, tying whatever is involved in the construction of interpretation such as cultures and geographic regions to the human factor. She said,

> Different points of view you get in history…. The human element, I think it is the biggest difference between history and other disciplines…. It is more about personal, and people I think than you see in the other disciplines. It is more about human perspective than eye-mind of nature…. Places, you know, are going to guide it, cultures are going to guide it, but to me, all that comes back to the human element, it will be either the time or human element. So, it is the biggest difference.

As already indicated by his lucid and cogent definition of history, Teacher 6's foremost emphasis was on the subjective component of history. Stressing the importance of understanding the author's viewpoint, he said, "You have got to understand the perspective of the historian and be very familiar with their processes…. By looking back on the past, re-interpreting, re-arguing what has occurred, we are arguing the meaning." Giving a specific example to illustrate why she thinks history is open to interpretation, Teacher 10 said,

> Math is very concrete. One plus one is two. Math is not going to change that. The concepts you are learning in math are going to be the same. But, history, as I have just said, is going to be very different because of your interpretation. I can say that the Civil War began because of the slavery issue. That's what I think. But, you may think it began because of, you know, economic factors between the North and South. In both, I think it is the matter of interpretation. History can be interpreted so differently. But, there are, I mean, there are concrete things about history as well. You know the little elements of oxygen are always going to be that. They are not going to change. But, as you discover things about history, it changes. I think history changes constantly as you discover new things. You know, I think different conceptions of math will not change the value of pi. But, when different historians discover new things, they may change your concept of how things happen and why things happen. I think, it is constant changing. History changes so frequently.

B. History as an Interdisciplinary Endeavor

The responses of Teacher 2, Teacher 5, and Teacher 6 highlighted this aspect of history. Teacher 2 said, "History encompasses a lot of other disciplines. I mean you can talk about history in terms of history of economics, history of government, military history." Likewise, Teacher 5 said that the intersection between different ethnicities and cultures necessitates that history benefit from other disciplines to better understand different aspects of human life. Teacher 6 also made similar comments. He said, "Historians draw on all of those. They draw on sociology. They draw on economics [to] try to help them understand the past." So, the content of history is more comprehensive than other disciplines because it is related to all aspects of human life. For this reason, history draws on the theoretical and methodological frameworks of the other disciplines, so it is interdisciplinary.

C. History as a Literary Activity

Teacher 1, Teacher 6, and Teacher 12 drew attention to the literary aspect of history. They said that history is similar to story telling in terms of presentation. For this reason, it benefits from literature for communicative purposes to get perspectives across to others and to make better arguments for convincing people. Teacher 12 briefly and implicitly mentioned the literary

character of historical writing by saying, "I believe they get characteristics of story, and different points of view…. It is more about stories and perspectives." Seeing a close similarity between history and English, Teacher 1 said, "We are studying writing…. They study literature to see the experience of men, to see what he has written about it." Teacher 6 provided the most eloquent explanation about why history is a literary activity in terms of the presentation of information, viewpoints, or arguments:

> It is much more difficult to separate it from the other disciplines like literature because some history utilizes the qualities of literature when you are trying to [make an argument]. You know, there are many ways to make an argument…. It is harder for me to distinguish it from literature and in many respects I don't want to distinguish it from literature because literature and styles of literature offer a great deal for I think, for people who want to communicate their understanding of the past to others in a way that [get] other people to listen…. I think the best historians draw on literary skills to communicate to people.

3. Methods of History

Several teachers touched on different aspects of the syntactic features of history. Implicitly referring to historical empathy, Teacher 1 said, "We are studying what people have done before, from their perspective." So, what Teacher 1 indirectly stated is that historical knowledge construction involves empathy. Making a comparison between historical methodology and the methodologies of other disciplines, Teacher 12 said, "Where in science or math, in grammar, it is one set of rules, where in history it is different, there are not necessarily guidelines or rules." So, she thought that historical methodology is more flexible than other disciplines'. Likewise, Teacher 5 pointed out the open-ended character of historical questions. He said, "How [do] we end up with so many ethnicities and so many different languages? And, that is an open-ended question. What do you think about that? Is there a correct answer to that? How big is a correct answer?" So, Teacher 5 thought that historical questions are open-ended and more than one correct answer can be given to historical questions. Teacher 2 mentioned the role of significance

in shaping writing about history. He said, "You have to determine what is significant. And someone else [will] probably do that before we get, we tackle that issue and answer that question before me." His response implied that because there is an extremely large number of historical sources in different forms such as documents, remnants, artifacts, etc., history is selective of those events that are deemed to be significant in terms of its effects on people's lives. That is, the criteria for selecting events for the production of historical knowledge are based the significance of those events under consideration.

4. The Focus of History: Difference and Change, Cause-effect Relationship

Some teachers' responses revealed that the focus of historical studies is on the change and differences or the otherness of the past with an emphasis on the cause-effect relationships among events which is the most central part of historical explanations. Drawing attention to the changes over time and the effects of the past on the present, Teacher 11 said, "I think one thing with history, you are focusing in on events and people, and you are focusing in on the change over time and how those changes have made our world a little bit different in some ways from the ways it was previously." Likewise, comparing history with other disciplines, Teacher 3 stated,

> History is something that I think changes over time. We are talking about other disciplines, it uses science and English or whatever sense, it is still sense of the way you do chemistry or whatever is still chemistry, but history is different…. this is just because history changes…. So, that's how I think it is different, it [history] keeps changing, so it is always different. And new things can be added to it.

Teacher 12 also referred to the focus of history when she said, "You have different movements, you have changes, change of the day characteristics, history, and tradition at the same time." Teacher 7 and Teacher 9 talked about the cause and effect relationship in history. Teacher 7 said, "History is just kind of written about how we have gotten about these things over years…. so you need to understand how one thing leads to another…. History [is] a kind of look

at trends and see what is going to come next." Teacher 9 made similar statement. She said, "The flow of events and why and how people played into that and how that affected people."

5. Possibilities and Limits of Historical Study

According to teachers' responses, history does not lend itself to experimentation because the past is gone and cannot be repeatable. Historical knowledge can reveal patterns and trends in human thoughts, feelings, intentions, and actions. History may or may not predict the future (there is no agreement among teachers in terms of their views on whether history can predict the future).

A. History does not involve experimentation

Comparing the content, methods, and aims of the sciences with those of history, Teacher 1 said, "We do very little experimentation here.… We are not searching for finding a cure for a disease. We are not talking about a number of new chemicals. We are not looking to find new genes of a plant. There is nothing like that." Teacher 4 also considered the substantive and syntactic differences between history and science. He said, "The sciences deal more with the experimentation, discovering natural laws, such as the laws of physics, absolutes." Likewise, Teacher 6 said, "We are not able to establish historical experiments in the same way which you can establish [via] a scientific experiment**.** It is not testable in the same way as what we might call hard sciences."

B. History can reveal patterns and trends

Teacher 4 and Teacher 7 argued that certain trends and patterns in the past can be discernable by means of history. Teacher 7 briefly touched on this by saying, "History [is] a kind of look at trends and see what is going to come next." By this, she meant that by tracing the historical development of an event or events (or examining similarities among the past events), the

historian can make judgment about the possible consequences of those events in the future. Teacher 7 elaborated on his answer. He said, "I do believe that history repeats itself. Certain trends continue throughout history. Human beings' emotions and actions are similar through history, but never exactly the same."

C. Historical knowledge may or may not allow prediction

It is again Teacher 4 and Teacher 7 who talked about whether history allows prediction or not when explaining the characteristics features of history as a discipline. These two teachers' perspectives on this issue differ from each other. Teacher 4's view of human nature came into play in shaping his perspective. He said, "It is very difficult to predict history because whereas in science you can predict the results of an experiment. You can't predict the future of mankind because you are dealing with human beings. How very unpredictable creatures." As opposed to Teacher 4, Teacher 7 thought that history may help predict the future. She said, "I think that you can connect things and trying to predict what might happen in the future based on something in history. Whereas it is a little harder… to predict what is going to come in the future of literature writing." These two quotations show that the analogies or comparisons to which teachers resort to facilitate their thinking when confronted with a difficult epistemological question affect the kind of perspective they take on and the kind of response they come up with.

6. Forms of Historical Knowledge

Teacher 2 and Teacher 7 mentioned the forms historical knowledge may take. Teacher 7 briefly stated the written form of history by saying, "Our history is just kind of written about how we have gotten about these things over years." Teacher 2 gave a differentiated response. He said that history is a written record in different forms such as hard copy or digitized record. He also

pointed out that the way history is recorded changes as result of technological development. He put across his perspective as follows:

> The distinctive feature of history is a written record.… The way that we record and the way we store history today is certainly changed a lot than the way early human recorded history…. Today we have a lot of history that is digitized because of technology improvements. History is recorded digitally on tape, in terms of photography.

7. Benefits of Historical Knowledge

Some teachers' views of historical knowledge reflected an understanding of how that knowledge can be used to benefit people in the present. According to their responses, history has practical application in everyday life. Teacher 5 said that the study of history helps people learn how to adapt to their environment. Likewise, Teacher 1 stated that history shows people how to improve both society and environment through the study of the past people's lives and their interactions with their environment. In other words, history helps people ameliorate human conditions in the present. Teacher 2 also said, "We can look at how people have done things or how people viewed things in the past and hopefully understand why people viewed things the way they view today." So, history helps people understand the present better. Teacher 10 mentioned the benefits of history in terms of its potential to develop the human mind, i.e., the study of history is conducive to critical thinking. She said,

> Definitely, it is a subject that allows for critical thinking, developing critical thinkers out of students. And I suppose all academics can do that. History is much more open to more avenues of developing critical thinkers and having people to be able to think about why they believe in certain things…. I have thirty students, I have thirty different opinions. And so, I think the creativity aspect is much more prominent, I think, in history, the study of history.

Before presenting the next section, I will present two interview extracts to illustrate the difficulty teachers had in the face of epistemological questions:

Interview with Teacher 1:

Interviewer: You can reflect on and then answer the question.

Interviewee: Thank you very much.

Interviewer: You know, this is a question of reflection. You can think of the characteristics of history as an academic discipline.

Interviewee: This is a difficult question for a classroom teacher to answer…

Interviewer: I know…

Interviewee: …because we have never thought about it. This is not a question that we usually get as far as we deal with the practical world. I do not usually [*brief pause*], I am not a researcher

Interview with Teacher 9:

Interviewer: When you think of history as general. What are the distinctive features of history as a discipline?

Interviewee: Well, there is a chronology. There is a time organization that students have to attend to (As is the case for most teachers, this teacher also answered every question in terms of teaching and learning through her experiences in teaching). There are also those conditions. There is, I look at history as answering big question as far as you know what was man like during that time. And that's where it all blends to me at this point I really look at history as far as what I do in this class. There are some key terms that students have to understand, key manipulations with the time framework.

Interviewer: What are those characteristics that distinguish history from other types of knowledge or disciplines?

Interviewee: I use the chronology for the historical application. But, I apply all different kinds of social sciences. I will use anthropology, sociology, economics, you name it, try to put everything together, so it all is used for an understanding.

Interviewer: I would like you to think of history in terms of knowledge construction, not in terms of teaching and learning…

Interviewee: Okay.

Interviewer: I am trying to look at your epistemological view of history, as a discipline not as a subject to teach.

Interviewee: Okay. As far as I remember nobody asked that. I haven't been asked about the historical part of the conceptualization.

Interviewer: You can draw on your experiences in teaching history or your knowledge base in history.

Interviewee: Okay. Well, now stop it for a second (The teacher asked me to stop recording the interview and I did. We had conversation for around 6-7 minutes. During that time period, she basically said she had difficulty answering the question).

Interviewee: I have been away from college classrooms for thirteen years. So, I just did not think of what you asked…. Because we are so much into the delivery [teaching] almost, it is hard for me to pull that take apart [laughs], and I did not realize that you asked me this question [laughs], and that's why I am going, oh, my gosh!!

Teacher' Views on Art vs. Science Dichotomy in History

Out of 12 social studies teachers, 9 teachers (75%) viewed history both as art and science, 2 teachers (Approximately 17%) as science, and 1 teacher (8%) as art respectively, so the majority of teachers see history both as art and science. As is the case in teachers' responses to the previous conceptual questions, most teachers answered the question by drawing on their teaching experiences. Many teachers referred to the history courses they were teaching when explaining their views of history. Teachers' rationale for why they think history leans more toward art was more articulate than their rationale for why they think history is science as well. Teachers generally had difficulty distinguishing different components of historical knowledge production or the process through which historical knowledge comes into being. Analysis of teachers' responses to the question asking whether history is art or science yielded the following reasons why they think history is (1) both, (2) science or (3) art respectively.

1. History as Both but Leaning more toward Art (9 Teachers)

A. Why is History Art?

According to teachers' responses, history is art because it studies people's experiences, thinking, thoughts, ideas, and beliefs which are subjective in nature, deals with human nature and creativity, requires creative thinking and empathetic understanding of the past people's thought. It communicates research findings in the form of (a) imaginative writing which involves creativity on the part of the historian and (b) story telling. The historian's views, opinions and understanding are embedded in historical knowledge. History involves argument and interpretation and there are different ways of making arguments about the past. For these reasons, historical knowledge is very tentative, subject to revision and modification or a complete change. Because history is not repeatable, it is difficult to prove and validate one's

historical understanding. Since historical sources are fragmented, those data bits need to be tied and connected through imagination in order to fill in the gaps in history.

Teacher 11 identified history both as art and science without giving a rationale for her answer. She just said, "I really can't answer that question as to whether I see it more as one than the other. I just know, art and science, both play into it. And I have never really thought about it, which of one do you see more of than the other." Seeing the presentation of history as story telling, Teacher 1 said that he tends to view history more as art than science. He further stated that since the historians study the past people's experiences through literature, they are actually studying writing, by means of which people express their feelings, so history is "more art than science." As is the case for his responses to other questions, Teacher 4's understanding of human nature shapes his view of history as more art than science. He said that because history "deals with the human nature, human creativity, human thought, and ideas" and "those are creative things, not scientific," history falls more into the humanities than the sciences. Teacher 5 also drew attention to the role of creativity and imagination in historical endeavor. Seeing history as cross sectional, both art and science, he said,

> The art part of that is just a sort of creativity, imagining the thought process that people…. The writing aspect of it is the creative aspect of it because you are actually using what you found in your research. The presentation aspect of it also goes to the art aspect because they are there for you present to the others and you are sharing information as well as your own views in some regards of what you have found.

Teacher 9 also stated that she probably leans more toward the art side because imagination is necessary "to be able to tie the pieces of historical facts and people together that might not fit otherwise." She also viewed the delivery part of history as art because "sharing information with the audience" entails an artistic approach. Likewise, Teacher 10 brought the role of creativity in history to the fore when she explained why history is both art and science. She said, "Art is, to

me, very free, very open-ended, and very creative, and very unstructured. And I think history can be a lot of that as well, I think it can be very free in thought and creative in nature and reflective." Emphasizing that historians "can't necessarily go back and prove it," Teacher 7 said, "because people are putting or analyzing, looking at, and making their own understanding of it," history is more an art than a science. Teacher 12's view of history as an interpretation of the past events had an impact on her view of history more art than science. She elucidated why she thought so:

> I still think it is an art because it is still based on a person's interpretation. And interpretation, to me, is definitely an art…. And, one person that enters an historical event and another person that, I mean different perspective, when you study that, you know, you are going to study both sides of it, but you are still left to interpret. Which side you think, you know, appeals to you more, which leads more open to art to me. The older I get, the more I realize that there are so many different interpretations out there.

By making use of the dance metaphor and of an example to make his thinking concrete and comprehensible, Teacher 6 gave the most elaborate explanations as to why history is both art and science but leans more toward the art side:

> I would say it is both. If I was forced, you know, if somebody comes to me and puts a gun to my head and says, you got to choose, you got to choose, I think I would go with it as an art. When I say it is an art, it is because when something is an art, to me, it means you can do something over and over again each time to do it. You can make something new out of it…. History is tentative because it involves argument. And, we can argue the importance of Abraham Lincoln. And we can argue at once and come up with why this is important. You can argue it again and you come up with, yeah, he is important for that reason. He is also important for this other reason. And they may be both equally important. You can go to the same argument and come up with a slightly different conclusion. Much like an art for someone, the dancer. Sometimes I like to use this example. When they do the dance, you can anticipate exactly what they are going to do. But, if all they do is to completely repeat, everything they have done the same way every time over and over again, they are merely a technician. But, the supreme dancer is usually able to, I would say, is able to bring something new to the same dance every time they do it just as a musician, a violinist. You know they can play the same piece. You know what to expect, but there is something about the way they play each time. They bring feeling into them. Everything they do may not be new. But, there is an openness to what I would call creation in what they are doing. And I think the best history has that.

B. Why is History Science?

Teachers see the research process associated with history such as gathering and analyzing data, marshalling evidence, etc., as the scientific part of history. According to their responses, history is science because (a) historical data needs reasoning about and analysis of the past people's intentions, thoughts, beliefs and actions; that is, the mind has to act upon the historical data, e.g., events, people, processes; and (b) historical research involves the basic methods and steps of scientific method to answer a historical question and to prove a historical claim through evidence. History involves identification of patterns in the past through the application of in-depth, systematic, on-going research and data gathering. History explains the mechanism behind historical events or causal relationship among historical events and processes. Explanations of long-term historical processes and changes require the application of theory or doctrine and a search for patterns among events to make generalizations. History produces theory that may be changed upon new information and establishes facts. Lots of historical data allow history to have predictive power; i.e., making generalization is possible when enough data are available for the historian to work on. And history involves critical thinking and critical questions.

Teacher 4 stated that history has a scientific part as well. But he could not delve into why history is science as well. From Teacher 1's perspective, the analysis of historical data along with reasoning is what makes history science too. Giving a specific example from his own teaching to indicate why history has a scientific component, Teacher 1 said,

> When I read, I have my students read the speeches of Abraham Lincoln from basically the 1837 all the way [to] 1865 selections of speeches all during that period. That is more than art to try to analyze what this man is about and what he believes and therefore what he does and how he acts. I think it is more than art.

According to Teacher 7, the scientific aspect of history springs from the basic historical research process, verification of information and theory building on the basis of historical facts.

She said, when "people go about finding out history or going back and researching, they use a lot of scientific methods to do that, just the basic reasoning and steps when you go through the science, you do the same to answer a historical question." She thought that because history deals with the past which is not directly accessible, it takes a lot to go back and prove historical findings and claims. She also added that historical explanations are a lot of times based on theory that she thought comes from facts. Teacher 10 made similar comments, seeing an iterative relationship between facts, evidence and interpretation. She said, "I see science as being more concrete and factual study, you know, this is the evidence. This is what you are going to interpret. There is a lot of evidence to leave to interpretation." So, she thought that critical thinking is needed to interpret evidence. Likewise, Teacher 9 saw what she called the establishment of facts through ongoing research as the scientific part of history. She articulated her thoughts as follows:

> You have to have more the scientific approach for information so that it is valid and based upon facts. I would have to say in, in doing research for history would have to be more the scientific approach. It has to follow certain approach. You can't just be chaotic, you know, pulling together, totally based on your feeling…. I think history has to be based on established facts. And that's the criteria, you know, what is the established fact and facts that we go through? Upon new information, more and more research change what we have learned. It is an ongoing process. It can never stop. Things are investigated. So, some of those facts are going to be emergent facts that we may not even be aware of. In my opinion, there is the further back you go in the past, the fewer facts there are.

Teacher 5 also saw the research process or methodology of history as its scientific part. He said,

> The scientific part is kind of research because it requires that you go, you seek knowledge, and you go more in depth….When doing in depth studies, you have to find resources, you have to get your ground work first before you can test anything and that's one of the things that history allows you to do.

Referring to the changes in people's thinking or doctrine and the changes from "simplistic way of living by pre-historic man to modern day living… into the industrial revolution," Teacher 5 also said, "Those aspects are the scientific part." Teacher 12's view of the scientific aspect of

history focused more on the use of generalization or simplifying historical processes in addition to mentioning the establishment of facts through evidence as other teachers did. She said,

> There is science behind it because you have to study, you know, there are facts and elements to go through. It is a science when it comes down to [*brief pause*], trying to simplify it. I think at times you are left to conclude and judge and try to fit everything into a nice little box like we do in science. I think that you get into scientific element there, trying to study different things and weight which way it goes scientifically.

Teacher 6 again gave the most elaborate, articulate, and comprehensive answer by looking at the different components of history. According to his response, certain routines in historical methodology, identification of patterns and trends in history to be used to make generalizations or predictions, have history take on a scientific character. Re-employing the art metaphor, he explained why history has a scientific element as well:

> I think it is both because a technician, when I was describing artistry and this means technically adept. There is a technical aspect of what they do. A technician is much more scientific in their approach. If you are learning to dance, you can have the long foot step and put them out on the floor. It needs to go there. And so, you have those technical or scientific aspects. They have mastered those so completely that they don't have to stay focused on those technical elements of what they are doing, that those things come naturally to them or out of habit and I would say that component is very scientific. It is repetitive. You do it over and over again. So, it happens just like a scientific experiment. You are trying to find out what has to take place first…. The scientific component has to do with, with the attempt to gather data, to gather data and to identify patterns in the past. When I say it is scientific, you have to search for patterns**….** We might say that science is a search for theory or you know, conceptual networks that allow to predictive power where you can say knowing this, this will happen and I think there is that element in history of what people want to do with history…. If you have got lots of people out there that we are looking at, lots of data, our predictive power goes up. We can't say what any particular individual is going to do. When you get enough individuals, we can say which way the group is more likely to go. And in history, when you focus on the events, you reduce your predictive power. When you focus on the five hundred years period, you increase your predictive power. But, it is hard to focus on the five hundred year period. But, we can look around what goes on in the world around us and see broader patterns. The question is, how do you deal with it effectively? So, in that sense, I think history really needs to be scientific. But, it can't focus on the events because if it is science, it leads to the power to predict. I don't believe you can predict what is going to happen in the future with any degree of accuracy for a single event. But, if you have enough events, the predictive power goes up. I think the base for most historians has broadened over

> time. And I think that makes the work more valid or prediction or generalization. So, in that sense it can be science. That's why I said you don't pull it apart.

2. History as Science (2 Teachers)

Why is History Science?

Two teachers, Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, saw history only as science. According to their responses, history is basically science because history involves (a) research methods rather than creativity and (b) reasoning process to explain what, why, and how things are happening. Like other teachers who saw history as science too, Teacher 2 also considered the methodology of history or a historical investigation through a systematic research to identify history as science. He said, "I think there are fairly standard rules of research and the principles of research that are applied to history, historiography as its methodology. As a result of this research process, history acquires a more scientific character." He thought that the primary source the historian examines to find answers to a historical question "pretty well speaks for itself." From Teacher 3's perspective, it is the mechanism behind historical events and processes that characterize history as a science. He said, "I see it as a science because science is more of how things happened, why they happened, and science… is able to approve things happening. I don't see art in that respect. I see art more as themes and dance."

3. History as Art (1 Teacher)

Why is History Art?

Only one teacher, Teacher 8, saw history as an art. She saw history as an art because it involves human element, perspective, feeling, and bias, because it is not exact or absolute but keeps changing, and because historical events can't be repeated:

> Art, because of human factors. History though, it is primarily changing because of the human aspect and so, I actually see it as an art, as a perspective. Historical events cannot be repeated.… I think that understanding human experiences, struggles, pleasures, can I

avoid that? But, I don't know there is a place for that**.** I mean otherwise you can't do that. Everyone has a perspective and everyone has a different bias, where they come from, how can you not put your own feelings or the attitude to the work. I think art as emotional and expressive. And I think, science as an exact.

Teachers' Views on the Place of Imagination in History

Analysis of the teachers' responses to questions about the place of imagination in history resulted in four categories. The first one consists of direct answers to the question posed. The second one is composed of the side effects of the failure to employ imagination when studying the past. The third one is made up of the pedagogical benefits of imagination in history classrooms. And the last one, as a composite category, comprises the preconditions for being able to successfully engage with imagination and the difficulties that might be encountered when practicing imagination. What follow next is the explanations of each category followed by quotations from teachers' responses.

Why is Imagination Needed? Rationale for the Place of Imagination in History

The teachers provided the following multidimensional rationale for why imagination is necessary in the study of history. Imagination is needed because the past is gone and it takes imagination to:

- be able enter into a different time period, to put oneself in someone else's place in history or to empathize with the people of the past to have an empathic understanding of their mentality and situations (Teacher 1, 3, 4, 6, and 12),
- understand what those people's thoughts, motions and reactions were, including dictators and leaders such as Hitler and Saddam Hussein (Teacher 4 and 6),
- understand one's enemy (Teacher 6).
- get insight into the negative experiences and situations of the past people who were discriminated against, e.g., understanding the discriminations, suffering, and the struggle that the minorities like the blacks went through (Teacher 11),
- better understand people of different cultures, cultural interactions and cultural changes, and to make an informed guess about the consequences of the interaction among different cultural groups; i.e., to be able to analyze or identify the consequences of complex social phenomena involving different cultural groups' interactions (Teacher 6),
- avoid presentism on the part of students; e.g., the modern world, its characteristics, and its conditions are so different from previous time periods or eras, "a world without

electricity, world without modern technology," that students are unlikely to gain a real understanding of the past without imagination (Teacher 4),

- feel the gravity of the events (Teacher 1),
- to understand the remote times such as ancient history. The more remote the time period is, the more imagination is needed to understand that era (Teacher 2, 4, and 6),
- envision what the future might be like (Teacher 6),
- be able to create a story (Teacher 1 and 8),
- create a more accurate picture of the past (Teacher 2),
- make historical writing readable and easy to follow (Teacher 12),
- build an argument about a historical figure (Teacher 6),
- facilitate and substantiate historical thinking, to give meaning to the historical documents or to make the past understandable and intelligible (Teacher 1, 2, 3, and 6),
- make an educated guess in order to fill the gaps in understanding and the gaps in historical documents in the absence of enough historical data (Teacher 2, 8, 9, and 12),
- help people refine, change, and re-consider their perspective and come up with a new understanding of the past events and people; i.e., to have history open to interpretation and revision to get a better interpretation of the past (Teacher 2, 6, and 9),
- help society move forward or to make progress in historical explanations(Teacher 9),
- play with information so as to increase the quality of historical argument or explanations (Teacher 6),
- solve crucial and complex problems more effectively than other ways or strategies and to make informed political decisions on today's issues through counterfactual questions of "what if…" (Teacher 6).

Quotations that illustrate the participants' rationale for employing imagination in history are as follow:

Teacher 1: *I think the study of history involves imagination of a great deal. It takes imagination to be able to empathize and sympathize with the characters in history. I try to teach students to put themselves in the place of someone's history. That requires pretty well-developed imagination. They have to not only imagine what it was like to be in the time, so they have to imagine the surroundings of that time. What that's like to be there. And how would it feel to be there.*

You know every year when we study the assassination of John Kennedy, I have a film we are looking at…watching John Kennedy. You know her husband was shot for the first time. She hears that. She looks at it. She is looking at him right in the face when the second bullet hits him. What was that like? can you imagine how horrible that has got to be? How could you live with that afterwards?

In order to get that and to feel the gravity of the events, then they have to employ imagination to be able to do it. If they can't do that or they are not willing to do that, then history becomes a very sloth memorization exercise.

Teacher 2: *I think the study of early history sometime will lead one to use their imagination to make an educated guess or to try telling blanks where there are gaps in knowledge or gaps in understanding.*

There are times when you have to use your imagination if you have, if you have a gap that you cannot fill in with facts that you have to sometime use your imagination to try developing a theory or developing understanding as to what happened between the time that we have facts here, facts here, what happened then in the space between.

That is just a human instinct to try to have a continuum to have some continuity, to have a seamless move across time, not just these gaps that we don't have anything. You have to use your imagination at time to try to fill it in. Someone may agree with your imagination. Some may not.

It leads us open to interpretation. Therefore, it leads history open to interpretation. And time can lead to revision of how we see it.

Teacher 3: *I think it should because imagination is what we have to what we have to use to put ourselves in history because we don't know what it was like without putting ourselves in the past. You have to get them to imagine in these different times and different places in history, so to do these things, you need to use imagination.*

Teacher 4: *A vivid imagination is the key to understanding history. We have to, to put ourselves in the time frame that we are studying as best as possible to understand what those people thought, what their motions were, what their reactions were.*

Teacher 5: *When writing papers and doing research I was pulling information from other sources here goes the imagination right there [laughs] because I think I am like at the same time, I was questioning and looking at it from imagining like if this is how things are applied.*

I think it does. I think it goes with more in depth thinking. I think you know if we just stick to what is there and then we are missing so many other things. I think that it allows the expansion of the thinking process and it leads you to question so many things. And I think that trying reflecting a lot of others, you know, especially after you have done so much research and gained some knowledge about some area, then reflecting through [their eyes?] and trying to say how could this possibly come? I think that's a vital part of history.

Teacher 6: *If you have all these stuff out there that everybody might agree on, the question is what does it mean? And how do you get to what it means? I think imagination is important there in that you play with information. It plays for quality*

As you have multiple cultures interacting, I would say it takes a tremendous imagination to try to consider what will be the result of those kinds of mixtures, variables, or different groups of people

I think it takes imagination for people to sit back and say all right, let's not talk about the next year or the next ten years. That's important, you know, and we don't know is where is going to go. What might be like a hundred years from now, three hundreds from now, it takes imagination to think about that. How can somebody think about it who is an American? How can somebody think about it who comes from a Muslim country? They have to enter into the mind of the other culture.

Imagination is creativity. It is openness. It is willing to consider what is that other perspective like.

…To try to envision what the future might be like by studying history,

Rather than asking counterfactual, what if from the past, I think the historian needs to use from counterfactual what if? What if we do this? What might that mean for the future? What if we do that? I think history, the world history, is trying to inform those kinds of political decisions people make today. What if we lived under these circumstances? What if we don't live? What if we stay there and do this? Those are the [feeds] of imagination

When you are looking at past events, well, if I want to build an argument, I am trying to think, when we are trying to construct an argument about an historical figure, it takes imagination I think to try to enter in to a different time period. What would be it like to be a Civil War soldier?

How does a guy from the United States who grew up in the nineteen fifties and sixties enter into the mind of a Spartan citizen? Well, some people say it can't be done. You can't do that. I would say, yeah, it is hard and there is a limitation to it. But, If I want to be able to use that knowledge in some way, I have to somehow imagine what it was like to be that person. I might not do a good job of it. But, if I am going to share it with students in the classroom, I need to be imaginative about it. So, it is important for not just understanding other cultures today

At some level you need to empathize at some level with people like Saddam Hussein without necessarily supporting him. But, quite often quite often, people are criticized for empathizing too closely with notorious figures from the past or the present.

But, the idea you have to know your enemy. If you viewed the world in terms of friends and enemies, well, I would say it is better to know your enemy than your friend. You know, know your enemy because that is where the danger would come from. How do you know your enemy? You got to empathize with. You got to, you got to get into their head and actually I think empathizing opens the door for solving the problems in a way it goes beyond whether people are enemies or friends, that they can resolve some issues more effectively in that way.

Teacher 8: *Depending on what purpose. I think that understanding human experiences, struggles, pleasures, can I avoid that? But, I don't know there is a place for that*

I mean otherwise you can't do that. It is, everyone has a perspective and everyone has a different bias, where they come from, how can you not put your own feelings or the attitude to the work.

Otherwise it is going to be a list of simply facts. To fill in these gap, you are going to have to put feelings or imagination and then to create a story.

Teacher 9: *It [imagination] has to because we have to make some assumptions We have to make it, you know, trying filling in the gap. But, we always have to acknowledge and be ready to say that this may be inaccurate, you know, as more evidence surfaces*

We re-evaluate [to] get a better interpretation, not re-interpret but we continue to interpret something available. But, I don't see how we can progress without sound creative thinking. That is the imagination. That is creative thinker. But I also think that it should something to be re-evaluated. It is not the final, it can never be. But, I think it can help us move forward.

I don't see how you can separate it once you have some feeling of empathy for the people that you are looking at or the civilization. So, I am not saying it should have a place but I don't see how it can be separated.

I think as far as my assimilated information, I think it is going to be a part of it, a small part not necessarily a large part. I think it is going to be there. And I am not saying that you should strive for that.

I am just, you know, looking at the classroom and I know the kids who have empathy for certain people have information, they are more open then to, to, maybe, maybe encounter, redefine their opinion, their perspective of something. Empathy, they can be thinking about the religion of Islam that students have been investigating and that some of them, I know, walk in here with negative stereotypes and they have to have empathy for people and coming away with a whole different understanding of the religion and different groups of people may understand that religion and I don't see how you can evolve them without having some.

Teacher 10: *I think, a, in a sense that people put themselves in that place and make them, have to imagine is that what, how I would react to that situation.*
Teacher 11: *I think so. Again we just moved to Rosa Parks. You know can you empathize with what they were going through? Can you kind of see why, you know, the blacks at that time were experiencing? Can you empathize with Native-Americans? Why did they want to keep their land? So, I think empathy and being empathic to a group can help you have a better understanding.*

And sometimes you can understand from the standpoint I don't agree with what happened, I don't agree what they did. But, I see why they did. You have to say I want see why.
Teacher 12: *I think it has to because nobody, none of us were there. So, sometimes we have to fill in the blanks. And although there is document but you get the feeling, you know, because nobody was there you can't feel the feeling of historical event.*

I think but I mean I think that is the only way to get students interested in it. I think also, you know, in writing a book, you know, historical book, I think you have to empathize with the people of the time in order to make it a good read, really. I think that's, you know, to appeal to our emotions, make us feel that historical time period better. And more open to understanding the time period better, especially when it comes to the events that we don't necessarily understand, you have to be able to see it from that person's point of view without trying to judge them.

What happens if imagination is not employed in historical explanations?

Teachers' responses to the question asking the place of imagination in historical explanations revealed that if imagination is not employed in studying the past, history becomes difficult to understand. People who engage with history cannot connect with people in the past or see the relevancy of the past to the present, as a result of which history becomes a meaningless memorization of a lot of dates, names, and places. Consequently, history becomes a boring school subject. Without imagination, students also are likely to have difficulty developing historical understanding, as a result of which they cannot learn from the lessons of history. Ultimately, their ability to view the past from different angles or creative thinking might be hampered and the thought process become fixed. Pointing out the need to avoid teaching history through memorization, Teacher 1 said, "In order to get that and to feel the gravity of the events, they have to employ imagination to be able to do it. If they can't do that or they are not willing to do that, then history becomes a very sloth memorization exercise," as a result, history is destined to be seen as a boring school subject. Teacher 1 also stated that students cannot learn the lessons

of history if they do not apply imagination in their lives. Teacher 4 thought that making use of imagination is one of the preconditions for understanding the difference between the past and present. He said,

> To understand history, kids have to try to, as best as possible, put themselves in that kind of frame of mind. If you can't use your imagination and try to imagine what it was like before these modern conveniences, then it is very difficult to understand history, I think.

Likewise, Teacher 5 emphasized the role of imagination in helping students think about the past creatively. He said, "If you can't have that imagination, you just only screw that one thought process and it takes away from your creativity, therefore takes away from your production of whatever."

The Benefits of Using Imagination in History Classes

Half of the teachers' views of historical imagination incorporated the benefits of history in facilitating teaching and learning history. These teachers' responses encompassed the role of imagination in helping students develop their motivational or affective and cognitive capacities. According to teachers' responses, imagination first of all helps history come alive in students' eyes by helping the teacher show the relevancy of the past to the present. Through imagination, students understand how and in what ways the past connects to their lives. In other words, the use of imagination helps history become interesting, engaging, understandable, and meaningful by connecting the past with students' lives. As a result, history becomes not only an interesting subject for students to learn but also an easy course for teachers to teach. History becomes fun for students. Imagination sets the stage for students to think of other points of view as well. Students can develop an attitude of openness to other perspectives and a willingness to listen to others' points of view; that is, it helps students become open-minded. It helps students get rid of or at least reduce their biases against other ideas and cultures.

Imagination is also a cognitive tool to make historical knowledge acquisition, storing, and retrieving relatively easy. Students remember more easily what they study in history when their imaginations are activated. It facilitates students' cognitive information retrieving process by helping them better remember historical events, people and places. It helps them modify their cognitive schemata and come up with a better understanding of those cultures and people against which they have prejudices or biases; that is, it helps students avoid seeing the world as black and white through dualistic thinking. It makes students actively involve with the past and develop their critical and creative thinking skills. It also helps students develop their reasoning skills and find better answers to "why" questions in history.

Teacher 12 pointed out the role of imagination in motivating students to learn history. She said, "I think imagination is the only way to get students interested in it." Referring to instructional, cognitive, and motivational functions of imagination, Teacher 1 said, "If they can imagine themselves there, if they can see it happening, if they can engage with it, then I make history a very easy course because then it becomes a story that you are a part of. And you learn it because you remember it. It is fun." Teacher 8 highlighted the importance of imagination in terms of its potential to help history come alive and help students experience meaningful learning experiences. She said,

> I think whether you want it to or not, certainly when teaching students, using the imagination will make stuff more meaningful to them if they can picture the surrounding or the setting or the characters or the people involved so. Otherwise it is going to be a list of simply facts. To fill in these gap, you are going to have to put feelings or imagination and then to create a story.

The comments of Teacher 9, Teacher 10, and Teacher 11 focused on the role of imagination in helping students develop certain critical thinking skills and habits of mind such as a disposition of openness toward different viewpoints, cultures, and ways of living. Having a

critical history perspective and being interested in helping students confront the past with its all aspects without hiding undesirable events and people's mistakes, Teacher 10 drew attention to the importance of imagination in helping students develop their critical and creative thinking. Taking a historical story book from the table and then opening it, she said,

> Chapter called encounter. And it is a book, a fictitious book. It is based on somebody's imagination, imagination of what an Indian boy felt like when Columbus came in, destroyed their society, or how he interpreted this person coming. It was imagination. But, it was used in order to get students to think about different points of view…. It does not change the facts of what happened but, it kind of gets them back to critical thinking involved in imagination…. I think imagination helps them think about what life might have been back there, back then. Or imagine what life would be like without certain things that they have, so in some way I think imagination is directly tied to creativity.

Likewise, Teacher 11 explained how imagination can help students understand and empathize with those people who are historically discriminated against, suppressed, or silenced. As an African-American teacher, she again focused her attention on the black people's experiences, giving an example from her teaching to illustrate her perspective:

> Again we just moved to Rosa Parks. You know, can you empathize with what they were going through? Can you kind of see why, you know, the blacks at that time were experiencing? Can you empathize with Native-Americans? Why did they want to keep their land? So, I think empathy and being empathic to a group can help you have a better understanding.... And sometimes you can understand from the standpoint [and say] I don't agree with what happened, I don't agree what they did. But, I see why they did. You have to say I want see why.

Teacher 9 also argued that the use of imagination is one of the best ways to provide students with the opportunity to confront, be aware of, and then reconsider or change their world views when needed. She said,

> I am just looking at the classroom and I know the kids who have empathy for certain people have information, they are more open then to encounter, redefine their opinion, their perspective of something. Empathy, they can be thinking about the religion of Islam that students have been investigating, and some of them, I know, walk in here with negative stereotypes. They have to have empathy for people and coming away with a whole different understanding of the religion and different groups of people may understand that religion.

Conditions for Imagination to Take Place and Difficulty with Imagination

When explaining their views of historical imagination, some teachers talked about what it takes to practice imagination and what obstacles may be confronted during imaginative engagement with the past. According to their responses, an open mind, creative thinking, a willingness to consider other perspectives, an intention to get a better interpretation of the past, and a long time period are needed to be able to imaginatively engage with history. They stressed that historical facts such as people's names, dates, and places should not be distorted and judgment of the past people should be avoided when imagination is used. The tentative nature of historical explanations also should be made explicit. Standardized testing, time constraints, and coverage-oriented curriculum are seen as obstacles before practicing imagination in history classrooms; that is, those factors prevent history teachers from helping students enter into different time periods through empathic exercises.

Considering the difference between the past and the present, Teacher 4 stated, "It is hard to put ourselves back in the condition of these people hundred years ago to try to understand why they reacted in the ways that they did." Teacher 6 also pointed out the same difficulty with imagination by saying "It is [being] willing to consider what is that other perspective like. That's difficult for, I would say, most people are not able to do that. That's just the way people are. Some people say it can't be done." And he explained why that is the case for some people. "To empathize with past people, past cultures. You know a lot of people have trouble with that because they believe that if you enter into that, you are going to lack judgment about what they did." Referring to judgment of the past people and events, Teacher 12 said, "You have to be able to see it from that person's point of view without trying to judge them." Teacher 8 also stressed the need to avoid presentism or imposing today's values on the past when practicing

imagination. She said, “It is easy for us to put today’s values on them or slavery or any social injustice.” She thought it easy for teachers to “do that with diversity” and expected teachers to be concerned with the distinction between fictitious and historical books. Teacher 7 pointed out the difficulty with the use of imagination with sensitive issues. She stated, “If you are talking about something… like whether it is a holocaust or slavery, just going back to something that is wrong. I think it could be hard for someone to take an empathic view on either one of those events.” And she added that imagination can be employed to understand the past “as long as it doesn’t distort the facts, as long as it is not moving away from the truth that is considered true by the authorities that would be basically people, places, dates, times, things that can be recorded.” Teacher 9 also emphasized the importance of the accuracy of the historical information used in imaginative exercises. She said, “We always have to acknowledge and be ready to say that this may be inaccurate as more evidence surfaces. We re-evaluate, get a better interpretation, not re-interpret but we continue to interpret something available.” She also said that creative and sound thinking is needed to successfully engage with the past imaginatively. Lastly, Teacher 12 drew attention to the external constraints on teaching history with the help of imagination. She said,

> I mean in teaching it, you have to be careful [to] not bring in too much imagination though…. I am judged so much on tests, whether it is on the teacher or not, I am judged a lot on tests and how my students do on tests and so, I have to make sure that they get the facts or at least facts according to what the state says the facts are.

Before I go on to present findings on teachers’ views of theory in historical explanations, I would like to note an interesting observation about the way teachers answered the question. Some teachers engaged in interactive thinking while answering the question. This was most evident in Teacher 5’s responses. Teacher 5 constantly revised, modified, and sharply changed his statements on his conception of history when trying to answer the question on the place of imagination in history. This teacher holds a B.S. degree in history and has eleven years of

experience in teaching history. Still, he had difficulty articulating his perspective on the role and place of imagination in historical knowledge construction. In response to the question, he at first remarked that imagination should not be used by historians, but later, as the interview went on he changed his perspectives by saying that imagination does have a place in history. The following extract taken from his interview transcript shows how he was changing his perspective while trying to articulate his thoughts on the issue:

> ***Interviewee:*** No.
> ***Interviewer:*** Why shouldn't imagination be used during historical knowledge production?
> ***Interviewee:*** [*Long pause*] I think [*long pause*] because when you are doing that research which is we said is the scientific part, when researching, I am going back to writing papers in history in college in my master's studies. When writing papers and doing research I was pulling information from other sources [*brief pause*], here goes the imagination right there [laughs] because I think I am like at the same time, I was questioning and looking at it from imagining like, if this is how things are applied, then why I couldn't have, **so I take that back**. Yes, imagination is…
> ***Interviewer:*** So, imagination has a place in historical writing.
> ***Interviewee:*** Yes, it does, it does because if you can't have that imagination, you know, you just only screw that one thought process and it takes away from your creativity, therefore takes away from your production of whatever. It does have a place.

This quotation provides and substantiates evidence for the findings of the previous research on teachers' beliefs. Teachers' beliefs are tacit and teachers may not be aware of their beliefs without reflection.

Teachers' Views on the Place of Theory in History

Teachers' answers to the question of imagination were more sophisticated, more elaborately reasoned, and more detailed than their answers to the question of theory in history. Teachers seemed to be confused about the difference between a theory and perspective or interpretation. Except for Teacher 6, other teachers could not even name a specific historian or historical theory in their explanations. Almost half of the teachers saw imagination and theory as intertwined with each other (Teacher 1, 5, 6, 8, and11).

The teachers gave the following reasons for why theory is needed in history. Theory in history is needed to be able to:

- explain causal relationship among events by providing answers for the "why" questions, i.e., theory explains the mechanism behind the process (Teacher 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, and 12),
- make one's explanation coherent; that is, theory serve as a framework to organize and relate information to each other by helping people put ideas together through such ways as categorizing and classifying (Teacher 3, 5, 8, and 9),
- understand complex historical processes, ideologies, and institutions (Teacher 1).
- simplify or generalize historical events and processes (Teacher 12),
- provide focus on the historical topics being investigated (Teacher 3 and 9),
- answer big questions on events of high caliber or important historical phenomena (Teacher 1),
- understand different aspects of a story or historical event, i.e., seeing the whole rather than the part (Teacher 12).
- understand big concepts such as democracy, market economy, systems of government (Teacher 1),
- get a different perspective or ideas on issues being discussed (Teacher 8 and 12),
- stimulate thought and discussion (Teacher 8),
- grasp how a given system works such as political systems or systems of government and to understand the conflict among different political systems –the state's policy or diplomacy, the international politics etc. (Teacher 1 and 3),
- explain where history starts and where it goes, i.e., speculative approach to study history (6).

Quotations that illustrate the participants' rationale for employing theory in history are as follow:

Teacher 1: *I do not think it is as important as imagination. But, in order to be able to understand for instance, if you are an American history student, then you are trying to learn why the United States has conducted itself as it has, why policy has formed as it has. The, it is important to understand theories of democracy and free government. You have to understand Adam Smith to be able to understand market economy. You have to understand John Locke. We teach John Locke and the theories of the social contract, of the right to rebel. That's extremely important.*

Then, you have to understand the ideas of the two theories to be able to compare them and then it goes back to a imagination then

How is it that people who are running these governments feel this way, follow the John Locke idea? How did they then react to somebody who is trying to run a government by the Marx's idea? And what did these people that are running the theory of Marx do to build, to expand that to other places?

Teacher 2: *It turns [up] when you are seeking to explain something for the first time, you have to come up with theory. How you are going to try explaining something.*

Teacher 3: *I think that helps put things in categories and describing them. So I think that helps us focus on whatever the topic is. You also have theories of how government came about.*
Teacher 4: *I think we are doing a lot of revision of history now based on what people think was the reasons for things. So there are a lot of theories of the first causes of civil war.*
Teacher 5: *Theories just, in many cases, are someone else's perspective of how things may have come about to a certain degree or how things may have transpired. It requires you to do more in depth research over a period of time.*

So, I think it does, it really has a place. I think that being able to relate and try to bring those thoughts together, you know, it is a vital part of history.
Teacher 6: *I believe theories are important. I think history is about theory building. I think historical theory is possible. I think that most historical theory that we are presented with has been so general as to be almost, almost pointless. What was Toynbee with his organic theory of history? It is like life. We have what I would say pieces of theory, but I don't think anybody, maybe that I just have not read enough, I haven't run across anybody who has put them all together in quite the same way. I am trying to remember the name, Ibn Khaldun. The historiography professor called him non-western perspective on history and yet very important perspective on history that emerged. You have theories of how history works. The City of God projects a dynamic for history. You know, where history starts and where does it go.*
Teacher 7: *I think there is definitely a room for it [laughs] because that's where half of our understanding comes from, from the theories.*
Teacher 8: *Because there are not define answers. The theory has to, it is just using imagination. And it is about arguing what has been done before us. You can either argue against them. I think the theory is the basis of history.*

And from there, you can get a perspective and, even like the worst book written about history, it usually stimulates our thoughts. People may want to argue against that. I think, yeah, they have to go together.

If you don't agree with that theory, you can form your own by understanding that more. The theory could enhance, yeah, I think it is a necessary tool. You know, it is a guideline to argue for something.
Teacher 9: *I think it's, it's the guide for us to be able to explain. It is the guide. It is the framework. You have to have an initial plan, framework and I think it is existing there. And scientific procedure has to have a framework, otherwise you would end up contingent all the time. And I think that helps people focus on what they are trying to investigate. I think the framework has to be there first.*
Teacher 10: *Theory. Okay, yeah, I think so. There is a place for theory to come into play. People have certain theories about what happened, why certain things occurred.*
Teacher 11: *I am sure it does. Just about everything. There is kind of like an educated guess as to why stuff happened. I think that helps with, when you are talking about the imagination. Guess as to why people think or do or what they had thought against certain things in the past, so yes, theory should.*
Teacher 12: *Show you different ideas. I think it is wrong when you just use one theory and try to explain historical events, I think, you know, that's the problem in history at times as we get only one side of the story and you know, one explanation for why events happened the way they did.*

I think, especially when it comes to teaching, it helps simplifying things, generalize things for my students, but you cannot tell them that that's the only reason, you know, that's the only explanation as to why something happened. I think theories are definitely a good tool.

I would like to present another interview extract to illustrate the difficulty teachers had in explaining their conceptions of history. The following extract is taken from the interview transcript of Teacher 3.

Interviewer: Which part do you view as an art and which part do you view as a science?
Interviewee: How can I answer that? Well, imagination is probably an art. We can do role-playing and things like that I see that more as an art. But, when you are teaching them facts…
Interviewer: I am talking about history as a discipline, not in terms of teaching and learning, just history as a discipline.
Interviewee: [*Long pause*] I am struggling with that. I don't think I can answer it. I don't think I am prepared to answer that.
Interviewer: By the way, this is a very difficult question. This is an epistemological question. I am trying to look at your epistemological view of history.
Interviewee: Right.
Interviewer: So, I understand this is a difficult question. But, I would like you to try to put some effort into answering this question if you can..
Interviewee: Maybe if you can ask questions about the school, I can answer them. But, I don't know if I can articulate. But, ask me a question that can help me give the answers that you need. Or give me more information.
Interviewer: You know, historical knowledge, you can take into account the process
Interviewee: Right.
Interviewer: In order for historical knowledge to come into being, it needs to be processed. And, the ones who produce historical knowledge are historians.
Interviewee: Right.
Interviewer: Professional historians. They go to the archives. You know, they go to the primary sources and look at them and then write an account of what happened in the past.
Interviewee: Right.
Interviewer: So, there is a person, historian. There is a source. And there is also an event which happened in the past. So, there are a sort of interplay between the historian, primary sources, and events in the past. Primary sources are not history. They are records.
Interviewee: Right.
Interviewer: So, when you think about all of these factors in historical knowledge production, which part of history do you view as an art? Historians also present their findings. Presentation is another part of the process of historical knowledge production. You know, writing. I mean researching and writing. These are almost the basic tools used in historical knowledge production. Research and writing.
Interviewee: Which part of history do I view as an art and which part? What I said it was a science. Sometime it is art. But, I have never, never thought about it in that context. So, that's why I am still struggling.
Interviewer: I see. I appreciate that.

Comparison of Disciplinary History and School History by Teachers

- **Differences between Disciplinary History and School History**

Teachers pinpointed a lot of differences between academic history as a discipline at universities and school history as a subject in secondary schools. Teachers see differences between the two types of history in terms of their orientations, the ways they are presented, e.g., teaching approach, treatments of topics etc., the setting or the context in which history is taught and learned, including institutional constraints that affect history education, and resources used. The categories in which teachers responses are put are not mutually exclusive but overlapping. Explanations of each category along with the quotations from the participants' responses are as follows:

Differences in Orientation:

Orientation emerged as the main difference between disciplinary history and school history. Many teachers' responses fall in this category. According to the teachers, disciplinary history is characterized by specialties; that is, academic history is divided into specialties on a particular time period or event. For this reason, it has a depth-oriented curriculum which provides various perspectives on a time period or event. Academic history also is more theoretical and research-oriented, as a result of which it demands more critical and individual thinking. Focusing on professional standards and techniques, disciplinary history aims to enhance historical scholarship by producing knowledge and developing theories. Instead of being hidden, values of different sorts are openly argued in disciplinary history.

On the other hand, school history is characterized by survey-like courses and has a coverage-oriented curriculum which puts an over-emphasis on memorization rather than higher-order thinking. School history is more teaching-oriented and pedagogical. For this reason, it is

concerned with how to make history comprehensible for secondary school students and how to match the curriculum with student developmental levels and learning styles. Since school history is prescriptive, it purposefully avoids arguing values. It basically aims to socialize them to society in which they can find a place. It also aims to prepare students for higher education. Extracts from teachers' responses that fit this category are as follows:

Teacher 7 pointed out the difference in the treatments of the content of history. Pointing out the constraints on school history teaching, she said,

> The main difference between disciplinary history ad school history is the depth....When you are in college or university, you are focusing on just one time period or one particular event. I mean, whereas in school history, you are asked to cover, you are asked to teach huge amount of history in a short period of time with more obstacles.

She also saw school history as simplified version of academic history and as a course aimed at providing students with "a lot of the tools that they are going to need to work through higher history, to work with more detailed history." Teacher 8 also highlighted the difference in depth vs. coverage orientation to teaching. From a practical point of view, she said, "College course deals with issues at a much deeper level. And high school or elementary, whether it is private or public, history covers issues, in broad terms in one course." Teacher 10 made similar comments on the same issue. Bringing research orientation to the fore, she said, "I believe disciplinary history is much more involved and focused. It generally deals with the research of one particular area of focus whereas secondary school history is broader."

Teacher 9's comments focused on pedagogical considerations. Because high school history classrooms are much more diverse than college history in terms of students' intellectual and motivational levels, the teacher needs to employ different approaches to give students a fuller understanding and catch their attention. So, she said, "The difference here though is tuning in to

the learning styles of the kids, what is going to work with them as opposed to true history, discipline."

Teacher 6 looked at the differences in orientation between the two types of history from a broader perspective and thus pointed out some differences that other teachers did not mention. From his perspective, the main difference was that "disciplinary history focuses on professional standards and techniques. And it is more theoretical. The research based on their perspective of history that is searching for patterns and developing theories." However, the focus of high school history was sharply different than that of academic history. Pointing out the socialization function of schools and the exercise of freedom of speech and thought at universities, he said,

> Our job is to socialize students, using history, not to teach history, but to use history in the socialization process. But, I would say it is primarily for socialization and that drives the curriculum. I think the schools are primarily designed to socialize students to have them find a place in our society for good or for ill…. One is much more overtly valued, I think, high schools are more overtly value-laden and you have values in the colleges and universities among researchers but they argue with each other, write about it. You know, they don't hide the values. They just argue with each other about what ought to be done. It can be nasty. It can also be very creative. It can be very healthy. In high schools what happens is you are arguing about the values children are supposed to develop.

Differences in Presentation of History

Teachers pointed out the presentation of history as another difference between school history and academic history. Their responses indicated that the teaching approach in secondary schools is different than the one practiced at universities. Disciplinary history addresses issues more deeply through primary sources. But it is more teacher-centered and lacks diversity in teaching methods; i.e., less interactive teaching occurs and lecture is employed as the predominant instructional strategy.

On the other hand, school history is textbook-driven and treats issues superficially. In other words, a simplified version of the discipline of history is presented to students. School history

employs more diverse teaching methods. It is more interactive and learner-centered; i.e., different types of learning occur. But, it is more repetitive. A lot of re-teaching and revision take place in secondary school history classrooms.

Taking into account the effects of orientation on the way history is presented to students in two different settings, Teacher 5 said, "I think that how the information was presented to me is a lot different. In college history, you can dig a lot deeper because it is more of concentrated area." Teacher 3 touched on the heavy influence of textbook on history teaching by saying, "School history is textbook-driven." From Teacher 12's perspective, "School history is very simplified. I have to simplify things in order to make sure my kids understand it." Pointing out the diversity in teaching approaches, more active student involvement, and more re-teaching in secondary schools, Teacher 11 said,

> I think in high school, you probably see a lot of diversity in teaching. I mean I go back to school often myself. I don't see from the college classes that I have had, most of them are lecture. Most of them are being, I would say, probably teacher centered in that it is teaching students when they just listen. I think when you come into a high school class or at least to a high school, you are going to see different types of learning.... I think there is more involvement between the teacher and students on the high school level and middle school level and even elementary school level than I see on the college level.... High school sometimes is teaching, re-teaching, and reviewing too much. They don't do that at college.

Differences in Teaching Setting or Context *(Institutional or environmental constraints)*

Teachers' responses showed that there are more constraints on secondary school teaching than college teaching. Secondary school history teachers have more requirements to comply with, experience more obstacles, and work under more constraining and less desirable environments. They do not have enough time to teach a huge number of topics. School history is also influenced by state standards and testing; that is, it is test-driven. From a generic point of view, Teacher 11 said, "We are in high school we just have more requirements." Teacher 5

emphasized the time constraint by saying, "The amount of time that [is] dedicated to that particular subject matter is different in college." Teacher 12 mentioned the external constraint on teaching. She said, "I need to help them pass test." Likewise, Teacher 3 drew attention to the effects of state-mandated testing on teaching. He said, "School history is test-driven. There is the state that sets up standards and says this is what students should know about history to graduate from high school. School history, teach what is in this book so that students can pass the test."

Differences in terms of Resources

Two teachers emphasized the difference in the availability of resources in two settings. Teacher 2 and Teacher 7 respectively said, "School history is not up to date in terms of sources and sources are much more limited in schools than in college." "In college, all the time, you are given more resources."

Differences in terms of Teachers and Textbooks

In addition to eliciting teachers' perspective on the differences between disciplinary and school history at a broad level, this study elicited teachers' views on the same topic at a more specific level by asking them to articulate what differences they see between (1) academic history books and history textbooks and (2) historians and history teachers respectively.

- **Differences between Academic History Books and School History Textbooks**

Teachers are generally suspicious of the textbooks and have a negative view of textbooks in terms of their effects on history education. They see differences in both types of books in terms of the presentation of information, e.g., the perspective, ownership of the perspective, style of presentation, quality of presentation, sources of information, treatment of controversial issues, external influences on publication, goals of publication, and the ways they are used. More

specific explanations of the categories of teachers' responses and views on both types of books follow.

Presentation of Information

A. Perspective or Voice

According to teachers' responses, college or academic history books have a certain agenda, reflect a certain perspective or interpretation of events, be it traditional or social; that is, the voice of the author along with accompanying argument is made prominent or discernable. On the other hand, high school textbooks are mainly characterized by a generic viewpoint which lack a particular voice. Rather than a specific perspective, textbooks put forward a generic point of view on topics and issues presented. That is, they present a blank overview of history by mixing points of view narrowly in order to accommodate every point of view and to make everybody satisfied. Drawing attention to the major purpose of the textbook publication, Teacher 1 said, "History textbooks are written in such a way that they don't piss anybody off because nobody buys them if they piss anybody off…. They are trying to give lip service to every perspective so that nobody gets mad." That is why he thought, "They are written from a very generic point of view." Likewise, Teacher 6 highlighted the same point by focusing on college books instead of history textbooks. He said, "College books are written from a perspective. And I think that's very important. Somebody's argument is there.... For the most part, they have a voice there where you can see there is a perspective."

Both the perspectives of Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 implied that school history textbooks should include different perspectives on the same issue. As opposed to these two teachers' views of textbooks, Teacher 4 and Teacher 8 had a different perspective. They thought that textbooks should be written from a generic point of view. Seeing the academic books as characterized by a

certain agenda, Teacher 4 said, "They look at all the facts and then they come up with their theory or their explanation, their interpretation of the event, and write that point of view, whereas I think textbooks should be more general. I think textbooks, just give me the facts." Likewise, Teachers 8 said, "School textbooks tend to have a broader perspective whereas academic sources are a little bit more opinionated, I would say or easier to pick up, biased, whereas the other [history textbook] tends to be a little more unbiased or just kind of bland overview."

B. Concern with Substantiating Argument with Evidence

Academic books substantiate and back up the information with evidence, whereas textbooks are not concerned with supporting the argument with evidence. Teacher 5 said, "The college textbook again goes more in depth about one particular subject matter… substantiating and backing up the information. The textbook that we use... has less information and less supporting material to go with it." Likewise, Teacher 12 said, "Academic history books are often written about things, events, and then, you write a paper and you back it up with evidence and stuff like that whereas the school history textbooks are going to be fact, fact, fact, fact."

C. Multiple Perspectives vs. White Man's Perspective

While different and multiple perspectives can be seen in academic history books, the perspective that is visible in history textbooks is basically white men's opinions, though that has begun to change in recent decades. Teacher 8 contended, "It [history textbook] tends to be about dead white men from their perspective." Teacher 3 made similar comments. "What they put in the textbook is white male opinions as to how the United Stated evolved." Likewise, Teacher 2 pointed out the same characteristic feature of history textbook by giving a more elaborate response:

> You are going to see the history of the White man. History before 1964 was probably written by White Anglo-Saxon protestant men. But, the 1964 civil law act, you are going

> to see more pictures of women, you are going to see more pictures of African-Americans, you are going to see more pictures of Native-Americans.

D. Controversial Issues (relates to different perspectives)

Textbooks avoid including controversial issues and topics such as the racism, suffering, and discrimination that minorities went through. They depict America nicely, leaving out and ignoring minority groups' experiences. As such, they silence minorities' voices but privilege the White men's actions in the past by hiding their atrocities and discriminations committed against people of color. For this reason, textbooks present an incomplete or half story of the US. They do not tell a real story. Teacher 1 just touched on this aspect of history textbook by saying, "There is no controversy in textbooks." Teacher 8's response reflected a cogent perspective on textbooks. "It leaves out leaves out different groups, minorities, women or other contributors. But, what was really going on? So, it seems to be lacking experiences and characters as well as the overall picture, whereas academic books are good." Teacher 3 was the most critical of the presentation of information in history textbooks. He argued,

> The discipline can get into the issues why, I think school textbook stays away from the issues about racism and things that make America look bad. They will not put controversial issues in the school textbook. They will not tell us the real story. Schools are not going to use real academic books…. If you talk to Native-Americans, they are going to say, you know, I have never seen a school textbook that talks about, they paint a nice picture, they came over here and took Native-American's land and treat them harshly. They will say yes, but we bring Christianity over here. But, they don't really, school does not want to talk about the fact that they did not want to be Christians, then just kill them off and all this sort of stuff.

E. Depth vs. Breadth in Presentation

Academic books treat topics in depth by providing more explanations for how events happened in history, whereas textbooks are superficial and fact-driven. Teacher 2 stated, "The academic history books tend to provide a little bit more explanations of events. History books used high school level are probably going to be more concise and fact-driven." Likewise,

Teacher 5 argued, "In college history, you can dig a lot deeper because it is more of a concentrated area…. The college textbook again goes more in depth about one particular subject matter in a broader way." Touching on the time constraint, Teachers 8 stated, "High school textbooks especially give a really broad overview as American history is covered only in one semester…. It is just the level of depth. High school textbooks are just giving the taste or so." Teacher 10 also made similar comments. She said, "Secondary is a broad overview of history… and deals primarily with the surface of the issues or topics. Academic books generally take a much more focused approach."

F. Level of Language

The level of language used by academic history and school history textbooks is different. Whereas textbook is written at a lower reading level, academic history books demand a higher reading level and require more patience and persistence. Teacher 5 said, "The language written at a college level is basically different. It requires you sometimes to read more…. The textbook that we use is, of course, on a lower reading level." Teacher 7 also pointed out the sophisticated level of reading. "Academic history textbooks are obviously at higher reading level, require more patience, require more persistence to read." Likewise, Teacher 10 stated, "Academic books deal with language that is more specific to the historians' world. Secondary books have to be on a much lower reading level."

G. Style of Presentation

Textbooks have more pictures, charts, and graphs; that is, they are more visual but less demanding in terms of reading. In addition, they have more practice activities and questions for students to do, i.e., they are more student-centered. Pointing out the visual appearance of the books, Teacher 2 said, "The difference primarily the language that I mean pictures, graphs,

charts is used, and the number of pictures that are in." Teacher 7 also highlighted the same point. "School textbooks are a lot more visual, have more practice, have a lot of reading that has to go on in this section." Teacher 11 made similar comment on the visual attractiveness of school textbooks. "A lot of the school history textbooks have activities, a lot of pictures, a lot of charts, a lot of diagrams, even questions for students to ponder. I see the regular textbooks being more student-centered and give students more things to do."

H. Quality of Presentation

Whereas academic books are regarded as exciting and interesting because of the inclusion of multiple perspectives, textbooks are seen as dull, boring and dry because they fail to present multiple perspectives on historical issues. Teacher 6 said, "Some books are very powerful and intriguing. Other history books, most academic history books really are."

Likewise, Teacher 9 stated, "I just think history book, in general of secondary level, tend to be mundane, and tend to be uninspired. And I want to see different perspectives."

Sources of Information

Academic history books draw on many sources and have many quotations which make the voice or perspective clear and discernable. On the other hand, textbooks usually fail to provide quotations. Teacher 5 said, "It extracts information from various sources and chronicles, more documentations. You won't see any quotations within our textbook. They refer back to other books." Teacher 8 also highlighted the same difference between college books and school history textbook. She said, "College history books, there is hundreds of footnotes and different sources whereas history textbooks or American history textbook companies are much more limited."

Influence on Publication

As opposed to academic history books that are more independent of external institutional forces, the content of history textbooks are determined largely by the state through the establishment of textbook standards. History textbooks have to take the state's educational mission and philosophical orientation into account in order to be recognized and certified by the state educational department. For this reason, the author of the textbook has to comply with the state's perspective on history or what type of history books the state officials want. Teacher 6 said, "High school textbooks, what they do as they go around and they look and they see what does the government of each day what their kids to learn. And then, they have to put together textbooks that reflect that." Likewise, Teacher 1 pointed out the relationship between the state's official view of history and the driving force behind textbook production, a vested interest in profit. He said, "If you make a book, a history book, and you write it from a certain perspective because it is what you believe. And the administration of the state of Caprino [Pseudonym] does not go from that perspective, they are not buying your book, you are not making any money." Teacher 12 also commented on the influence of the state standards on textbook production. She said, "We just adopted as a textbook. It is based around the state standards, so they hit only what the state tells them to hit and they don't hit the other things that the state does not tell them to hit."

Overall Goal for Publication

Whereas academic history books are basically concerned with the advancement of scholarship and the soundness of a conceptual framework, the driving impetus for the production of history textbooks basically stems from the capitalist incentive to make profit. Teacher 1 said that textbook producers have to pay attention to the state administrators' perspective on history if

they are going to sell their books. Likewise, Teacher 3 stated, "School textbooks are written to make money. And if you want people to buy, then you have got to print it so that it paints America to be [a nice] society." Referring to school textbook production, Teacher 6 said, "This is all the profit market. And so, if you want to make a lot of money, you have to sell textbooks as many states as possible."

How Books are Used

History textbooks are seen and used as the primary source of information in secondary history classrooms, whereas history books are not treated that way but seen as just one source among many other sources. Teacher 2 said, "Textbooks have a tendency to be the primary source of information that teachers are able to hand to students." Teacher 12 made a similar comment. "I hate textbooks. I think often textbooks are used as the Bible of history."

Intellectual Blindness vs. Critical Thinking

Whereas academic books boost critical thinking, textbooks produce and foster intellectual blindness. Textbooks are responsible, in part, for American people being politically illiterate. Teacher 12 said, "Disciplinary history makes you think, a lot more critical thinking." Teacher 6 thought that textbooks stay as a big impediment in front of raising enlightened citizens. He said, "I think that Americans are one of the most politically illiterate groups in the world. It is something I come up with over the last few years and it has to do with the textbooks." For this reason, Teacher 6 considered textbooks to be useless for teaching.

- **Differences between History Teachers and Academic Historians**

According to teachers' responses, academic historians differ from history teachers in terms of their professional orientations, pedagogical skills and practices, specialization or level of

expertise, type of instruction, treatment of subject matters, type of student population in both settings, the nature of relationship with students, and the context or working conditions.

Professional Orientation: Research vs. Teaching

Academic historians do research through primary sources, using them while teaching, writing a thesis, a book or an article on a particular topic, and producing their own theories, explanations, and interpretations of events, i.e., there is an originality of explanations and subjective component in their works. On the other hand, history teachers teach rather than do research. Their main job is to teach, to serve to students, or pass on knowledge or views to students. They usually teach by means of textbooks, do not talk much about theories because reality governs their days, focus more on practical issues, and have more routines to do. Teacher 7 said, "History teachers, their job is basically, I would say, serving to their students." Teacher 2 gave a more specific answer by making a distinction between the roles of academicians and history teachers. He said, "Professional academicians will be more likely to be involved in research. High school history teachers have a tendency to be more a messenger, passing along knowledge, passing along a view." Teacher 6 considered doing research as a big factor differentiating historians from history teachers. "Knowledge, skills, and attitudes are very different. If you are in high school, you are not really a researcher." Similarly, Teacher 10 said, "Historians are highly trained in research… more concerned with why than what. History teachers are more concerned with what than why." Teacher 4 pointed out the historians' interest in developing theories and writing scholarly books. He said that academic historians deal with "one event in history and research it and then write a book about it. I think then they look at all the facts and then they come up with their theory or their explanation, their interpretation of the event." Likewise, Teacher 1 also saw writing as one of the roles of historians instead of teachers'. He said, "What do historians do

when they write their books? We do not write long theses or history volumes. We could I guess, but we don't. That's not where the focus of our job is." Teacher 3 argued that history teachers are dependent on textbooks, so they teach the curriculum via a textbook, whereas "academic historians are going to dig into the facts… find primary resources and they get different people's opinions… do research and look at historical topics differently and try to put all of things together."

Pedagogical Skills and Practices (as a part of professional orientation)

According to teachers' responses, academic historians do not have to possess and practice pedagogical content knowledge and skills as much as history teachers. On the other, history teachers should make history interesting and fun students. They have to help history come alive in some way or another. They have to catch students' attention, keep them entertained, and make history relevant to their lives in order to get them involved and engaged with history. They have to take their students' learning styles into account and also manage their behaviors. That is, history teachers have to play more roles such as acting as a teacher, as a counselor, as a baby-sitter, as an entertainer etc. Teacher 6's comment focused on the motivational roles of the history teacher. He said, "I have got to figure out the way to keep them entertained, keep it going." Teacher 9 stressed the history teacher's effort to get the kids involved with the information. Teacher 8 emphasized the mundane duties and the routine responsibilities of the teacher by stating, "In academia, you are focusing on your subject…. I don't talk about theories and history. But, the reality is my day as taking notes from the kids and dealing with attendance and discipline issues and management." Taking into account students' characteristics, Teacher 12 more cogently explained the difference between historians and history teachers in terms of the role of pedagogy in history teaching. She said,

> I teach kids that hate history, so, you have to make it fun. You have got to play games with them and have got to try to relate it to their own lives a lot more than I think academics do…. I have to be more than just a history teacher. You know, I am a disciplinarian, I am a baby-sitter, I am a coach, I am a counselor. You know, and they just can't focus on teaching history and learning more about history, writing about history, and researching history, so I have to put on more roles than just a history teacher.

Specialization or Level of Expertise

Academic historians develop expertise in history by specializing in a particular period or topic, have a more extensive knowledge base in a given historical era than history teachers have, and thus have one subject era to cover. On the other hand, history teachers are not specialized on a particular time period or event, have to possess a survey-like knowledge base in order to teach a broad spectrum of the content area, so they need to find more resources, teaching materials and aids to be able cover a large number topics in different historical periods. Referring to historians, Teacher 7 said, "The amount of specific knowledge that they know about certain things, they are more focused on certain areas." Likewise, Teacher 10 stated, "History teachers generally have a broad knowledge of history. We are trained in all areas and time periods of history. Very seldom do you find a history teacher that has an area of expertise." Seeing expertise as underpinning one of the characteristics of academic historians, Teacher 4 said,

> Historians usually concentrate on one particular area of expertise, be it one period, or one war, or like the French revolution, and I think if you are doing this at the college level, university level, you need to be an expert in one period.... So, professional historians focus on a small area and learn that in depth whereas high school teachers, public school teachers, just have to learn as much about all of these as they possibly can.

Teacher 5 also pointed out specialization or level of expertise as a distinguishing factor between historians and history teachers. He said, "College professors focus on areas where they are specialized. Here at the high school level, we have to cover so much more information. We teach not one particular subject area but a broad spectrum of subject area." For this reason, Teacher 5 thought that the level of knowledge academic historians have in a given historical area

is far much broader that that high school history teachers. Teacher 11 made similar comments. She said, "Academic historians usually have a time period in history that they focus in on and they just become experts in that area… History teacher has a general knowledge about all aspects of history."

Type of Instruction

According to Teacher 5, academic historians' instructional repertoire is much more limited in comparison to that of history teachers. Academic historians generally teach through lecture without frequently practicing interactive teaching methods. But, history teachers use diverse instructional methods and materials including visual aids to stimulate students' thinking. He said,

> Their level of instruction, in how they instruct their courses. In many cases in college, I had professors who were lecturers. Lecturing format is probably what I had most in college. I had very few classes in which, [*brief pause*] it was a historical interactive courses…. There weren't probably any visual aids given to visual students so, in high school, we have visual stimulus, things to stimulate that thought process.

Treatment of Topics: Level of Depth

Because of their specialization on a particular time period, academic historians can focus on depth by providing more detailed information about a specific topic or event, look at issues from different perspectives and let students confront multiple perspectives on a given issue. But history teachers cannot teach history through in-depth treatment of topics because of the tests and coverage-oriented, factual curriculum. Referring to historians, Teacher 1 said, "They go into a much greater depth than we do certainly in most things. In certain areas, researchers go into greater depth than we do." Likewise, Teacher 5 stated, "In college history, you can dig a lot deeper because it is more of concentrated area and a concentrated folks on one particular area." Emphasizing the time constraint on high school history teaching, Teacher 12 said, "There is a very short amount of time, so, you don't get depth, so depth is a big difference."

Type of Students

From teachers' perspectives, the student population that academic historians have is different from the one history teachers have. That is, the characteristics of students are different in two settings. The student population is more diverse or heterogeneous in secondary school history classrooms than in history departments at universities, especially in terms of their abilities, motivations, interests and maturity levels. In contrast to academic historians, who usually have students who are highly interested in history, history teachers have many students who hate history, finding it boring. Emphasizing differences among her classes, Teacher 11 said, "What is going to take you to teach that group of students, what it takes me to teach my second block can be different from what it takes me to teach the third block or fourth block, so there are a lot of differences between what is done in high school and what is done in college."

Drawing attention to the reading level of students, Teacher 10 said, "We are dealing with some students who do not read much about a 6th grade reading level. I would think it would be difficult to utilize the characteristics of academic history books with that population." Teacher 12 pointed out the motivational levels of students. She said, "I teach the commoner and the academic historian is going to teach the story lovers. I teach kids that hate history….That's another big difference who you are teaching to."

Nature of Relationship with Students

According to Teacher 7, as opposed to teaching in college, teaching history in secondary schools requires more interaction and more interpersonal relationship with students. She said,

> It takes a different person to be high school or middle school teacher than academic historian. Some of my professors, I don't think they would derive or enjoy themselves in the high school or middle school, just not as much into the working with people as they are working with, you know, the books and things like that.

The Context and Working Conditions

History teachers work under a more constraining environment or working conditions than academic historians. They are less independent of the external factors affecting education. They have less flexibility or freedom to select topics to teach, but have more mandates to comply with and more constraints on their teaching such as standards and tests. They are more isolated in their teaching and they thus do not have opportunity to argue with each other about topics in history. They also are confronted with problems in the process of socializing students into society. They face such problems as parents or community interference in their teaching. History teachers also do not have the time and means to develop themselves professionally in their field.

Teacher 8 talked about the time constraint on high school teacher's teaching. She said, "The actual time dedicated to history if I taught would be minimum compared to college course. You are so limited by… the time spent in the class." Seeing the lack of opportunity for history teachers to develop themselves professionally as a problem, Teacher 9 stated, "We don't have the time, you know, the means are not always available to really get into the academic research part." Teacher 5's attention focused on the state-mandates. He said,

> In high school level, we have mandates. You know college professors sometimes have. I guess they use teacher-made test. My professors used that teacher-made test. He did not have anything hanging over here, it says, here are the mandates that you have to cover before the end of semester. So, we know that. We have to get previous objectives and strains before this particular day. And that's probably the biggest difference.

Likewise, Teacher 12 also mentioned the negative influences of the external mandates on teachers' teaching. She said,

> The biggest factor is this test that I keep talking about. I would like to be an academic historian in my classroom and help my students be an academic historian that they can't be because the tests dictate what I have to teach them. And even sometimes they dictate the perspective that I have to teach…. I have one semester to teach all of US history and make sure that they pass a comprehensive test on US history. There is a very short amount of time.

The implicit implication of these constraints is that teachers are not recognized as professionals. They are seen as human tools to put the government's policy into practice and are kept under constant control by the government and state educational departments.

Qualification for Teaching History

There is another category that does not fit well into the above categories. Teacher 6 drew attention to the issue related to teacher qualification in teaching school history. Teacher 6 was quite critical of those teachers who do not have sufficient preparation for teaching history but happen to teach history in secondary schools. He contended that some history teachers do not have the attitude or disposition to develop themselves professionally, lack sufficient training and skills necessary for doing research, e.g., writing, gathering and analyzing data, and are not qualified to teach AP classes. This teacher was conscious of the fact that his view of history teachers is at odds with other teachers' views. He explained his viewpoint as follows:

The other differences that require a few people in high schools to teach history who don't really know anything about it. They are here for other purposes primarily. They want to participate in another part of the school program. Athletics is one of the big areas. And quite a few those people wind up teaching history. They could teach other social studies. But, a lot of them want to teach history because we teach more history than any other subjects in social studies…. My perspective, I think, is quite different from most high school history teachers for these reasons that well, I did not want to come in the school just to coach. I coached for fourteen years. But, that was never my priority as a teacher and when I decided I wanted to leave it behind, I did…. High school teachers, on average, have substantially less knowledge of the content. They don't have the skills for writing, for gathering of the data, for the analysis of the data, for writing about history. And they don't have the attitude, oh, that's what I want to do, in fact you might have the attitude of what is important. They don't want to do that. And so, they don't have these others things available for themselves…. You can ask a high school history teacher what they are reading. Some of them may read history. But, what history did they read? Did they read analytical history or did they just read stories about what happened, what people just say, this happened, this happened. How many of them just read military history? I think you will find a lot of them simply read military history and they are unaware of the value, the importance of social movements in history. How many of them just read American history? How many of them are acquainted with the history of the other parts of the world? A lot of people, they take, studied American history and they maybe took two courses outside the American history area. How many people in the United States who teach American history know anything about Turkish history, the emergence of modern Turkey? I would say that we would be lucky to get one percent, you know, they might say, oh, the name Kemal Ataturk, they might be able to say, oh, I know about him. What did they know about him? They know the name. They know the name and they probably say, oh, he is the Georgia Washington of Turkey. Well, I guess for an American that might be a good start…. Teachers who are not qualified, from my perspective, to teach AP classes. But, we are putting them for teaching.

Part II

Teachers' Pedagogical Orientations toward Teaching History

Teachers' perspectives about different dimensions of teaching and learning need be examined through a semi-structured and open ended interview protocol in order to identify their pedagogical orientations. As is suggested by Kember's (1997) extensive review of literature on the conceptions of teaching and learning, teachers' pedagogical orientations are shaped by their views on (a) the essence of teaching and learning, (b) the roles of student and teacher, the goals for teaching the subject, (c) the content of teaching, (d) and the preferred methods of teaching. Depending on the focus and scope of one's research study, some of these factors influencing the development of teachers' conceptions of teaching may not be examined or more factors might be added to them to reach at a more nuanced understanding of teachers' philosophies of teaching and learning.

This study asked more questions than the ones suggested by Kember and other educational researchers in order to attain a richer, fine-grained understanding of teachers' pedagogical orientations. For instance, teachers were asked about their views of the proper relationship between the teacher and students. As a matter of fact, this question is broader and more comprehensive than the one examining teachers' perspectives on their roles in teaching in that it allows the teacher to think of both agents' roles simultaneously in the teaching and learning process without unduly directing or influencing their perspectives. Also when teachers involved in this study were asked to articulate the roles they thought the teacher was supposed to play in student learning, they gave responses that were similar to their answers to the question asking the proper relationship between the teacher and students but the answers to the former question were much more limited and less sophisticated.

There are several more pedagogical questions that I think play a key role in helping the researcher elicit teachers' pedagogical orientations from a broader perspective. Though not all of them appeared in the findings of many research studies on teachers' conceptions of teaching, teachers' answers to the following open-ended questions are likely to greatly contribute to the literature on this topic in history education:

- ✓ What characteristics do you think an effective history teacher possesses or should possess?
- ✓ What is the image of an excellent student in your mind?
- ✓ What kind of relationship should exist between the teacher and students?
- ✓ What kind of learning environment do you think best fosters students' engagement with history?
- ✓ What methods do you use to teach history?
- ✓ In what ways do your favorite teaching methods help you teach more effectively?
- ✓ What are the most important considerations when choosing a particular instructional strategy or method?
- ✓ What assessment techniques do you employ to evaluate student learning?
- ✓ What factors do you think have caused you to adopt your present teaching style?

All the above questions were used in this study to examine teachers' pedagogical orientations. What follows next is the presentation of social studies teachers' pedagogical orientations toward teaching history. Teachers' views on the expected outcomes of teaching history relate to both their conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations, so it serves as a sort of bridge between the two distinct components of the research study. For this reason, I first present the findings on teachers' goals and purposes for teaching history.

Teachers' Goals and Purposes for Teaching History

In the previous section, teachers' conceptions of history are examined and analyzed. The emphasis was on teachers' epistemological views of history as a discipline. Since more than half of the teachers (Approximately 67%) did not have a degree in history, especially training in analytical history, and did not seem to be used to thinking about or reflecting on conceptual issues and questions in their teaching as evidenced by their overt statements, most of them could

not clearly and coherently articulate their conceptualizations of history. Except for Teacher 6 and Teacher 10 (Teacher 9 and Teacher 12, to some extent), their conceptions of history were vague, confused, rudimentary, partial and incomplete. However, when they were asked about their goals and purposes for teaching history, they immediately became very eloquent, giving rich, sophisticated, and coherent explanations.

In other words, the change in the nature of question from epistemological and conceptual questions to pedagogical ones at once showed the difference in the substantive quality of their responses. Since, like all other teachers, these social studies teachers almost always engage in setting goals, purposes, and objectives for different strands of their subject throughout the school year from the very beginning until its end, keeping those goals in mind all the time, they did not experience any difficulty elucidating their purposes for teaching history. As a result, each teacher stated several goals for teaching history. Teacher 10, by far, gave the most eloquent explanation for her teaching goals, stating richer and more detailed explanations than the rest of the teachers.

Most of teachers' goals are directly and indirectly informed by the concept of citizenship, which is emphasized as the most important goal by social studies educators and organizations (NCSS, 1993; NCSS, 2000). The other goals are centered around and have a strong connection with the goal of teaching for citizenship. Therefore, it is safe to claim that citizenship goal is internalized by these social studies teachers who see the promotion of citizenship as the most important goal or outcome of history education.

Even though there is a strong consensus on the importance of citizenship as a major goal, teachers differ from each other in terms of their conceptions of citizenship. There is a crucially important difference in their descriptions of the kinds of citizens they aim to raise, i.e., obedient and patriotic citizens vs. reflective and critical citizens with a questioning attitude toward their

country's history. Therefore, teachers' citizenship goals can be arranged on a continuum ranging from the goal of passing cultural heritage on to students to the goal of encouraging students to critically examine that cultural heritage.

While some teachers' citizenship goal has a bearing on critical disciplinary history approach in addition to the goal of transmitting cultural heritage, most teachers' responses did not embody the critical disciplinary approach but were more closely identified with the cultural heritage tradition. Whereas Teacher 3 and Teacher 10 best exemplify the former citizenship goal of producing critical citizens, the response of Teacher 4 best represents the latter cultural heritage goal of raising patriotic citizens. As is the case in his answers to the previous questions, Teacher 3's race and ethnicity again came into play in shaping his goals for teaching history. As an African-American teacher, Teacher 3 drew attention to such issues as racism and slavery in history, being concerned with making students conscious of the fact that some severe and unpleasant human experiences or historical problems still continue in a disguised way in the present.

Next to citizenship, among teachers' most important goals, comes an understanding of the trajectory of the nation's development together with seeing patterns in history and extracting lessons from the past on the student's part. Almost all teachers emphasized the importance of having students appreciate the development of the nation over time. Therefore, this category can be seen as a shadow or consequence of the citizenship category. As said in the previous paragraph, most goals relate to the citizenship goal in some way or another. Helping students understand the impact of the past on the present, on their lives, and on the future emerged as another category that is closely related to the category of the trajectory of the nation's development. Teacher 5, 6, and 10, who have degrees in history, made reference to the future

while talking about the impact of the past. Almost all teachers stated goals for developing students' cognitive and life-long skills, so skill development is another category which closely relates to the citizenship category. That is, these teachers aim to enhance and foster students' skills in different domains in order to help them become more effective and successful individuals in their private and social lives in the public sphere.

The other categories that emerged from the analysis of the interview transcripts are "having students confront controversial issues & making a change in the world," "developing disposition of sensitiveness towards other cultures," "making history relevant to students' lives," "making history exciting and interesting for students," "preparing students for the test," and "preparing students for college" (see Figure 4.2). Explanations of each category along with the quotations from the teachers' responses are as follows.

- ✓ **Citizenship**

Students' awareness of and appreciation for their cultural heritage emerged as the most prominent citizenship goal, so the goal first and foremost is to teach students their cultural heritage and roots, to develop in students an appreciative attitude for being American and for living in the US, to help them get a sense of who they are, i.e., their identity, and to help them understand and appreciate the values the US stands for. Other citizenship goal aims to help students understand their roles and responsibilities as citizens along with the basic issues confronting the society so that they can not only find their place in society but also effectively and actively participate in civic life, contributing to their nation's well-being and development. Students are also expected to understand how different branches of a democratic system of government work and how to use the democratic processes such as participation in politics. Other goal that is informed by a conservative outlook is to socialize students to the system so

that they can fit and work in society. Teaching students how to be patriotic and forging a national coherence and unity by using history as social cement are also other conservative citizenship goals.

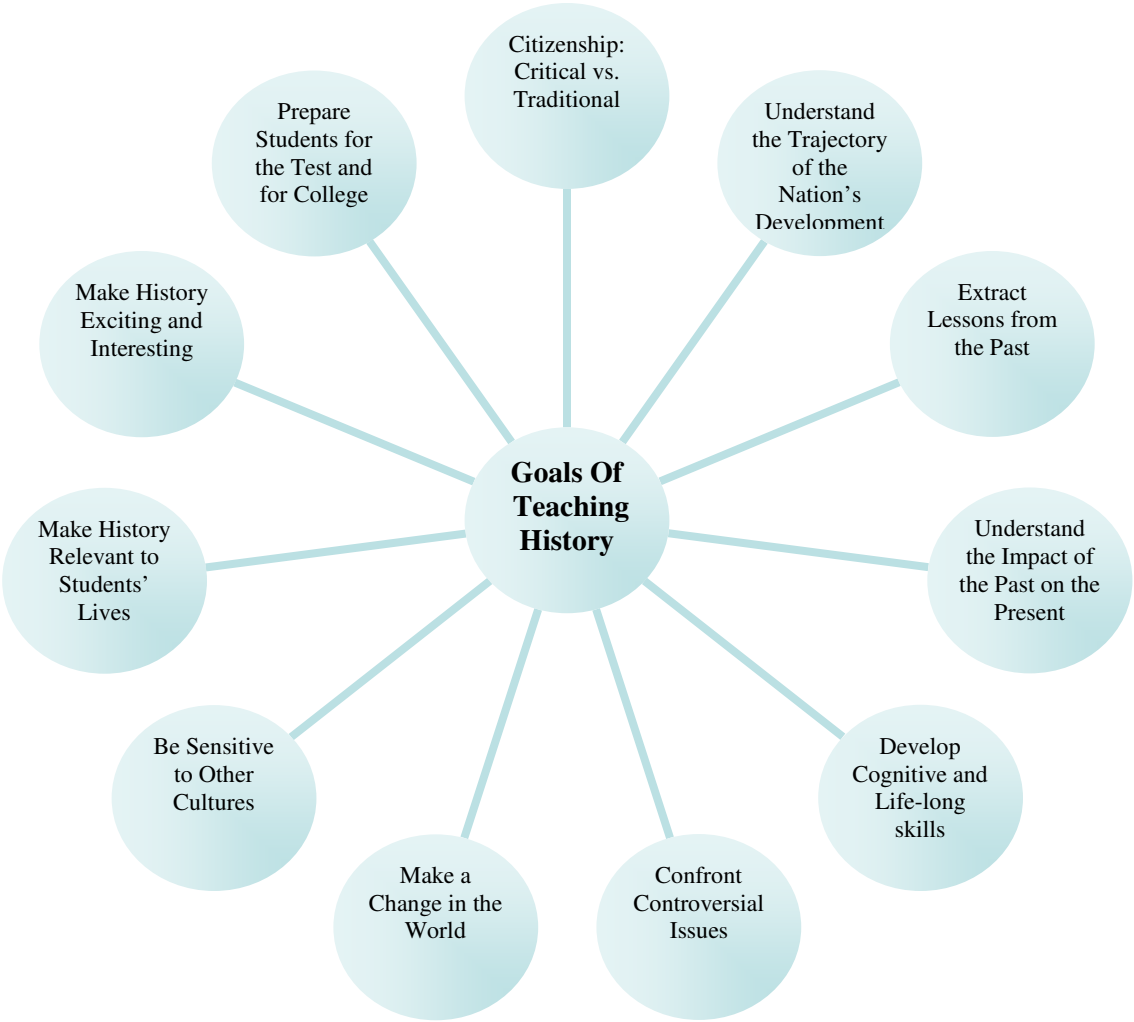

Figure 4.2: Teachers' goals for teaching history

Teacher 10's goals for teaching history best exemplify critical citizenship goal[14]. She stated that outside the test, her number one goal was to prepare students to become effective and

[14] The critical perspective of Teacher 10 is best reflected in her goals for developing students' cognitive and life-long skills, having students confront controversial issues, and making a difference in the world.

capable citizens. She wants her students to be critical and productive citizens who are able to think for themselves and take an active role in society:

> I want them to be proud of who we are and I want them to be proud that they are American. And, that's another goal. I want them to be proud of who they are, not take advantage of where they live. But, I want them to be more proud of where they came from and understand that you know, we are a great nation…. I guess, just pride, pride who they are, where they came from…. I would like to have a goal of making them really understand and being [*brief pause*] not to take advantage of where they are…. And then encourage them as they get older to vote. And to use that democratic process to get their voice heard….They are not old enough to vote, but what can I do to be productive, what can I do to make a change besides voting? What are some things that they can do practically?

The goals that Teacher 1 stated encompass different components of teaching for citizenship. Focusing his attention on identity, cultural heritage, civic responsibilities, and democratic system of government, Teacher 1 said,

> Our goal is to give a child a vision of his heritage as an American. Who are you? Where do you fit in? [*Long pause*] what are you [*brief pause*] what is your country about? Therefore, what are you about to a degree? The other part is a citizenship. Teach a young person their role as an American citizen. What is our government about? How do you contribute to the process in democracy…. So we must teach them first of all what the citizen role is, how to understand the issues that are being discussed, and then how to form their opinions based on what the people who they are choosing to be leaders of their country.

Teacher 12 also explicitly stated that the goal of history teacher is to help students become effective and responsible citizens who appreciate their country's history:

> The other goal is to [*long pause*] make them into good citizens because I teach, you know, American history, so I think one thing I am trying, you know, what's kind of built into the curriculum is citizenship. They are required to do community services and stuff, so we want to make them have some certain responsibility to America…. I want them to be able to see that American history is their history.

Teacher 6's citizenship goal focuses more on the process of socializing students to the system which the nation adopted. So, the well-being of society and the maintenance of society's

institutions rather than individual persons within society come forward in his goals for teaching history. He said,

> I think the purpose goes to the institution to socialize people to the system we are living now. When I say that, it is a dynamic process and it is a legitimate process, I think. It is legitimate for society. We need people who can fit and work within our society. That is legitimate.

Teacher 7 confined her citizenship goal to the preparation of students for effective participation in politics. She thought "that is really the purpose of history." Likewise, Teacher 8 restricted her goal to the transmission of cultural heritage from one generation to the next by saying, "One generation wants to pass their knowledge on to the next in history, cultural tradition." Teacher 4 was the one who had the most conservative citizenship goals for teaching history. His goal for teaching history was to develop vehemently patriotic and nationalist citizens:

> I think I am a nationalist. We should be proud of our own country. I don't feel like Americans, to, to surrender their sovereignty to one rural government or the United Nations and so I teach my students to be patriotic and think of our country first. [*Long pause*] That may be wrong, but that is my point of view. I want my students to be proud that they are Americans and understand what our country stands for and I think history is a great tool to do that**.**

Drawing attention to the racial, ethnic, and cultural differences in the nation, Teacher 4 stressed that the goal of a history teacher was to use history as a means to help forge a national coherence and unity. Since America is made of a variety of ethnic groups and different ideas, religions, and viewpoints come into play in shaping what America is about, the history teacher needs to help students understand how Americans of different ethnic backgrounds such as European-Americans, African-Americans, and Hispanics all come together to form the nation. To help realize that end, Teacher 4 contended, the history teacher "should put away those differences and focus on being Americans."

- ✓ **The Trajectory of the Nation's Development**

Another important goal that the history teacher needs to accomplish is to help students understand the process through which the nation is formed, to help them develop an appreciation of the past that they inherited, and to help tem gain a better understanding of how Americans came to be where they are today. Lamenting that so many students do not care about or have a little understanding of how their nation developed, Teacher 4 said, "In teaching US history, we try to get students to have an understanding of how our nation has developed into the way it is now. Where were we from and how [we] reached this point in history?" Likewise, Teacher 2 said that the goal is to "develop an appreciation of the past." To articulate his goal, he provided a quotation from a woman orator "who said in order to know where we are going, to know where we are, we need to know where we came from and to know where we are going, we need to know where we are." Other teachers made almost similar comments on this goal:

Teacher 3: I still have to go and make sure that students that they learn and understand how we got to this point, why we got to this point… understand why things are the way they are.
Teacher 7: Give students a sense of why is it we are here, the way we are today…. Help them understand how is it that we got to where we are now…. That is the main one really. I would point the way that I approach to school history, teaching school history, help them understand how is it that we got to where we are now…. I would say it is for them, for students to gain a better understanding of how we came to be where we are today…. To learn from the past, whether the good thing that people are doing but at the same time focus on negative things, [*long pause*] give students a sense of why is it we are here, the way we are today.
Teacher 8: The purpose is to understand where we have come from and their place in the world…. Politically I think, that is important, you know, students understand human, nation's history, world history and their place in the world.
Teacher 10: I want them to understand where we were, where we have been, and how we got here…. I think, in order to understand where we have been, where we come from helps them get a better idea about where we need to go, where, you know, we are heading.
Teacher 12: I want them to know the past, and where they come from.

Seeing Patterns in History (as a subcategory of the nation's trajectory)

Two teachers, Teacher 8 and Teacher 9 stated that the goal is to help students see the patterns in history so that they can understand today better. While the former teacher briefly emphasized

the importance of "recognizing patterns in letters, military and social events," the latter teacher briefly elaborated on her perspective by saying, "I am more interested in the kids understanding the patterns in history and how they came about…. I would like to teach for the broader idea…. as an understanding of human condition in general. I think, to understand the world at large, they have to look at history."

Extracting Lessons from the Past (as a subcategory of the nation's trajectory)

In addition to helping students see patterns and large processes in history, some teachers argues that the history teacher needs to help students learn lessons from the past by showing them their ancestors' accomplishments and errors, be it good or bad, positive or negative, so that they will not repeat them. Teacher 12 said, "The biggest is that if you don't learn from mistakes of the past, you are doomed to repeat them." For this reason, she tries to "show them how people who have not learned from the mistakes, do repeat them." Likewise, Teacher 1 said, "I think also the study of history can tell us, it can show us, our achievements and our mistakes." Teacher 10 also mentioned this goal. She said that the history teacher can help young people not to repeat past mistakes by "looking at what we had done in the past that was not successful and we need to get away from, looking at what is not working"

- ✓ **Understanding the Effects of the Past on the Present and the Future**

Some teachers considered the interconnectedness of the past, present, and the future to state their goals for teaching history. From their perspectives, the goal is to help students (1) recognize the influences of the past on their lives, i.e., helping students understand how the past relates to the present, so that they can make effective choices in their lives, and (2) better estimate the impact of their choices on the future people like their children; that is, reflecting on the past and today in terms of their implications for the future. Emphasizing that people's choices are not

independent of the past even though people may not be aware of the effects of the past on their lives, Teacher 6 said,

> I do believe, when I teach history, what I want people to be able to do is, appreciate the impact the past has on them for the purpose of understanding how they might go about making choices for themselves…. There is an influence there whether or not you know it and then by becoming familiar with that, you are more aware of the impact your choices can have for the future for people like, I would say, [the] impact on your children.

Being concerned with the effects that people's choices in the present will have on the future generation, Teacher 10 tried to explain her teaching goals by asking a series of interrelated questions:

> You know, what can I do, what would they leave behind to help the future? What would they leave behind to make them who they are? What a hundred years from now, what would people think about our society based on what we have done, what we have left behind. And they talked about things about pollution and reading things, you know, how they need to be better about not polluting in that? People probably, a hundred years from now, may think we are a very wild society because of all the weapons that may be left behind, because of very uncaring society, because of all the trash. So, make them think about things about how people interpret us. What can we do to make us appear to be better people? So, those are kinds of skills that I am looking at.

Teacher 5 also made reference to the future in stating his goals. He said, "The ultimate goal is to gain a better understanding of historical events in regards to their future. I think that has the only way I have ever looked at it." While Teacher 5 and Teacher 10 considered both the present and the future, Teacher 3 only focused on the use of history to make better choices in the present. He said, "It is also my job to help them take history and see how people were and how people did things and use that knowledge themselves so they can be better, people make better decisions if they have more information, make better choices, and better decisions."

- ✓ **Developing Students' Cognitive and Life-long Skills**

Most teachers also stated goals that have to do with the development of higher-order thinking and life-long skills beyond high school for students to be effective and successful individuals in

society. According to the teachers' responses, the goal is to help students develop their reasoning, critical thinking, and problem solving skills; e.g., developing their minds by generating cognitive disequilibrium in their cognitive schemata by means of different perspectives. Challenging students to see human behavior from a broader perspective and urging them to develop a questioning attitude or disposition toward the past and the present are other ways to foster students' critical thinking. Other goals aimed at enhancing students' life-long skills are as follows. Helping students:

- develop their ability to ask and answer questions,
- learn how to form and most importantly support their opinions,
- become "why" thinkers or getting them to think about issues facing society,
- develop their ability to make better and more effective choices in their lives, being aware of the consequences of those choices,
- become adaptive, flexible, and self-regulatory persons who can live on their own independently and contribute to society more effectively,
- enhance their research skills, e.g., providing students with research tools and skills in investigating and having access to more information on a topic,
- understand and put into practice the procedural skills in "knowing how,"
- develop their communication skills,
- develop their reading skills,
- develop their organizational skills, e.g., teaching students how to be organized individuals both in terms of conceptual and technical sense as part of a life-long skill.

Illustrations of these goals through teachers' own statements are as follows:

Developing reasoning skills and the ability to ask and answer questions

Teacher 2: I think studying history at a high school level it also helps develop mind. It challenges that to understand human behavior, maybe to see a context of how human behavior changes…. I think that's important and, and the development of human mind. It gives you points of view that you can subscribe to or, or disagree with.

Teacher 9: Any teacher of history, I think, would, would say the same thing. They really want life-long learners. They really want them to be able to formulate questions and take it from there and reach a conclusion as long as it's not, you know, such a conclusion that can't be real

Teacher 10: Learning how to give an opinion, but being able to support it. If they are going to give me an opinion, that's great. But, your opinion is nothing if you can't support it, if you can't come in why you think that. When they tell you, yeah, this is terrible, but why? I don't know if it takes a while to get those [skills] because a lot of times they are giving you opinion. They are going to tell you exactly what they think. But, they can't always tell you why they think that. So, a lot of times, I tell them, you know, if you can't come in why, then your opinion, I mean it means something but it only means something as good as you are able to defend it. But I try to encourage that. Sometimes it is really difficult with eight graders…. I really want them to become *why* thinkers. Why do you think that? Why do you feel that? Why is that true? Why do you feel that way? I try to encourage that. Sometimes it is really difficult with eight graders. They can't go beyond that next step…. I want them to be able to walk out here, being able to think for themselves, and be able to develop their own thought, and be able to back up their opinion.

Developing critical thinking skills

Teacher 7: It also can help students as questions about things before and then around them now. But, they might not ask if the didn't study history, how to approach the discussion, how to find answers to things that they would like to know more about.

Teacher 10: I want to give them the skills that they need in regard to [*long pause*] critical thinking so they can be successful high school…. I think history is very open to producing critical thinkers. I think that's something I need to teach my children how to be critical thinkers so that they can be more successful.

Developing problem solving skills

Teacher 10: How can we solve the problems in a more constructive manner? You know, what could have done differently than go to war. You know, because if they had done many things differently, then they could have avoided war. Teaching how to solve problems in the context of historical knowledge…. I think critical thinking, how to solve problems, you know we set up scenarios or problems. You know, we have a problem here and we got the north and the south are arguing, are we the English? And, and British are arguing over, you know, the freedom, over taxation, over issue, how can we solve the problems in a more constructive manner. You know, what could have done differently than go to war. You know, because if they had done many things differently, then they could have avoided war. Teaching how to solve problems in the context of historical knowledge…. They can encounter problems all the time, and how to solve problems.

Developing decision making skills

Teacher 2: They may be led to discover more on their own, on their own time. They may read a different book. They may do additional research. And that may help them understand and see something better.

Teacher 3: Help people [students] make better choices or help people become better decision makers… learn how not to be ignorant…learn how to make better choices…. People make better decisions if they have more information, make better choices, and better decisions.
Teacher 6: My purpose is more classical and western-European renaissance oriented. I think the educated person is more effective person who are living on their own life, making their own choices, and contributing to society more effectively…. It is all about choice, choices people make, trying to help people make better choices, more effective choices, more appropriate choices and be aware of the consequences. And if they are problematic choices, being prepared to live with them and not just the consequences.
Developing research skills
Teacher 9: Number one is where to go for further information. And they will continuing, continue asking questions and knowing how to find out information for themselves…. I want them to be able to investigate often, and they would ask me a question, and I said, oh, that would be a great one to check and come back to report for me. I want them to be in charge of their own learning. And I think that's true. It does not matter for sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh, twelfth, actually true then for social science classes, history class in particular, that they are able to formulate questions and they are able to know where to go for the information. And knowing that whatever answers they come up with is going to change it, more information…. And you aim to help students investigate, keep investigating, help them become life-long learners.
Teacher 10: In teaching history, tools, you give the tools of research. Knowing how to research, how to find information, how to organize your thought.
Developing communication skills
Teacher 10: You know, how can we use, how can you email your congressmen? How can you write a letter to a congressman? How can you make you voice be heard?…And to use that democratic process to get their voice heard and teaching them how to do that. How to give speeches, how to give their opinion across without being argumentative.
Developing reading skills
Teacher 10: Just the basic skills, learning how to read something in a book and summarizing it and, and interpreting it in a different way.
Developing organizational skills
Teacher 10: I want to give them the skills that they need in regard to note taking, organization….so [that] they can be successful high school [students]…. Teaching them about how take, how to organize, how to be an organized individual. That can be a life-long skill. A lot of my students don't even know how to take a sheet of paper, hood a whole bunch of stick in a folder. I mean as basic as that is, they do not just have that concept, as nothing to do history, nothing to do facts, but it has to do teaching in the life-long skills. In my class, we have to have a notebook. We have to learn how to organize our opinion.

- ✓ **Having Students Confront Controversial Issues**

Teacher 3 and Teacher 10 stated goals that reflect a critical view of the past. Both teachers said that the goal of teaching history is to have students confront sensitive issues or negative experiences in history such as racism and slavery by connecting the past with the manifestation

of the same historical problems in the present so that students can take action to solve them. Teacher 3 put across his viewpoint by giving a specific example from his own classroom teaching:

> I will give you a good example. We talked about, I posed a question to one of my classes. Are the African-Americans disadvantaged in school? And they said no I always come to the same school, I am always in the same class, I always have the same opportunity. What they said may be true. But, that also goes back to racism and slavery. Okay, what about the fact that my grandparents did not have an opportunity to go to college, university [*long pause*], so if they were educated, so they could teach their children to be educated. Whereas if your grandparents did not go, they don't have, somewhere you have to start up.

Teacher 10 also made similar comments. She stated that she tries to bring sensitive issues to her students' attention so that they can develop a holistic view of the past and take action to make a positive change. She said,

> I want them to understand not just the positive things, but to understand we are not always a nation. I mean we are a nation we are proud of. But, we have done things in the past that we should not be very proud of. And I want them to see that, so we can change. We have not always been a tolerant nation and I mean we are not, we are not always a very tolerant country…. But, our history is not always something to be proud of. We don't need to be proud of the fact that we enslaved a whole group of people. We don't need to be proud of that.

Making a Difference in the World

Teacher 3 and Teacher 10 also stated goals aimed at helping students develop a disposition toward making the world better and working for a better society; that is, a commitment to making a positive change in the world and preventing ignorance on students' or a new generation's part. Teacher 3 said, "Try to make the world better, the United States better." Likewise, Teacher 12 said, "I also think a goal is to show how people can make a difference." Teacher 10 emphasized the same goal by elaborating on her thoughts:

> It is not just they can spell out all these facts they read about history as much as they can understand where we came from. How can they make a difference? How can they create a history to be proud that their ancestors would be proud. I want them to be able to create

> that history, the history their future generation will be proud of and read about…. But, other than that I think our goal for teaching history is….to help them take that clean slate and to make it a positive experience, to take what we are given and by the tool by the means, looking at what people had done in the past, looking at how the past is studied, looking at what was done in history that was successful and we can continue to use, looking at what we had done in the past that was not successful and we need to get away from, looking at what is not working.

- ✓ **Developing a Disposition of Sensitiveness towards Other Cultures**

Teacher 9 and Teacher 12 stated that the goal is to help students become empathetic toward others, to help them get an insight into other cultures, and to help them develop an understanding of the human condition and the world at large. Teacher 12 briefly touched on this goal by saying that the history teacher needs to help "students learn how to be more sensitive to other cultures." Likewise, Teacher 9 stated, "My goal is to help students understand why modern cultures are the ways they are now…. The idea of human condition as far as a general goal as to make them empathetic of others, other cultures."

- ✓ **Making History Relevant to Students' Lives**

Teacher 3 and Teacher 12 stressed that the goal of the history teacher is to help students see the relevancy of the past to their lives by making connection between the past and present. Teacher 3 said that he tries to "help people understand how it relates to them." Similarly, Teacher 12 stated, "I try my best to do a lot of relating it to their own lives."

- ✓ **Making History Exciting and Interesting**

Another goal for teaching history is to make history an interesting and enjoyable subject for students to engage with and to motivate students to learn history. Teacher 4 said, "If I can just give them a little bit of appreciation for that [history], I will feel like I was a successful teacher. If I can just awaken for some sort of sparker in that, then that makes me feel I have succeeded with some of these students." Teacher 1 also briefly emphasized the need to "teach kids to enjoy

learning about it." Teacher 2 indirectly focused on the motivational goals. He said, "I think the study of history for many people can be motivation that it can lead to a higher level of understanding…. If we study something and one of our students who is keenly interested, they get to something, and they, they are fascinated."

- ✓ **Preparing Students for the Test**

Teachers' concerns with how to help prepare students to take state-mandated tests successfully seems to direct their attention to those goals that have to do with the development of technical and lower skills more than conceptual skills. That is, the goal of history teachers is to help students pass the test or become successful on standardized, state-mandated graduation tests. Teacher 5 wants his students to master information to pass the Georgia High School Graduation Test. Teacher 10 has a goal of getting students to pass the test at the end of year. She said that even though she does not like to have that goal, it is an overall driving force behind her teaching, so in realty the goal that matters most is the one aimed at helping students successfully pass the test. That is why she said, "We have to turn in goals like my goals eighty percent of my students will have satisfactory test scores." Teacher 12's goal also is to help students pass the end of course test, so what she does is "the practice, practice, practices practice, practice on multiple choice questions" so that she can "look [like] a good teacher."

- ✓ **Preparing Students for College**

Teacher 3 and Teacher 10 both wanted their students to go to college so that they can learn more, have more resources to develop themselves, and be more successful in life.

- ✓ **Helping Students Understand Basic Topics in History**

There is one more category that does not fit the above categories. Teacher 1 and Teacher 11 stated goals aimed at providing students with the most important facts and topics such as dates,

names, places, wars etc. in order to have and maintain a generation of students who know the history of their country and can have conversation with others such as parents.

Effects of the State-mandates on Teachers' Goals

With respect to the goals for teaching history, I need to note an important observation or a pattern in the teachers' responses. While talking about their goals for teaching history, teachers made reference to the state mandated tests and curriculum, generally seeing them as impediments on their successful accomplishment of the most important goals. That is to say, teachers drew attention to the detrimental effects of state mandates on effective history education. These teachers' responses revealed that state mandated tests, especially end of course tests, force teachers to move away from accomplishing the goals that they think are very important in history education such as teaching for citizenship and developing students higher-order thinking skills. As a result, those mandates oblige teachers to have somewhat different and less important goals such as teaching to the test, leading them to emphasize or leave out some topics. For instance, Teacher 2 stated, "Sometime we have to pick and choose what we are going to include and what we are going to leave [emphasis] out." For instance, social studies teachers "are having to put more than an emphasis on the science of economics…." (Teacher 1)

The criteria for the selection of topics for the enacted curriculum largely depend on whether students' knowledge on those topics will be tested on the graduation test or on the end of course test. Even though the state mandated curriculum and standardized tests drive how history is taught and learned in schools, teachers try to resist this external influence on their teaching. The interview extract from Teacher 1's response demonstrates this resentment and resistance on teachers' part. Suspicious of the focus on economics in social studies curriculum, Teacher 1 says,

> There are two focuses. I am not sure the science of economics is where one of those focuses needs to be. It needs to be history and citizenship. And the state has moved to it

> to a degree away from that. And I think in the practical sense, we are still mostly about history and citizenship. We are not changing it. But, we are now forced to deal with this test. And we are having to put more than an emphasis on the science of economics and I am not sure that is the correct way to go. That is what the state has led us to do and that is what we are doing, because that is our job. But, I am not sure I agree with it.

Because Teacher 1 sees what the state asks teachers to do as teachers' responsibility or as a part of their job requirement to carry out, he unwillingly complies with the state mandate. On the other hand, since he knows that it is teachers who ultimately decide what enacted curriculum students are going to experience, he tries to stick to his goals as much as he can in practice and puts more emphasis on the goals for teaching children about their cultural heritage and citizenship while simultaneously experiencing the tension between what he thinks is important and what the state thinks is important in social studies curriculum. The other quotations that illustrate how state-mandated curriculum and tests influence the way teachers go about teaching history and setting goals are as follows.

Teacher 1: The state also then, put in [*brief pause*] end of course test for accountability in certain constant courses. They are eight and they are two in social studies. In all the four main disciplines, they are two classes that require you to pass a state mandated end of course test. In social studies, based on what I have said and based on what I think the role of school is, you would think you would have an end of course test, in a history class, most likely American history and a government class, most likely American government. That is where it makes the most sense to have those tests. But, that is not the case. We do have an end of course test in American history and I think that's certainly legitimate, and should be there. But, we also have end and of, our second one, the other one, the only other one is in economics. I think to a degree that changes the role and forces us to have somewhat a different goal, away from just history of heritage and citizenship. And I think to a certain degree, that is a detriment because at this age and with the time frame we have, there is only a certain amount of time you have to teach kids what they need to know. And I am not sure at this stage in their development, if they are really ready for the science of economics yet.
Teacher 2: There is not enough time to give a complete picture of the past. Another thing that drives many teachers is the end of course test and graduation test that history classes may, be required to submit to. And a lot of times that, that really steers the curriculum development in the classroom. If we know that is on the, on the end of course test or we know that, that something is on a graduation test, then, then it is important that we make sure that our students have an understanding of the events, leading up to and resulting from [*long pause*] an episode.
Teacher 3: They make sure that the kids know that because they said test those, so that is the information students should know.

Teacher 5: Our goal, my goal [laughs] this right here, present students with enough information [*long pause*] and hope they are mastering the Georgia High School Graduation Test. That's I, that is how school goes, into a full first time test taking because you know history to us, I also my assessment, they are also assessment and the also go with the past, the Georgia High School Gradation Test. My goal is to get them to have enough information and within that pursue enough information to master that component of the test or the Georgia High School Gradation Test for graduation.

Teacher 9: And the QCC that I am to follow, this says what are our goals and purposes are as far as, you know, looking the mains of economics, geography, the government, so forth history. But, it is very delineated by the state what our goals and purposes are.

Knowing that, I have only one hundred and eighty days [laughs] to expose them, you know when I look at the concrete things that I have to teach in a hundred and eighty days is, is almost impossible. But, I would like to teach for the broader, the broader idea, but the state has we teaching all these little concrete pieces…

I think the state level determines a lot whether a teacher is going to be successful because sometimes the state-mandated certain expectations that are not realistic, which is hence why we are going from QCC to performance standards

Teacher 10: I think one goal is to get them to pass the test at the end of year. I mean I think as much as I do not like that, I mean that is the overall driving force (unintelligible). After no child left behind law, my goal is to make them successful and to be able to pass the test. And I hate that, I will agree with that, but the bottom line is that is really my goal.

In a real [world], in reality the most important ones is to have that test. I mean in all bottom line, my most important goal is to pass that CRCT Test.

We have to turn in goals like my goals eighty percent of my students will have satisfactory test scores. And if eighty percent do not, we are told we will not be able to go up on the pay skill. We are told, I don't think they will actually do that. But, you know we are told some underlying threats if you want to call it, that we are responsible for our students performing on the test. And if they don't, then we are getting the impression that we will be left upon. Right now, I am not directly threatened with anything. But I think that's possibly coming. So, you got the hanging over your head your job may depend on it, or your pay may depend on it. Then, yeah, it becomes a real, theory as the goal-reality as a teacher. I don't like that. I don't agree with that. I don't like being bound, like the kids have to do well on the test.

Just teaching to test. You are teaching to the objectives on the test and not to [*brief pause*] just the overall goal of what you want to accomplish. So, that would be my number one goal.

Teacher 12: My other goal is to help them pass the end of course test, so the practice, practice, practice, practice, practice, practice on multiple choice questions. And we do that every day, you know, five minutes. I start my class with them practicing on a couple of questions when I am taking roll on everything because the more they do this, the more probably they are going to do well on test. But, unfortunately, you know, I waste five minutes doing that every day probably

I am judged so much on test, you know, as whether it is on the teacher or not, I am judged a lot on, on test and how my students do on test and so, I have to make sure that they get the facts or at least facts according to what the state says the fact are.

Teachers' Perspectives on Teaching

Four conceptions of teaching are constructed from the analysis of teachers' responses on the basis of the similarities and differences in their views (see Table 4.1). Teachers' conceptions of teaching bear elements of different theoretical models of teaching from a traditional behaviorist view of teaching to a recent constructivist view of teaching. For this reason, it is conceptually more appropriate to see variations in teachers' perspectives on teaching as a spectrum of viewpoints on a continuum ranging from a view of teaching as "teacher-centered and content-oriented" at one pole to a view of teaching as "learner-centered and learning-oriented" at the other pole. Thus, categorization of teachers' responses was done in terms of their emphasis on transmitting knowledge and skills to students vs. facilitating and guiding students' learning. The following four categories represent this continuum from a teacher-centered to learner-centered conception of teaching with quotations from teachers' own words. Rather than being mutually exclusive or rigidly fixed, there are some overlaps among categories.

Table 4.1 Teachers' conceptions of teaching

Conceptions of Teaching	***Teachers***
1. Teaching as transmitting knowledge and skills	Teacher 1, Teacher 5, Teacher 6, Teacher 7
2. Teaching as developing students' cognitive skills	Teacher 2, Teacher 3, Teacher 4
3. Teaching as facilitating and guiding learning	Teacher 8, Teacher 9, Teacher 10, Teacher 12
4. Teaching as making learning relevant	Teacher 11

1. Teaching as Transmitting Knowledge and Skills

Behaviorist and apprenticeship model of teaching come into play in shaping this view of teaching. Even though there are some teacher statements such as "students can be the teacher sometimes" and "allowing students to find their own voice" both of which reflect an understanding of teaching as helping students become self-regulated learners, the view of

teaching in this category basically focuses on knowledge and the transmission of information and skills from the teacher to students; that is, the teacher helps students gain knowledge, skills, and values by sharing and disseminating or passing them on to students through an expert-novice relationship. Teacher 6's view best exemplifies or fits this category. He saw teaching as a process spanning his life and as a vocation or a way to make a living. Stressing that he enjoys teaching, he said,

> But, conceptually, I think of teaching as actually almost a master and apprentice relationship, someone with knowledge, someone without knowledge. Knowledge and skills need to be transmitted to an individual. I view it in that way. I do not think it is necessarily a popular perspective among some of the people [faculty] at the State University [Pseudonym] right now, and I think that is a shame.

He further argued that even though he appreciated and supported those people who try to learn on their own, most people need to find the teacher if they are really going to learn something that is very difficult to understand on one' own without the input and support from the teacher. He also provided a rationale why he thought that one needs a teacher to learn effectively by saying, "Why is it important to have a teacher? Teachers know things I do not know. The teacher notices things I do not notice. And the teacher can point those things out, and help me know them, and help me notice them." Teacher 6's view of teaching was not purely behaviorist and teacher-centered because he recognized that everybody has different roles to play, thus "teacher can be the students sometimes, and students can be the teacher sometimes." Still, these kinds of learner-centered pedagogical precepts occupy only a peripheral place in his larger belief system in that he passionately stuck to his central view of teaching as transmission of knowledge and skills from the teacher to students as reflected by his remarks: "But, for teaching, there is an expert-novice relationship that is fundamental to teaching."

Teacher 7 also shares a similar perspective on teaching. According to Teacher 7, teaching means "helping students gain knowledge and just basic skills" such as how to write, how to answer a question, how to analyze, and how to interpret. Even though Teacher 5 did not seem to have a clearly formed conception of teaching, his statements also indicate that he holds on to a transmission orientation to teaching. He said,

> I can very easily say disseminating information in which in many cases many teachers consider teaching but I think it goes a little bit further and sharing a value, sharing information. I am not sure how to put that in words or terms that are useful. I think it is pretty much sharing of values and sharing of information about things and possessing knowledge of certain areas, possessing of knowledge of content area, whatever your content may be. And that is basically it.

Teacher 1's conception of teaching can also be described as teacher-centered, though his view also includes some elements of learning-centered approach to teaching. Employing an art metaphor to articulate his view of teaching, he said,

> To a certain degree, teaching is an art. You are a performer. I know that is not what social studies professors want it to be. And I know that is not what they teach.... And they are able to pass on their passion well and to a certain degree that takes an ability to perform. In the old days, they used to be people, they got the front stage and in plays, they would read, they were just story telling there. You know, the people enjoy hearing the story. And then, there are some people. They are just facilitators. They facilitate history. And if you are a good history student and you really enjoy learning history, then you will probably do really well with someone who just facilitates.

2. Teaching as Developing Students' Cognitive Skills

This understanding of teaching emphasizes that teaching is helping students develop their cognitive abilities and thinking skills such as the ability to distinguish facts from opinion, and the ability to recognize generalizations. Likewise, rather than knowledge and the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to students, this view stresses the importance of getting kids to understand and think about issues through "why" questions in order to help them develop their critical thinking skills and habits of mind. According to Teacher 2, teaching means "helping

someone develop mental process as he is learning, developing their cognitive abilities," such as "the ability to discern fact form opinion, recognize generalizations." To help students do that, the teacher needs to "provide a nurturing environment," that is, a classroom as an "incubator to develop strong minds." Teacher 3 also conceptualized teaching as "getting kids to think about and understand things that they have not previously understood, or to get them to think, or to get them to stretch their mind to higher order thinking and critical thinking."

Although Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 did not mention knowledge in their conceptualizations of teaching, Teacher 4 drew attention to the place of knowledge in the teaching process by praising himself for having strong knowledge base. He said, "I pride myself in having a lot of knowledge. When people ask me things, I know the answers. I think that is what education is." He put across his conception of teaching as follows, "Teaching is causing people to think. That is developing thinking skills. But, it is also imparting knowledge. If you want to teach students to question like those favorite students who ask why, why these happen? So, you teach them to be questioners and accepters."

3. Teaching as Facilitating and Guiding Learning

Teachers' responses in this category draw first and foremost on cognitive and constructivist theoretical frameworks for teaching. As such, they reflect a view of teaching as facilitating students' understanding of the subject with its substantive and syntactic features, helping them create meaning out of the curricular and instructional materials that they study, and providing them with learning opportunities to explore the concepts that they introduced. Therefore, teachers basically see their roles as a facilitator or a guide and try to model for students how to do their work. Students are expected to develop a questioning attitude, to be more active, and to have more roles to play in the teaching process. The ultimate aim is to help students become self-

regulated and independent learners who can formulate and find answers to questions and take responsibility for their own learning. Teacher 9's perspective best exemplifies this conception of teaching. She said,

> [Teaching] enables kids to learn. I want you to read and tell me what you have thought of the important things and so we can come together and together form meaning out of this. As a teacher, I am a facilitator. I am a guide. I will give them the structure so that they can have freedom to, to explore. That is really teaching… As a facilitator, I have got just some experiences and give them the opportunity to answer those questions that are asked. The role of the teacher is to help them create their plan for research. And so, we have to provide some experiences for them to be able to build that cognitive framework.

As is clear from her responses, Teacher 9's perspective on teaching was informed by both individual and social constructivist views of teaching. Even though some teachers implicitly touched on the social factor in the process of teaching, of all 12 teachers interviewed, Teacher 9 was the only one who explicitly emphasized the social construction of meaning with the involvement of the teachers and students together. Teacher 9's view of teaching was also more elaborate and lucid than the other two teachers in this category. Though Teacher 9's viewpoint was colored by a constructivist orientation to teaching, some elements of a traditional view of teaching shaped her conception of teaching. Drawing attention to the role one's knowledge base plays in teaching and learning the subject, she stated,

> There is also that knowledge base that they have to have in order to, you might say, get in the game. And that's, you know, my job is to make sure that some concepts come alive. I need to know my area well enough to make sure that they have the key concepts, key terms, and key places. I mean, as a teacher, I have been here to teach them memory strategies…. They can't understand the concept of materialism. They can't if you do not make it concrete. So, that is why my job comes in, making sure that the concrete pieces are there, so they can pull them together and have an understanding and then free them to explore other areas.

The perspectives of Teacher 10 and Teacher 12 are more closely identified with an individual constructivist view of teaching. Teacher 10's view incorporates both the view of teaching as helping students develop themselves and their personal personality and some elements of the

view of teaching called cognitive apprenticeship, e.g., helping students become better individuals and modeling for students how to do something. She articulated her conception of teaching as follows:

> [Teaching is] facilitating, allowing students the opportunity to understand something, showing people how to do something. I think teaching is sharing information with the students and exposing students to new ideas. Helping people master the ideas they have already known. Helping people be better individuals, role models. Teaching people how to function, helping people come to an understanding about certain, certain topics, opening minds to new ideas.

Teacher 12 also had a similar perspective on teaching, holding on to individual constructivist orientation to teaching. She placed much more emphasis on the role of knowledge in learning than Teacher 9 and Teacher 10. She said,

> Teaching is guiding. Teaching is [*long pause*] again it is not showing things. But, teaching is helping your students open their mind. Teaching is about helping students to develop a passion for knowledge. I know the biggest thing I always try to tell them, knowledge is power, knowledge is power. If you are ignorant, people will take advantage of that. The more you know, the less likely you are going to be taken advantage of. I am trying to teach them, to import my passion for knowledge.

Lastly, Teacher 8 stated that teaching means "the passing of knowledge from one generation to another also means allowing students to find their own voice." Though Teacher 8's view of teaching incorporates a traditional view of teaching as a transmission of knowledge from the teacher to students, her conception fits this category better than the first category. This is because most of her views on schooling are affected by a learner-centered orientation to teaching as will be seen in the subsequent sections.

4. Teaching as Making Learning Relevant

There is only one teacher whose conception demanded another category. I formed a different category to present Teacher 11's view of teaching in that this teacher had an eclectic view of teaching. She did not talk about factors that characterizes either behaviorist or constructivist

views of teaching or both, i.e., an emphasis on knowledge, transmission of knowledge, outcome of teaching, the teacher's knowledge, and overt behavior vs. an emphasis on skills, knowledge construction, meaning making, process of teaching, learners' knowledge and experiences, and a covert cognitive process. But it is safe to say that Teacher 11's response was closer to the learner-centered view of teaching than the teacher-centered one. She emphasized being creative, committed, dedicated to students' learning, and making the learning task relevant to students in her response. She explained her conception of teaching as follows:

> Commitment is one thing. I think, just to stay in it or hold on long to it, you got to be dedicated. It is very, very demanding, very demanding. I can't teach in two thousand five the same way… You got to do more to kind of come up with task and make it relevant to them… You got to constantly be creative.

Teachers' Perspectives on Learning

Diverse points of views come into play in shaping each teacher's perspective on learning. As is the case in teachers' conceptions of teaching, all the teachers' responses embody a multiple view of learning characterized by varying and differing theoretical frameworks instead of a single learning theory. That is, teachers' conceptions of learning again draw on different theoretical learning models ranging from the varieties of behaviorist to cognitive and constructivist theories. But, it is the cognitive and constructivist learning theories that seem to have more influence on teachers' conceptions of learning than the behaviorist tradition. The reason why teachers more closely identified themselves with the constructivist view of learning may have to do with the fact that all the teachers in the study were teaching in a school district that endorsed a learning-focused approach to teaching which is grounded in conceptual framework colored by constructivist learning theories.

Because there were a lot of similarities in teachers' understanding of what learning means, their conceptions of learning were difficult to divide into distinctive categories. To illustrate, all

teachers' responses explicitly or implicitly reflect the idea that learning is not memorizing but processing and understanding information. For this reason, the categories formed are not mutually exclusive but overlapping as is the case for teachers' conceptions of teaching. The criteria for dividing teachers' responses into separate but overlapping categories are based on the statements of similar concepts or ideas by the teachers.

Still, fur conceptions of learning emerged from the analysis of teachers' views of learning (see Table 4.2). The following categories of conceptions of learning are arranged from the behaviorist conception of learning to the constructivist view of learning. The most common pattern in the first category of teachers' responses was the acquisition of knowledge under the guidance of the teacher who transmits knowledge and skills to students, playing a more active role in students' learning process. On the other hand, teachers' responses in the last category, "learning as meaning making," reflect a different pattern, a view of learning that expects students to play a more active role in their learning and explicitly distinguishes acquiring facts through memorization from learning for understanding through making meaning out of curricular materials.

Table 4.2 Teachers' conceptions of learning

Conceptions of Learning	***Teachers***
1. Learning as accumulation of knowledge	Teacher 4, Teacher 6,
2. Learning as application of information and decision making	Teacher 3, Teacher 7, Teacher 8
3. Learning as a cognitive process of understanding concepts	Teacher 2, Teacher 10, Teacher 11
4. Learning as meaning making	Teacher 5, Teacher 9, Teacher 12

1. Learning as the Accumulation of Knowledge

This category of responses represents an understanding of learning as the acquisition of knowledge and places more emphasis on content than skills. The teacher and his or her knowledge are at the center of the learning process. Students are seen as passive recipients of

knowledge from the teacher. Thus, it is not students but the teacher who plays an active role in students' learning. This conception of learning does not recognize the differences in learners' interests, needs, abilities, talents, beliefs, learning styles, choices, and the like. That is, the roles that learners' backgrounds, previous life, and school experiences play in their learning are not visible in these teachers' responses. Both Teacher 4 and Teacher 6 conceptualized learning more in terms of teaching and content, emphasizing the importance of having a substantial body of knowledge by the teacher and the acquisition of a satisfactory amount of knowledge by students. Emphasizing that knowledge needs to be transmitted from the teacher to students, Teacher 6 said,

> I do not think there is a stream of thought that you might call constructivist. I may not be completely fair to them because I am not completely aware of exactly what that means. But, I believe people construct knowledge. That is the creative part. But, I do not think people create out of nothing. I can create knowledge. But, I have to have some pieces to work with and so, I believe as a teacher that in the classroom, there is knowledge that I try to impart. There is knowledge I try to transmit and at the same time I know that I may not impart, transmit fully. I believe that one of my responsibilities is to impart and transmit knowledge. Those are the building blocks for those people who will be using it to construct knowledge**….** It is the classroom teacher, I am a part of that knowledge. I am also someone who tries to oversee the construction of knowledge. Both things are going on in the classroom at the same time.

Teacher 6 resorted to a "dance metaphor" to make his conception of teaching more concrete. He said that the best way to teach someone how to dance is to take a dance with them by instructing them to "do this first, do this second." So, knowledge as to how to dance is transmitted from an expert dancer to a novice one who "did not come in, knowing this goes here, that goes there." Teacher 4 expressed similar view of learning. He argued that even though learning is developing thinking skills for some people, "learning skills without knowledge is like a defense worker with no ammunition. It is useless." So, learning is basically "acquiring knowledge." Like Teacher 6, Teacher 4 also put a coupled emphasis on the importance of

knowledge in one's learning. He said,

> I feel a great pride when a student asks me a question, I do not have to say, oh let me look that up for you, let's go, look that up on the internet. I can tell them from my knowledge. I do not have to look at a book. I do not have to look that up on the internet. Sometimes these kids say, Mr. Anderson [Pseudonym], how do you know all the stuff? I say, because I studied and read books, I know it. And they seemed amazed that I have knowledge. I do not think teachers have been challenging kids to learn anything to retain knowledge. And I think that is so important. That is what educating is, [*brief pause*] being an educated person is. An educated person is one who has knowledge.

2. Learning as the Application of Information and Decision Making

Like the teachers in the previous category, teachers in this category viewed learning as gaining knowledge as one component of learning. However, their responses also emphasized the application of acquired knowledge in the real world such as using previously taken knowledge to make decisions. The emphasis is not only on the content but also understanding of the content to be used in one's life. On the other hand, these teachers' views of learning do not appreciate the ways that students' abilities, capabilities, interests, learning styles, etc., come into play in shaping the kind of learning that students experience in their engagement with learning tasks. Teacher 3 said, learning means "acquiring knowledge that you did not previously have or being able to take knowledge that you previously had and put it into something concrete to have you make better decisions and help you understand more things." Likewise, Teacher 7 stated, learning is "gaining knowledge you did not have before…. Being able to make a decision based on something that you learned before… and being able to understand why things happen."

In addition to seeing learning as the "acquisition of knowledge," Teacher 8 also recognized the role of students in the construction and application of knowledge. Describing learning in terms of teaching, she said that the teacher needs to help students "make it [knowledge] their own" and to help them find their own voice. Teacher 8's response implies that it takes students to make a lot of decisions if they are to develop their own voice. As noted earlier, Teacher 8's

overall pedagogical orientation is much closer to a learner-centered paradigm of instruction than a teacher-centered one. But, her conceptualization of both teaching and learning was fragmentary and less coherent than the rest of the teachers, most probably because of her limited experience in teaching.

3. Learning as a Cognitive Process of Understanding Concepts and Problem Solving

Teachers' responses in this category represent a view of learning as a more complex process than the previous two categories. These teachers' views of learning emphasized the cognitive elements involved in the learning process such as internal cognitive understanding of the concepts and processing of information to solve problems. The views of Teacher 2 and Teacher 10 best exemplify this category. According to Teacher 10, learning means understanding and processing information which is a process difficult to quantify. She said,

> I think students can take information, they can process, they can understand it…. That is something that I do not think can even be measured sometimes. I do not think we ever know how much a student learns. I mean, you can look at a test score and say how much they learned and did not learn. But, I think there is a lot of learning going on in our students' mind [that] I will never know. And I do not think anybody can ever measure that internal understanding of the concepts. Of course, externally I know if a student learn, they can spit it back to me on the test. But, I think learning becomes a very complex thing. If I have a student who can actually learn how to organize a notebook and turn it in, he is learning something…. But, how do you see that? I do not know.

Teacher 2 also briefly put across his view of learning in a similar fashion by saying, "Acquiring the ability to understand information, process it, solve a problem. You just practice solving problems." Teacher 11's perspective was a little bit different from the other two teachers, though her view also best fits this category. Teacher 11 was more interested in seeing overt student behaviors such as students' performance on the tests and essays to judge whether a given student has learned the topics studied. She said,

> I think the ability to take information [*long pause*], use that information to express your understanding of a topic or subject area or an essay question or just a short-answer

> question and a format that others can see through your demonstration that you actually have some type of cognitive understanding of what has been taught by the instructor.

4. Learning as Meaning-making

While articulating their views of learning, all the three teachers in this category first and foremost distinguished the difference between learning as acquiring facts via memorization vs. learning as understanding via meaning-making. These teachers emphasized the need to relate the previously learned information with new information so that students will make sense of what they are learning, making meaning out of the materials they study. That is, the emphasis is on learners, on their existing knowledge and skills, and on the learning process. Connecting new information with an existing and relevant knowledge base, knowing how to find information on one's own, having a questioning attitude toward new information are deemed to be important elements of learning in this perspective on learning. Teacher 12 said,

> Learning is not memorizing. It does not mean showing facts. But, learning is something that something you can apply on your life. It is about concepts, ideas, and thinking, getting them to see outside their small world. I have taught something and they have learned. Facts, you know, go and look them up in the book if you want to know later, and maybe that is learning too, how to find knowledge. It is more important to me than just [*long pause*] here is a bunch of facts because they are going to forget it, you know, and as long as they can know where to find it later on in their lives then they can learn something. So, real learning is something that they can take with them and apply to them throughout their lives.

Likewise, from Teacher 5's perspective, "memorizing and learning are two different things," so learning means "the things that you relate to and that you can interrelate to and that are becoming grained. It is something that you go a little bit further and to think about things that you can actually [understand]. It is things that have meaning to you." Teacher 9 also saw learning as a process of understanding and meaning making. She said,

> That does not mean learning facts. That means, to me, learning is a process, learning is having something, coming to a framework, to hang information on so that it has meaning to the learner. Learning is that ability to know where to take it to the next step. Learning

is an ongoing process and never ends. Every time you see something new, they raise a new question and they may work from that one.

Teachers' Views of the Characteristics of an Effective History Teacher

Teachers identified a number of factors in relation to the characteristic features of an effective history teacher (See Table 4.3). Their responses were very multifaceted, encompassing those constructs, knowledge, and skills in intellectual, affective, dispositional, disciplinary and pedagogical domains. It was such affective features as enthusiasm, interpersonal skills, caring, and open-mindedness on which teachers placed more emphasis than the rest of the other effective teacher characteristics, considering them fundamental to successful history education.

Almost all teachers first pointed out the importance of having enthusiasm for history when explaining the kind of history teacher that they thought to be effective in teaching history. According to teachers' responses, an effective history teacher first and foremost loves or has a passion for history and is enthusiastic about teaching it, has great interpersonal skills or knows how to interact with students at secondary school level, cares about students; that is, they are concerned with students' learning along with their personal, social, intellectual and emotional developments, and is open-minded.

Affective and dispositional characteristics of an effective history teacher are followed by pedagogical knowledge and skills, both general and subject-specific. An effective history teacher is expected to know his subject area well; motivate students to learn and to do well; help history come alive; make history interesting and help students become interested in history; capture students' attention and get them excited about learning history; make history relevant to students' lives; successfully handle the learning environment and make it a safe place for students to feel comfortable and appreciated; use different teaching methods; is flexible in terms of tailoring the lesson plans to classroom situation if needed; is story teller; give feedback on

student work; model behaviors; and engage in reflection. I will first present those characteristics of an effective history teacher that have to do with personality and dispositional factors and then pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Table 4.3 Teachers' views of the characteristics of an effective history teacher

Characteristics	***Teachers***
A. Attitudinal features	
Enthusiasm	All Teachers Except for Teacher 6, Teacher 8
Open-minded	Teacher 3, Teacher 5, Teacher 8, Teacher 9, Teacher 10, Teacher 12
Interpersonal skills	Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 6, Teacher 7
Caring about students	Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 5, Teacher 9, Teacher 11
B. Content knowledge & pedagogical skills	
Knowledgeable	All Teachers Except for Teacher 10
Motivate students to learn	Teacher 2, Teacher 6, Teacher 7
Make history come alive & make history interesting	Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 3, Teacher 4, Teacher 6, Teacher 10, Teacher 11
Use different teaching methods	Teacher 1, Teacher 6, Teacher 9
Good story teller	Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 4
Flexible	Teacher 6, Teacher 7, Teacher 10
Skillfully handle classroom learning environment	Teacher 2, Teacher 4, Teacher 8
Give feedback	Teacher 5, Teacher 11
Model dispositions and behaviors	Teacher 6
Reflect on teaching	Teacher 5
Personality	Teacher 5
Patient	Teacher 6
Persistent	Teacher 6
Years of experience	Teacher 6
Good time manager	Teacher 7
Views him/herself as a learner	Teacher 9

A. Attitudinal Features

Enthusiasm

Except for Teacher 6 and Teacher 8, all teachers emphasized that effective history teachers have a passion for both history and for teaching it and thus they are enthusiastic about what they

are teaching. Because Teacher 6 had the most sophisticated conception of history and was critical of those social studies teachers who are not interested in developing themselves professionally in the field of history and reading analytical history and history of other nations, it is safe to assume that this teacher took "being enthusiastic about history" for granted. Those teachers who do not have a passion for history are unlikely to read historical books and articles. Therefore, this teacher also implicitly referred to this characteristic of an effective history teacher. As for Teacher 8, since she was a novice teacher and seemed to be struggling with classroom management issues, she may not yet appreciate "the passion for history" on the teachers' part. The rest of the teachers all explicitly stressed that having enthusiasm is a must in teaching history effectively.

According to Teacher 1, passion is what makes a teacher great and outstanding among his or her colleagues and thus it is one of the most important preconditions to being able to become a good and effective history teacher. Because Teacher 1 was also a cooperating teacher who helps in-service social studies teachers develop their skills in teaching history by modeling how to teach it in actual classroom settings, he pointed out the difficulty with passing on the passion for history to would-be history teachers. To him, passion for history is an intrinsic factor and thus it is difficult to teach it to others who intend to participate in this community of practice. Being enthusiastic about history, Teacher 1 also said, can make those students who do not like history change their view of it, developing a positive attitude toward it. He said,

> You absolutely have to love, and have a passion for history. Otherwise, why would you try to teach it? If you do not think it is important, then you do not need to be a history teacher. For me, if I did not think it was important, I would not be here. I think it is absolutely true. I would not have written the elective class of military history if I did not think military history is important. It is fun to teach military history…. But, it is very difficult to teach passion for history and to teach, being able to convey that passion. That is really what makes somebody, I think, a great teacher. As far as teaching [is concerned], when a person [student teacher] comes in, [and if] they love it, then it is easy to teach

> [them] to be a good teacher… If you are a kid who really doesn't like history [and thinks that] it is about dead people, then you need someone who is fascinated with history, somebody who is passionate about it.

Teacher 4 also made similar comments on the importance of having a passion for history. To Teacher 4, if the teacher is to give interesting lectures, making history come alive, and students are to enjoy learning about history, the history teacher first of all has to be enthusiastic about history.

> He must love history. He must get excited about history. If the history teacher is not excited about it, you can't bring life to the lectures, make these characters in the book come to life, then you won't be an effective teacher…. They [history teachers] have to be excited about it or else, what would you expect them to be excited about it?

Pointing out the need to model being enthusiastic about history to students so that they can develop the same passion and like studying history, Teacher 2 stated,

> Enthusiasm, passion. I think it is important that a good history teacher has enthusiasm. If they are not excited about what they are talking about, how do they expect their students to be excited about listening and learning about it?... If you are not interested, then how do you expect your students to be interested.

Both Teacher 9 and Teacher 10 also saw the passion for history as the most critical attribute of an effective history teacher and as a precondition to make history enjoyable rather than monotonous and boring. Teacher 9 said, "They need to have the one that I think is the most critical, is enthusiasm. I mean I can be up, teaching you all day long. But, it would be dead if I am not enthusiastic, if I am not passionate about what I am teaching." Similarly, Teacher 10 stressed that "I think enthusiasm is important. And, we have some history teachers who make it kind of boring and dull. I would like the child to be able to be enthusiastic." That is, an effective history is the one who teaches history "for a passion not for a check," Teacher 3 added "you want to be doing what you want to do… so, be involved in it. If you are teaching just to get paid,

[you are not] putting much into it." Other teachers also valued having a passion for history. Their reposes are as follows:

"You have to be passionate about [history] as a teacher. And I think that is another pre-characteristic of being a history teacher" (Teacher 5).
"They should enjoy the subject, have some passion for it that students can see" (Teacher 7).
"For me, to be effective, I think I have to love what I am teaching. And I do. Naturally, as I said earlier, love what you teach. So, know your subject matter, love what you are teaching. I think those are the two things that make you effective. I love what I teach and I am committed to what I teach." (Teacher 11)
"Passion, yeah, passion… And back to passion, passion to learn, and passion to understand" (Teacher 12).

Open-minded

In addition to being enthusiastic about history, an effective history teacher is expected to tolerate different viewpoints and entertain alternative perspectives on a given issue. Given the very nature of history which as an interpretative discipline basically involves the construction of arguments about the past or the past people's thoughts, intentions, actions, and the situations in which they were involved, having and maintaining an open-mind is fundamental to helping students see the world from different and multiple perspectives and understand the role of subjectivity in historical knowledge construction. Half of the teachers saw it important for history teachers to have a neutral approach to history by keeping an unbiased opinion of history. They also expected history teachers to model how to be open-minded for their students so that they can see it in practice and try to emulate it. Teacher 9 said, "They need to see us open to [different viewpoints] when they prove a viewpoint or ask for information, [they need to see] that we are in the process of re-evaluating our framework [or] the conclusions we may reach."

Like Teacher 9, Teacher 10 then also expected history teachers to model how to be open-minded. Stressing that "I think enthusiasm and open mind are the two biggest one," she said, "If I want them to be able to support their opinion, I have to be open-minded enough to accept their

opinion [so that] they can defend it. I may not agree with what they think. But, I need to be more [open-minded] to accept their opinion…to be open-minded about the content." Likewise, implicitly referring to the multiplicity of historical interpretations of the past, Teacher 12 said, "[History teachers should be] open-minded definitely. You can't teach history if you think that history is one-sided. If you think that this is the only way [to interpret the past, then] you are not teaching history. You do your students disservice, I think." Both Teacher 5 and Teacher 8 respectively stated that an effective history teacher should have "an unbiased view of history," and "unbiased opinion or an openness to other sides."

Teacher 3's expression of being open-minded was slightly different from the other teachers' expressions. He put more emphasis on being able to refrain from telling one's perspective. That is, he expected history teachers not to disclose their perspectives on a given issue being discussed in the class so that they can avoid leading students to put across those viewpoints that they think the teacher is going to like to hear. Teacher 3 argued,

> I think the most important characteristic of an effective teacher is the ability to control his or her own opinions. Not be outspoken, be general and not necessarily criticize, but [know] how [to] give your opinion. You can't be a teacher who every time makes an opinion. They should let it down. You have to be, like I said, more general than that. Like I said, just throw out ideas, facts. I just throw out them. I know in my mind that is contradictory to what they are just saying. But, I just let them tell their opinions…You have to control your own opinion. I very very very rarely give my opinion first. I always let students give their opinions first because I do not want the students to tell what they think the teacher wants to hear. I do not want that. I am telling students that I want you to tell me what you think, how you feel.

Interpersonal Skills

An effective history teacher has interpersonal skills and is able to practice those skills when interacting with young people, making personal connection with them at individual level. Teacher 1 placed the greatest emphasis on the ability to be able to establish and maintain positive relationship with students than the rest of other skills. My visit to his classroom, formal interview

and informal conversation with him suggest that this teacher also seems to be a popular teacher among his students who are likely to enjoy taking history courses with him. According to Teacher 1, the teacher first and foremost should attempt to get to know his or her students at the very beginning of school year in order to make a personal connection with each of them. So, from Teacher 1's perspective, having and practicing interpersonal skills is a key to teaching history effectively. Remembering the suggestions he gave to student teachers, he said,

> I think without a doubt, the two things that are most important is that history teacher first of all has to have great interpersonal skills. When a student teacher comes in, I tell them about the interpersonal relationships. You have to learn first thing [first]. Sit in that classroom, observe, and watch kids, do not necessarily watch me. Watch me some, watch kids more than anything else and learn names…. In seat arrangement, I want you [student-teacher] to learn names, so for the first day you are sent to teach, you can already call someone by name because you have to make that personal connection with that person or you can't teach them well.

Stating the importance of interpersonal skills differently and paying more attention to the ability to communicate with high school students, Teacher 2 said that teaching at the secondary school level is different from teaching at a college in terms of the nature of the relationship between the instructor and students, which he thinks is more formal and distanced than the relationship a secondary school teacher has with his or her students. He expressed these points as follows:

> [The history teacher] must be able to communicate [*long pause*], must be able to communicate effectively. I have known many people that have [*long pause*] vast amount of knowledge could not communicate with their students. I mean you have to have personal skills on a high school level, on a high school level. That is important. You are dealing with, your are dealing with a lot different students on a high school level, not on a college level.

While Teacher 2 drew attention to the huge amount of knowledge a teacher might have and implicitly pointed out that it is not sufficient to be an effective teacher, Teacher 7 explicitly stressed that that those kinds of teachers "are not going to be effective [in] transferring what they

know, helping students gain knowledge." This is because, Teacher 7 contended, "a teacher has to be personable" to be able to teach effectively. "If they are the smartest person in the world and stand up in front of students in the class, but they do not have the skills to work with young people," they cannot effectively engage students with history. Teacher 6 also briefly touched on the importance of these skills when he said "I do not look at a particular approach and say that is bad. I want to see how they interact with the students."

Care about Students

Having an interest in young people or caring about them is another characteristic of an effective history teacher who is supposed to be concerned with students' intellectual, social, personal and emotional development. As a matter of fact, making personal connection with students through interpersonal skills is highly interrelated with this caring attitude toward students. That is, they are intertwined with and depend on each other. Indeed, if a given teacher does not care about students' well-being, he or she is unlikely to try to make personal connection with students at personal level. Almost half of the teachers saw a strong causal relationship between an affectionate attitude toward young people and effective history instruction. Making a distinction between a historian teaching at a university level and a history teacher teaching at a secondary school level in terms of their orientation, Teacher 1 said,

> Love [emphasis] kids. If you do not love kids, why are you here? If you do not love kids, but you love history, then you need to be a researcher. You need to write a book. You need to be a curator of a museum and those are fine things. I am not putting those down but saying if you do not love kids, you do not need to be here because this job is not about teaching history. It is about developing a kid socially or child socially. Help teaching them [to distinguish] right from wrong. Help teaching them appropriate behavior in lots of different situations.

So, providing students with good experiences to be remembered for the rest of their life was a great concern for Teacher 1.

Students are very cognizant of the teacher's attitude toward them. They are aware of whether their teachers care about their intellectual, emotional, personal, and social developments and depending on the teacher's attitude, they may or may not care about the teacher's instruction. As Teacher 9 said, "If you do not care about them, they are not going to care about what you are trying to convey. And these kids can, if you really do not care about them, they will know. They know. You cannot fool these kids, which is good." For this very reason, Teacher 9 thought that "if you are going to effectively teach, you really have to care about the people that you are teaching." Teacher 11 also expected the effective history teacher to care about students. She was more concerned with whether the teacher is doing his responsibilities with integrity by providing students with meaningful learning experiences. She said,

> Then you love students too. You care about what they are doing and what they are learning. So, I think those three things are highly important. if you are concerned about student learning, you are going to teach so that students will walk away and say you know what, that lady gave me ninety minutes of instruction or fifty five minutes whatever your class period every day.

Rather than use such affective words or verbs as love and care, Teacher 2 preferred to express his opinion on this effective characteristic by saying, "I think a good history teacher [has a] genuine interest in young people." Teacher 5 also briefly mentioned the need to care about students.

B. Content Knowledge & Pedagogical Skills

Knowledgeable

In addition to having desirable personal characteristics and certain positive dispositions toward the subject, student, and teaching, an effective teacher also has to have a command of the subject he or she is teaching. Except for Teacher 10, all teachers stated that a history teacher has to have knowledge of the content or a good understanding of the subject he or she is teaching.

Teacher 6 was the one who put the greatest emphasis on this feature of an effective history teacher. According to Teacher 6, the content knowledge is the key to be an effective teacher. He articulated why he thought having a substantial level of content knowledge was the most important precondition for being an effective history teacher as follows:

> The most important thing I believe is content knowledge…. I think effective history teachers… have to share massive, massive content knowledge. If they do not have the content knowledge, I do not think they can be very effective…. The most fundamental quality that I thought effective teachers possess is that they have to have a high level of content knowledge. To be effective, I really believe that. That, I believe, is a necessary condition. It is not a sufficient condition. But, it is a necessary condition to be effective…. All of the teachers that I have seen who have been successful in this role have content knowledge. They are extremely knowledgeable people about what they are teaching. That is common to all of them. And so, if I had to pick, I would pick that first.

Teacher 6 continued to explain the importance of having a strong knowledge base in the subject area by pointing out one of the outcomes of having such massive content knowledge, being less defensive but more self-confident in the face of criticism:

> I think first of all, a teacher who is knowledgeable about their subject will be less defensive when people want to be critical of them. People want to come in and say you are not doing this for my child or what you are doing is completely wrong. If you have that confidence, of course confidence can be understood as arrogance, as stubbornness and all these others things. Again, you can see where the middle of the road on a lot of these things [is]. But, [those] people are confident [to] able to entertain alternatives more effectively than people who become defensive if somebody comes in and criticize your classroom and immediately you think this person is an idiot. They are just, what they are trying to do to me? If you can sit back and say I do not agree with everything they are saying. But, let me see if I can get behind what they are saying. My child has difficulty. My child has difficulty reading. You know you can explore with them some alternatives of what to do. And I think that is helpful.

Like Teacher 6 who has a degree in history, Teacher 9, who also enjoys having a degree in history, highlighted the key role that a sufficient training in history plays in teaching students history effectively. But, she did not see it as the most important characteristic of an effective teacher. To Teacher 9, history teachers "need to have the background in history… [to be able] to

teach history effectively, you had better have a strong academic background." On the basis of her experiences in working with pre-service social studies teachers, she contended that:

> I have different student teachers come through whose areas are specialized in one area or another and they have, they had a tough time adjusting the [*brief pause*]. For instance, we are in, in the geography, geographical approach, and they are just history. They had a tough time, you know, being able to switch from one domain to the other, and I see vice versa, where they are not prepared to teach history. So, you have got to have an academic background to really turn that off.

Other teachers also pointed out the need to be knowledgeable about the content area to teach history effectively. Criticizing some teachers' instructional practices and expecting all teachers not to pretend knowing everything about the content area that they are teaching, Teacher 12 said:

> If I am knowledgeable, I mean, obviously, you need to know your content. So many history teachers are, read the book, answer questions at the end of book. You know, read the chapter and then answer the questions. You know that to me shows the lack of knowledge. So, you need to be able to answer questions and at the same time, to your students, you need to say I do not know sometimes when you do not know what the answer is.

Stressing that teachers' have "got to know what they are teaching," Teacher 11 suggested that, if a given history teacher does not know about the unit or topics to be taught, he or she should "go back and do some research to be effective." Lastly, Teacher 2, 3, 4, and 7 touched on this characteristic of an effective history teacher by using such phrases as "knowledgeable," "knowledge of the subject obviously," "a good understanding of the subject," "have knowledge of subject area."

Motivate Students to Learn

Having content knowledge is necessary but not sufficient itself to effectively help students engage with history. Teachers need to understand human nature along with its psychological features too. They need to be familiar with the very nature and characteristics of students they are teaching. Drawing attention to the difference between college students and high school students in terms of their motivation level, Teacher 2 argued,

"In college somebody is paying tuition… College students are there because they want to be there. Many high school students are there because they have to be there. There is another force. That is, motivating that learner." Teacher 2 continued to explain how an effective history teacher can enhance student motivation to learn by encouraging them to do the learning tasks well and by means of praise:

> An effective teacher can get a student to put that effort…Do you like to hear someone tell that you are doing a good job? So, my students are people. So, [say] hey you did a good job today! That is a good answer to that question. Hey, you have really done well here! I can see a big change. I surely appreciate that. I hope it continues. We want to hear that things. That is our human nature. So, you can help someone become a better student.

Likewise, Teacher 6 stressed the ability to motivate students to learn the subject on their own. To him, if the teacher is able to motivate students to do their work, it did not matter much whether they were studying hard in the classroom or not. They would still learn the subject matter somewhere else. He said:

> It simply has to do with the ability to motivate students to work on their own. They may not work in the class. They may be doing lots of other things in the class. But, they do the work at home. And if time on task is the variable that is important, you can either try to make them work more in the classroom or if they are not working in the classroom, but they want to get work done, they want to get it done somewhere else and learn from it, you can be successful.

Teacher 7 also tapped on the teacher's ability to engage students with the subject by being creative in finding ways to have students become motivated to engage with learning tasks.

Make History Come Alive & Make History Interesting

In addition to employing generic pedagogical skills to motivate students to learn, effective history teachers employ subject specific pedagogical skills to help students become interested in history. Because the past is gone and those past events and people cannot be accessible, many students may be bored with studying and learning history if the history teacher does not try to make history come alive. As a matter of fact, research findings presented enough evidence that

many students have negative attitude toward history, find it boring, dull, and uninteresting to study and rate it as their least liked school subject among other subjects in the secondary school curriculum (Schug et al., 1984; Haladyana, 1985; Cuban, 1991). But what makes history seem boring in the eyes of students is not the subject matter of history, people and their lives, but the way it is presented to students through dry lectures. Pointing out this aspect of history, Teacher 2 said, "I think a good history teacher can get a student's interest in talking about people. We are talking about people here. We are talking about people that did something yesterday, a hundred years ago. And, I think people are fascinating." So, an effective teacher knows how to present history in an interesting way. Remembering her past experiences in engaging with history, Teacher 11 said, "I think that throughout the course, my education from fifth grade on, through high school, college, and graduate school, I had always excellent teachers that delivered history in a way that made it interesting." So, those effective history teachers know how to make history an interesting subject to study (Teacher 2) by "making it come alive" (Teacher 1) and by making history teaching fun and engaging (Teacher 3) so that students will not be bored. There are different ways to do so. According to Teacher 4 and Teacher 12, teachers can make the study of history an enjoyable activity, capture students' attention, and get them excited about history by presenting interesting lectures, by relating history to students' lives, and by making fun of themselves. Teacher 4 said, "I take pride in my lectures because they are entertaining. I try to make these [historical] figures come to life…. Sometimes, I shout, I jump up down. I am very animated, but I am excited about history…. So, I try to make my lectures interesting like that." Teacher 4 explained in detail how he tries to capture students' attention by giving a specific example from his teaching experience:

> Sometimes I exaggerate, just, just to get their attention. One day we were talking about Jefferson and embargo and there was a little poem in the book about his embargo that

> people who were against it. The poem goes like this: Our ships are in all motions once whitened the ocean. They sail and return with a cargo.... If I just read that poem aloud, the kids wouldn't get it, even wouldn't bother to listen. So, I made a rap out of it: I say, one day that people in Boston turned on their radios, of course, they had no radios, but I went [hitting his hands on the table as if playing a drum], our ships are in all motions once whitened the ocean, they sail [singing like a rap song] and, immediately all the African-American students become interested in the lesson, and say what is he doing? Hey, what is Mr. Anderson [pseudonym] doing? But, I got their attention. They say, hey, do it again, do it again, so they listened to second time, listened to what I was saying.

Like Teacher 4, Teacher 12 thought that the history teacher should be willing to be funny to grab students practice fun activities aimed at engaging students with history. Even if needed, the teacher needs to be eager to go off topic from time to time in order to spark students' interest in history. She put across her thoughts about how to make history interesting by capturing their attention as follows:

> You need to be willing to put yourself out there. I make fun of myself. I tell jokes. You know, you grab them that way. You capture them. I think they have taught us that education is like the hook. You have got to be able to hook your students so that they will stay with you…. Do fun activities….fun activities to engage them, and willingness to go off topic at times, you know, in order to get their interest and develop that passion…. Be open to your students. You can let them that you do not know but then they are like, hey, maybe I know something that she does not, get them interested.

Even though Teacher 4 and Teacher 6 had a tendency to dare to make fun of themselves for the sake of just making history interesting for students to study, Teacher 6 had an inclination to make fun of students in an appropriate way through sarcastic remarks that he thought many students find enjoyable and funny, though some may find hurting. He said,

> They [students] are attracted to the way the teacher does things. Something that is prohibitive and so many schools are sarcastic. And when I say prohibitive, it happens. Teachers use it all the time. In fact, many of the sarcastic teachers I have encountered have very strong relationship with the students. My own experience is growing up and sarcasm is something students enjoy. It is something that can be used in an appropriate way. I do not argue about that. When you are trying to point out the student, you know, you think that they can do better and you say you can do better! You can do better! But, some people would say, you know, communicate that in a sarcastic way. And I see that it can motivate the students. It can crush students too.

Lastly, Teacher 10 also highlighted the need to make history interesting by saying, even though the teacher may not be enthusiastic about history and find it boring, he or she "can still have the effort, enthusiasm, making them be excited about what is learned. I think that is an important characteristic."

Make History Relevant to Students' Lives

Very closely related to the ability to make history interesting is the teacher's ability and effort to make history relevant to students' lives. Effective teachers take into account students' backgrounds such as their race and ethnicity, life experiences, cultural practices and so on to have students see the relevancy of history to their lives. As already explained, Teacher 4 tries to capture a particular group of students, African-Americans, by making a good use of some cultural practices that those particular students enjoy. By doing so, he simultaneously make history relevant to students' lives as he explained: "I just used the simple poem out of the book. But, I turned it into a rap some of them [African-American students] they are identified with. And they enjoy it immensely." Teacher 12 emphasized the importance of helping students see the connection between history and their lives by appreciating and being responsive to students' language:

> You have to be able to relate to your students or [otherwise] students are not getting anything from you. You know, talking their language is so important…. Use a variety of resources [that] relate to their own lives. Class discussions are really important tool, I think, for helping students think for themselves and relate to their own lives.

Teacher 8 also appreciated those teachers who recognize diversity in cultural characteristics of students and tailor history curriculum and materials to students' racial, ethnic and cultural backgrounds. She said, "Presenting things outside of your own culture, trying to represent other cultures in your classroom and their history…Using things that are relevant to students' lives, connecting so that they are part of that history."

Likewise, highlighting the same consideration, Teacher 7 stated, "They [history teachers] need to be creative…to bring history to students, to try to get the students to relate to it. That is something that helps students greatly." Teacher 5 also drew attention to the cultural characteristics of students. Even though he did not explicitly state that the teacher needs to relate history or subject matter to students' lives, his comments implies so. Recognizing cultural diversity in the past and the present, he said,

> You can't go [and have a] pre-determined notion about certain people because our history is made of many cultures. And, be culturally knowledgeable because in many cases if you do not have knowledge of other cultures, then it can be very offensive in many cases if you start disseminating information and not having a basis about other cultures.

Use Different Teaching Methods

An effective history teacher does not stick to one or two methods, e.g., lectures, recitations, to help students understand history but has a repertoire of teaching methods which he or she can effectively practice. In other words, rather than teach history through traditional lectures supported with textbook, an effective history teacher employs a wide range of instructional methods. Emphasizing that teachers should not depend too much on textbooks and endorsing the use of primary sources for teaching history, Teacher 1 said,

> If you are going to be a very good history teacher, you can't just give the kids a book and say read so on, so on, and then discussed that. You also have to bring in first-hand accounts, letters, speeches. Look at history from the mouth of the person who wrote it, said it, lived it.

Even though teaching history via lecture is frowned upon in recent years because of its negative connotation, Teacher 6 contended that teachers should not fall prey on this attitude toward lecture but use both traditional and innovational methods grounded in constructivist philosophy of teaching and learning. He said,

> I have seen, my experience of seeing teachers shows me that a lot variety of teachers can be effective, using a wide variety of methods, methods that some people think are

> discredited. When I see them working in the classroom, it works for them…. And I have seen teachers [who] are very traditional, [use] lecture methods, all lecture, straight lecture, do very well. I have seen teacher who just talk with students, it is not discussion, it is not really a conversation, but they do not stand up and just lecture, just talk about the topic and then answer the question. They can be very really effective…. And so, for me, the approach is not the silver bullet and necessarily does the job at least in what I have observed.

Teacher 9 expected an effective history teacher to make the most use of available teaching methods by saying, "the methods to create experiences, methods that are supposed to fill in that background knowledge for kids."

Good Story Teller

Both Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 implicitly touched on the nature of historical accounts or the ways the past is made meaningful, comprehensible, and understandable, i.e., presenting historical events by narrating them. While Teacher 2 briefly mentioned this aspect of history teaching by saying "I think a good history teacher is a good story teller," Teacher 1 elaborated on his answer or his reasons why the ability of story telling is the key to be an effective history teacher:

> Shelby Foote. He just passed away. He was a very famous writer on Civil War history. I have no doubt that Shelby Foote would come in and teach history because he was also a story teller. I would be willing to hypothesize that those history writers that write very good and their books are very readable that you can't put it down. You love to read this book. It is a great story. It also writes history. I would be very surprised if that person would not be a very good teacher.

Flexible

There is a consensus among educators about what teaching is about. Many educators agree with the assertion that complexity and uncertainty are the two basic characteristics of teaching. The teacher, students, curriculum and the context in which teaching and learning occurs subtly interact with each other at different levels, iteratively influencing one another. Any change in one variable inevitably results in a change in the others in one or another way. Therefore, an effective history teacher recognizes the complexity of teaching and thus tries to act accordingly by being

flexible in his or her teaching. Stressing that teachers need to be flexible or willing to make changes in their approach by observing students' reactions to their instructional methods, Teacher 6 stated, "I think teachers have to be flexible. When I say flexible, they have to be responsive to their classes. They have to be willing to modify their approaches based on the class. They have to just be sensitive to see what is going on." He thought that teachers event cannot survive in the classroom if they do not adapt their instruction to the classroom situation, so it is important to modify one's teaching approach if needed. And modification meant that teachers "will not push it as hard for five days" if students do not understand the subject matter or have difficulty successfully engaging with a given learning task. On the other hand, "when they become aware of something, they can try to accommodate it if possible." According to Teacher 6, there was a correlation between being knowledgeable and being flexible, so if you are not a knowledgeable teacher, you got to be flexible. "You got to have more flexibility than a knowledgeable person because you are constantly having to change and adapt, because you do not have that body of knowledge to draw on to help you structure your classroom in a particular way." That is, Teacher 6 thought, "Knowledge and flexibility are really the most important things than anything else." Teacher 10 also made similar comments about flexibility in teaching. Looking at flexibility from a broader perspective, she said,

> Flexibility, not necessarily related to the content. Teachers are flexible to know that. I may have a great lesson plan by walking any day and who knows what will come up, something that is going to happen or I have to change, want to change in a moment. So, it is not related to history. It is more related to teaching in general.

Skillfully Handle Classroom Learning Environment

The ability to effectively handle classroom learning environment is another characteristic of an effective history teacher. In addition to managing the classroom environment skillfully without having severe behavior problems, the effective history teacher also produces a learning

environment that is safe to be in for all students. There were variations in teachers' opinions about how to handle a learning environment or where the focus should be while shaping the learning environment. Teacher 2 put more emphasis on the ability to create a positive and constructive learning environment than the skills in technical management of the classroom. He said,

> [Effective history teacher] must be an effective manager of the learning environment. I think a good teacher can do, can create a classroom that students want to be in. Students want to come to somebody they know that, this is, I do not know what he is going to say today. But it might be pretty interesting. I do not want to miss it. I am going to feel better leaving his class than I did when I go in.

As is clear from the above quotation, from Teacher 2's perspective, an effective history teacher is able to help students feel safe and appreciated in the classroom without feeling afraid of experiencing anything negative. Teacher 4 also shares the same perspective with Teacher 2 in terms of effectively managing learning environment. But, his view sharply differs from Teacher 2's view in terms of the way it is done. Teacher 4 thought that the teacher should have control of the classroom by taking strict measures and by taking on a stern attitude toward students. Otherwise, students will not listen to the teacher, engaging in disrespectful and disruptive behaviors in the classroom, as a result of which the opportunity to learn history will be significantly diminished. He elaborated on his answer by giving a concrete example from his experience in supervising student-teachers as a cooperating teacher. Seeing control of the classroom and the enthusiasm for history as the most important characteristics of an effective history teacher, he said,

> First of all, you have to manage the classroom. You have to have order in the classroom. There is a young man [in my classroom] in his first year of teaching. I do not think he is going to make it. He has no control in his classroom. The students, the kids go wild. They have no respect for him as a teacher, as an adult, as an authority figure. He has very difficulty in getting anything accomplished and then he is frustrated, the students are frustrated. There is very little learning going on in this classroom, so you have to be

> authoritarian. You have to establish that you are the boss…. You may have to be very mean. No, you may not go to the restroom. No, you cannot go to your locker. No, sit down. We are not doing that right now. [Be] very insensitive even, or at least to them, appear insensitive. But, once they have realized that you are not a pusher, [they understand that] they can't just do anything they want to, then you can loosen up, loosen up a little bit and be more human toward them, more caring toward them. But, you have got to establish who is the boss first, and then that' what is the most important thing, having control of the environment.

Like Teacher 4, Teacher 8 also put more emphasis on the technical management of the classroom environment than the creation of a safe and positive classroom atmosphere. She thought that 78 percent of successful teaching depends on the effective management of one's classroom. To her, "Young people are difficult to teach. If you can manage your classroom, then everything will be fine. [Have] control of the classroom, then I think you'll have success. The routine we would be having and let students be aware of that too."

Give Feedback

An effective teacher also regularly monitors students' learning toward attaining instructional goals at different points throughout the semester so that he or she can detect the gaps in their learning and then make a plan to remedy those deficits in their learning. That is, it is important for the teacher to employ on-going or formative assessment to see how well students have done their learning tasks and then plan instruction for student improvement. Highlighting the difference between teachers' and the state educational department's view of an effective teachers, Teacher 5 said,

> I think what really makes you effective is how well your students have done within your classroom setting. Again, how your students have progressed throughout the semester, throughout that school year. And I think those are probably the most important things that when I look at it as a teacher…. You know, the state assessment governs how effective we are in many cases. But, I do not see [through those tests] how well my students have progressed throughout from the day one to day one hundred and seventy eight when they get out of the school…. You know better than the state does when they take those tests.

Teacher 11 also saw it important to let students how well they are learning the subject matter or attaining the course goals by saying, "I had always excellent teachers that…gave me feedback on what I was doing. So, I found myself doing this the same thing."

Model Dispositions and Behaviors

One teacher, Teacher 9, pointed out the need to model those disposition and behaviors that teachers want their students to do such as getting excited about new ideas, doing research, and being engaged with history. Se said, "We need to model what it is that we are going to improve, or [we want] them to do with learning history or whatever the content is. We need to model that…. They need to see us as engaged and researching. They need to see us getting excited about new ideas."

Reflect on Teaching

Even though many educators see a teacher's reflection on his or her teaching practices as the key to be an effective teacher and to professional development, only one teacher, Teacher 5, mentioned refection as a fundamental characteristic of an effective history teacher. He said, "You know what level that student is on. You got that student. What do I need to do? That allows me to reflect. Is there something that I can do more or something that I can better? I think that is good in this regard because it does allow you to reflect. I think different reflective purposes make a really good teacher."

Other Characteristic Features

In addition to attributes of an effective history teacher explained so far, some teachers stated several more characteristics. These qualities can be briefly summarized as follows: Having "a personality" (Teacher 5); having to "be patient with students, with themselves, and patient with others" and "give people time to grow and develop" (Teacher 6); being persistence in the face of

adversity which helps teachers develop expertise and allows them to change the system, e.g., "when you persist in something, you develop expert knowledge." (Teacher 6); years of experience in teaching or schooling, i.e., "the teacher that has taught ten years is a stronger teacher than a teacher who just has taught two years." (Teacher 6); being a good time manager (Teacher 7); being inquisitive and interested in asking questions (Teacher 7); considering oneself as a learner by letting students be the teacher, e.g., "we are also learning with them. That is why I keep emphasizing year after year, day after day, that is the exciting part of teaching that I can continue learning and a lot of time, they are the teacher" (Teacher 9).

Teachers' Images of an Excellent Student

Teachers stated quite a few characteristics that they thought an excellent student is expected to have. As is the case in their images of an effective history teacher, most teachers' views of an excellent student focused on affective and motivational dimensions of teaching and learning rather than cognitive abilities of students. That is, excellence is not considered in relation to intellectual capacity, development, and achievement of students but considered in terms of student disposition or attitude toward learning in general and toward history in particular. Teachers generally used such words and phrases as desire, willingness, making effort, open-minded, motivated, committed, inquisitive, not afraid of trying, responsible, respectful and so on to describe their image of an excellent student.

The most common and also the most interesting pattern emanating from teachers' responses is that intelligence is a desirable attribute but has nothing to do with the characteristics of an excellent student. Even though teachers involved in the study were not asked to comment on whether an excellent student needs to be smart, almost all of them pointed out that an excellent student is not necessarily a smart person who is successful and gets high grades such as A for his

or her course work or outstanding among other students in term of his or her academic achievement. In the eyes of teachers, there were more important and more valuable characteristics of an excellent student than intelligence.

Thus, for every teacher, another attribute superseded intelligence or smartness as being far more important than it. For instance, while describing his image of an excellent student, Teacher 1 said, "It is not necessarily someone who is brilliant. It is not necessarily a person that walks in the door, knowing perfectly how to write, knowing perfectly how to behave…. They do not always make A's. But, they make great students." Thinking aloud, Teacher 2 asked, "Do they have to be smart?" and answered his own question by emphasizing the need to make use of one's ability, "Well, they have to want to try to be smart. You can have a student that is brilliant, has an IQ that is off the chart. But, if you can't get that person… to move forward on, it is like someone who is going to sit there, not do too much." Putting an emphasis on the importance of being a striving student, Teacher 3 said, "It does not matter whether they are, you know, top notch students, or average student, or below average student. But if you still strive, I think you are an excellent student." Likewise, devaluing memorization but valuing being enthusiastic about learning history, Teacher 4 argued,

> It is not just the grade. Grades are very important. But, some students just memorize facts, just long enough to put them on the paper for test and then they forget…. And I had students that were B students. But, I think they are actually better students than A plus students because they really cared about the history. It was not, this was not for grade.

Like Teacher 4, Teacher 5 also did not consider grades as an important criterion to be used to make judgment about what characteristics an excellent student is expected to have. He said, "I may say grades as one of the components, but sometimes that is not the case. I look at the grades and I praise them. But, that may not make you an excellent student. You know, that is just one component." By stressing that students need to work on their cutting edge, seeking challenging

tasks to engage with, Teacher 7 said, "Some students already know everything and, yeah, they may be really smart, but I wouldn't consider them excellent students because they are not going outside of what they have already known." For Teacher 10, trying to do one's best to finish assignments or making great efforts to complete learning tasks by far superseded intelligence:

> They do not have to be at the top of my class to be excellent students. I may have a really bright, intelligent student, but I do not want to see just seventy-five percent of what they can do. I mean they can give me a seventy five percent and get A. I want to see them give me a hundred percent of what they got, showing what they can do. And I have got some students who are very low, who can hardly read, but they give me a hundred percent every day. To me, they are excellent students. If a student who comes in here and is extremely intelligent, but does not want to do anything, what they do is just enough to get by academically. Yeah, they may be brilliant. But, to me, they are not excellent students.

As is the case for Teacher 4, rather than getting high grades, having a positive attitude toward learning and history was more important for Teacher 11 who stated, "It is not an excellent student, to me, [it] is not always a student who makes a hundred on everything because I have students who may get a hundred on every assignment, but they have a bad attitude about stuff."

In addition to the most common pattern in teachers' responses explained above, there are several characteristics of an excellent student. Teachers' descriptions of the characteristics of an excellent student encompass other features such as taking responsibility for one's own learning by making substantial effort to learn, participating in class activities and staying on task, having intrinsic motivation to learn, being enthusiastic about history as a committed learner who works on his or her cutting edge, seeking challenge, having an open-mind, being inquisitive and respectful for others, abiding by ethical principles, knowing how to communicate with others and having interpersonal skills (See Table 4.4). Explanations of these features of an excellent student through teachers' own words are as follows.

Table 4.4 Attributes of an excellent student identified by teachers

Attributes Identified	***Teachers***											
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12
Responsible & Make effort to learn	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Participate in class activities, Stay on task	X		X		X					X	X	
Intrinsic motivation to learn		X	X			X			X		X	
Enthusiastic about history	X			X							X	
Seek challenge and excellence		X	X				X		X	X	X	
Open-minded	X	X										X
Inquisitive				X		X		X	X	X	X	X
Respectful				X	X						X	
Abide by ethical principles				X			X					
Know how to communicate							X					
Have interpersonal skills											X	

Except for Teacher 1 and especially Teacher 4, both of whom elucidated the characteristics of an excellent student by taking into account history as a school subject, i.e, considering the relation between the content and form of history and student engagement with history, the rest of the teachers articulated their image of an excellent student in terms of general teaching and learning process.

Responsibility, Effort to Learn, Willingness to Try

Almost all participants saw taking responsibility for one's own learning by exerting considerable effort to try to do learning tasks and to understand subject matter as the main indicator of being an excellent student. First of all, an excellent student does not have a problem

with doing such simple and basic duties of a student as coming in the class, bringing materials, doing class assignments and turning in those assignments to the teacher. All but Teacher 5 and Teacher 7 pointed out this aspect of an excellent student. Excerpts from some of teachers' responses are as follows: An excellent student "comes to school and stays at school" (Teacher 3). "An excellent student would be prepared.... They [do] the things. An excellent student… [is one who] has prepared materials, writing and reading homework" (Teacher 8). "The image of an excellent student in my mind… [is] a student [who] comes in, brings notebook, brings his pencil and paper every day" (Teacher 11). "They come in here and they turn everything in" (Teacher 10). "I do want them to be responsible you know which means turning in their work" (Teacher 12). That is, such a student is conscious of his or her responsibility and does what he or she is supposed to do as a student.

In addition, an excellent student is willing to put effort to complete learning tasks. **"**That person is not necessarily right all the time but does everything. If you give them an assignment, they try. They do not necessarily get it right, but they try" (Teacher 1), "try to learn" (Teacher 12). That is, they "put forth the effort to achieve" irrespective of "whether they are top notch students, average student or below average student." In other words, "if you strive, you are an excellent student" (Teacher 3). The implication of these teachers' comments is that excellent students are expected to work hard. They are recognized as "diligent and studious" (Teacher 5) and thus they are expected to be "willing to work hard" (Teacher 7) and to "diligently do [their] work" (Teacher 5), and "try to succeed" (Teacher 9). They also give the teacher "a hundred percent of what they got" (Teacher 10) while doing their assignments and comply with the teacher's instructional orders in the class "without complaining" when the teacher asks them "to get into a group or to do something" (Teacher 11). In other words, an excellent student is

someone who is “teachable even though he or she may not make a hundred on every assignment” (Teacher 11). The quotations cited above explicitly demonstrate that an excellent student is willing to work hard to get the work done to the extent possible but they also implicitly imply that such a student is persistent in the face of difficulties and obstacles confronted at any time while doing learning tasks. It is Teacher 9 who overtly pointed out this feature when she said “They will go as far as their abilities allow them.... They do not want to stop, whether the problem is on their ways…. They keep going.”

Participation in Class Activities

Because excellent students take responsibility for their own learning, study hard, and do assignments without yielding to difficulties faced, they likewise participate in classroom activities, stay on task in the class, and pay attention to what is going on the classroom. They are “motivated to take part in everything” (Teacher 1), and “actively involved” (Teacher 5) in learning the subject by being “willing to voice their opinion” (Teacher 10), and by “being active in the class, discussing topics, debating within the class discussion” (Teacher 3). That is, they “attend to what is going on” in the class (Teacher 11).

Intrinsically Motivated to Learn & Self-regulated

Excellent students are hard working and actively involved in the classroom activities because they are intrinsically motivated to learn and try to enhance their understanding of the subject matter. That is, they are self-regulated learners. An excellent student is someone who “wants to learn” (Teacher 2 and Teacher 6), has a “desire to learn” (Teacher 9), or an “eagerness for learning” (Teacher 11), and “tries to learn and get more information” (Teacher 3) since “they are hungry for knowledge” (Teacher 6). For this reason, “whether the teacher teaches them or not,

they are going to learn." That is, "they learn on their own" without waiting for somebody else to teach them (Teacher 6).

Enthusiastic about Learning History

Being intrinsically motivated to learn inevitably leads an excellent student to become enthusiastic about history. They do not see history as memorization of names, dates, and places. Rather, they try to understand it without being concerned with their grades or GPA for history. As Teacher 4 says, they are interested in history, care about history, enjoy learning history, and appreciate history. Teacher 1 and Teacher 11 also made similar comments by drawing attention to students' attitudes toward history. Teacher 11 said, "It is not an excellent student, to me, [it] is not always a student who makes a hundred on everything because I have students who may get a hundred on every assignment, but they have a bad attitude about stuff." Likewise Teacher 1 stated, "Excellent student is someone who… is willing to listen… they are willing to listen and kind of get excited [about historical stories], yeah, it was a cool story."

Committed to Become an Excellent Student, Work on His or Her Cutting Edge, & Seek Challenge

This feature of an excellent student has a very strong relationship with the previous two features, the intrinsic motivation to learn and making effort to learn. That is, if students are intrinsically motivated to learn history, they will not be satisfied with the basic learning tasks that they are asked to do. Rather, they will seek to engage with challenging learning tasks and be interested in going beyond the requirement by doing more or putting more effort into the work they do, be it homework or research, and by getting more information on a given topic. That is, rather than just attempt to meet the external demands and requirements they are asked to meet, they set high standards for their own learning, seeking excellence in their learning. First of all,

they are committed learners and "have an intention to be an excellent student. They want to learn and they are not afraid of trying" (Teacher 2). They try to do their best (Teacher 11) by going beyond the requirement set by the teacher (Teacher 3). If the teacher gives them a set of questions, they "read the material and try to find answers, and learn something, not just copy it…learn whatever has been taught and strive to better themselves" (Teacher 3). They are willing to "go beyond what they have already known and comfortable with [and] willing to be challenged, not afraid of falling in their face" (Teacher 7). In other words, they work on their cutting edge and use their full capacity to learn the subject by "going as far as their abilities allow them" (Teacher 9). Since they seek excellence and challenge in their learning, "they try to do the best they can on everything they do… and are willing to take risks… willing to try new thing… really try something they may not be comfortable with doing" (Teacher 10).

Open-minded

An excellent student is someone who is open-minded, comes in the class "with an open mind" and is "willing to listen" to other people whose perspectives are different from their own (Teacher 1 and Teacher 2). That is, they are "open to new ideas," able to say "wow, I have never thought about it like that," and stay away from being "opinioned" about different viewpoints, ideas, worldviews, and cultures (Teacher 12).

Inquisitive and Questioner

Teachers emphasized inquisitiveness or curiosity as one indicator of being an excellent student. Instead of elaborating on what they meant by a curious or inquisitive learner, they usually only named this characteristic feature of an excellent student. This is most probably because they thought that everyone knows what a curious student means. It is Teacher 4 whose response briefly explained how inquisitiveness on the student's part reflects itself in practice in

the history classroom. Because excellent students are curious about learning what they do not know, they are interested in asking questions (Teacher 4, 6, and 8 through 12). They ask questions, especially "why questions," that require the application of higher-order thinking and reasoning skills to be answered. They are concerned with asking such questions as, "why did this happen. Yeah, I know it happened, but why did they do this" (Teacher 4). The questions that they ask amaze the teacher (Teacher 9) and reflect their engagement with critical and higher-order thinking (Teacher 12), so to speak, a deep approach to learning rather than a surface approach.

Respectful or Have a Good Demeanor

Another key feature of an excellent student is a respectful attitude toward others. An excellent student has developed a disposition to respect not only themselves but also their fellow peers, their teachers and the elder (Teacher 4, 5, and 11) and whether a student has a respect for others is easily detected by looking at the way they interact with their teacher and peers inside and outside the class (Teacher 5).

Have and Maintain Ethical Values

Teacher 4 and Teacher 7 touched on the need to observe ethical and moral values by emphasizing the importance of having and maintaining ethical values. While Teacher 7 just named it as "abiding by work ethic," Teacher 4 elaborated on this desirable aspect of an excellent student. According to Teacher 4, an excellent student has to be honest which means he or she does not does not cheat on the exams. He said,

> I would never have a high opinion of a student that I saw cheating, cheating or trying to take advantage of another's work is the one thing that upset us most as a teacher. I tell students that there are two types of students [that] I remember, the ones that really love history and the ones that I have caught cheating. If I see them ten years from now in the street, the first thing that I would think about is: You cheated on my test. That is one thing I will not forget, so cheating is one think that I cannot stand. I think they are doing

> themselves as disservice. Then, you know, they think pulling something out or getting away with something, but they are just, they are hurting themselves. And, I think a person's reputation is the most valuable thing. A person's good name is more important than anything, any riches, any honors to be known as an honest person. That is far more important than any grades or honors.

Know How to Communicate & Have Social and Interpersonal Skills

Teacher 7 and Teacher 11 are the only ones who identified communication and interpersonal skills as characteristics of an excellent student. For Teacher 7, an excellent student knows how to communicate with others and how to express and put across his or her thoughts to others. She said, "An excellent student often times is a good writer. They are able to express themselves." In a similar vain, Teacher 11 identify pointed out that an excellent student has social and interpersonal skills and know how to interact with their peers. That is, it is someone who gets along well with his classmates."

Before going on to the next section, I would like to comment on the teachers' tendency to describe characteristics of an excellent student through affective psychological constructs, i.e., dispositions toward learning. Given almost every teacher's attention to high grades and intellectual achievement, one wonders why teachers saw it necessary to make comments on whether intelligence and higher achievement are indicators of being an excellent student. What might have led these teachers to draw attention to this point? In order to answer this question, one needs to look at the broader contextual forces that shape and give direction to the process of schooling. That is, one needs to look at how the federal government, educational policy makers, superintendents, and educational departments at national, state, and district level set the criteria for defining excellence in teaching and learning. The criteria that are used by those institutions, agencies, and agents to measure excellence in education throughout the nation are based exclusively on students' performance on high-stake standardized tests. So, excellence in

schooling is measured by means of standardized test scores which can reveal only whether a given student was able to attain such lower educational goals as remembering or recognizing fragmented, de-contextualized bits of information rather than those higher educational goals aimed at enhancing students' higher order thinking skills and promoting disposition toward certain events, institutions, ideals, and values.

This practice of placing overemphasis on standardized achievement tests --measuring lower-order cognitive skills, failing to evaluate the attainment of other more important learning outcomes-- inevitably leads the public to value student performance on stated-mandated tests and assume that excellence means the demonstration of intellectual achievement through high grades. As a result, those students who are successful on fact-oriented standardized tests and have satisfactory grades are considered excellent students both by the states and the public. It is this pointless emphasis on high test scores and academic achievement that these teachers were implicitly questioning while talking about whether those variables should be considered as criteria for determining the kind of student who can be judged to be excellent. That is, motivational, attitudinal or dispositional dimensions of teaching and learning cease to be important in the eye of the state education departments and the public alike. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that teachers' views of excellent students are at odds with the image of an excellent student that is endorsed and reinforced by the current educational practice in formal schooling throughout the nation. However, as teachers' responses imply, they reject and resist this often unstated and deeply held assumption about the most prominent attribute of an excellent student. They placed more emphasis on affective and motivational factors to determine the characteristics of an excellent student. Thus, making an effort to learn, studying hard to understand the subject

matter, intrinsic motivation to learn, being open-minded, inquisitive, responsible, respectful, and so on, were more important for the teachers to identify an excellent student.

Teachers' Views of the Proper Relationship between the Teacher and Students

The kind of relationship that exists between the teacher and students influences different aspects of teaching and learning in one way or another, so the way teachers build relationship between themselves and their students has important consequences for the nature and quality of teaching and learning. Different kinds of relationship may exist between the teacher and students, depending on such factors as the teacher's personality and pedagogical orientation, characteristic features of students in a particular classroom, and contextual variables, e.g., institutional regulations, preferences, and policies. Recognizing the key role that relationship between the teacher and students plays in shaping the quality of student learning experiences, teachers involved in the study focused their attention on their roles and responsibilities in developing a desirable relationship with their students without considering the school settings and other contextual factors that have influence, beneficial or detrimental, on the kind of relationship they have with their students.

Several themes, most of which have to do with teachers' roles, e.g., how the teacher is supposed to treat students, rather than students' roles, emerged from teachers views of the proper relationship between the teacher and students. According to their responses, the relationship should be built first and foremost on mutual trust and respect. The teacher must care about students' intellectual, personal, social, and emotional developments and try to get to know students individually by means of one-on-one interaction. In turn, students need to recognize the teacher as an authority figure without crossing the line, without challenging his or her authority or without exploiting the teacher's caring attitude. The teacher also needs to construct a healthy

learning environment in which students can feel safe, appreciated and recognized. That environment needs to be challenging and conducive to learning as well. The explanations of each category of teacher responses along with illustrative quotations.

Trust and Respect

Teachers' responses revealed that the most important component of the proper relationship between the teacher and students is that of mutual trust and respect. These two intertwined affective elements serve as the foundation of a properly working relationship and thus they are strong determinants of whether the teacher and students will be able to work together in their involvement with teaching and learning. If they are effectively established between the teacher and students, the teacher's and students' effort to teach and learn respectively are facilitated. Pointing out that it takes time to build trust with students who can judge whether the teacher is trustable, Teacher 1 said, "Trust is extremely important. They have to understand when they come in. That is why first-year teaching is very difficult if kids do not know you by your reputation." So, students try to find out information about teachers and inform each other of their experience in taking course with them. They might tell each other about teachers' reputation by saying, "Oh, this is a good guy. Oh, you do not want this guy." Bringing his teaching experience into attention, Teacher 1 continued to explain why trust is important:

> At my point in my career, I have been doing this for sixteen years, I have a reputation around the school. Kids know who I am. And they hear from their friends who have had me, what it is to have my class. I believe that students have to trust that you have their best interest at heart.

Mutual respect, Teacher 11 thought, is the key to "a pleasing and pleasant relationship" between the teacher and students and also one of the most important prerequisites for effectively managing students' behaviors and avoiding classroom management problems. For this reason,

Teacher 11 launches on helping students develop a respectful attitude toward the teacher and their classmates at the very beginning of the school year. She said,

> This is my first lesson, I teach respect. That is the first step in school. Before if I get into any issue and textbooks, any rules, any other procedures for the classroom, I teach respect… Respect, respect, respect.... That is the respect for my students, and I do. And my students respect me. My students respect each other. Then, we do not have too many problems…When they talk, I listen. When it is my time to talk, I want them to listen. When their classmates, any classmate is talking, you need to listen.

Since Teacher 11 consciously strives to teach students how to act respectfully throughout the year, she does not have "too many problems in the classroom." As a matter of fact, that strategy "has worked" for her for "twenty-seven years" in her teaching career. Like Teacher 11, Teacher 5 who is African-American too, also emphasized the primacy of mutual respect in effectively managing classroom, students' behaviors, and ultimately teaching the subject matter. He said,

> I think it is one of mutual respect. That has to be there. There is nothing more important in classroom management…Having that mutual respect allows that to take place because in many cases when there is no teacher student respect among the classroom, that is when you begin to have problems, classroom management…. You respect me and I respect you. And if there is no respect, then we can't co-exist….You have to respect someone anyway and that is the only way learning is going to take place if you have controlled your classroom environment.

Teacher 5 expects students to respect him because, he thinks, he is the one with "knowledge," he cares about teaching, he loves teaching, and he loves them. That is, students should respect his "profession" and his "time," while "striving to obtain the information" in school. While talking about respect, Teacher 7 and Teacher 10 explicitly stressed that the teacher should model respectful behaviors for students to emulate. Emphasizing the relationship that is built on trust, Teacher 7 said, "I would have to say first mutual respect…. Just one of mutual respect. That is the most important thing. You know it needs to be modeled. You respect them and they respect you." Likewise, thinking that "a mutual respect should color the relationship between the teacher

and students," Teacher 10 stated, "I try to be respectful, a level of respect. I want them to respect me. And I think, in order to see that, I have to respect them… to show them that I respect them."

Even though teachers try hard to help students display respectful attitudes by modeling how to act respectfully, they may confront very disrespectful students' behaviors. Teacher 3 said, "They trust me and I trust them. I respect them and they respect me. That does not happen all the time. I have students who give teachers fits. When they come in my class, I have trouble with them." Still, because it is the teacher who is going to educate immature young people, Teacher 3 tries to "give them a level of respect" and he enjoys doing so.

Except for Teacher 4 and Teacher 12, other teachers also highlighted the key role mutual respect and trust play in building a working and pleasant relationship between the teacher and students. Their views are as follows:

> One of healthy respect. [*Long pause*] The teacher must respect the student, and the student must respect the teacher. That respect must be mutual. [**Teacher 2**]
>
> I would hope that there would be mutual respect. When I describe someone as novice, that is not a disrespectful term. You have to respect others because everybody is novice in some way. And you have to respect that. And there is also good quality in novice. There is an openness. So, you have that element. So, there is a mutual respect. You have to respect novices and you hope that they will respect you as an expert…. The common link for me is that idea of mutual respect and expert-novice kind of relationship. That is important. [**Teacher 6**]
>
> That is completely up to the teacher. Personally, the relationship I have found to be the most important. I am a younger teacher and the most important I think that I have to work. I think there is a trust that someone who is younger is looking. And I think there is an ease that they have around that they do not have with other teachers. But, relationship is extremely important. Once you establish it, they will trust you. [**Teacher 8**]

Care about Students

In addition to emphasizing the need to base the teacher-student relationship on mutual respect and trust through modeling, more than half of the teachers also stressed that the teacher care about students and treat them well not only as learners but also as persons. Teacher 1 is the one who saw this attitude toward students as a catalyst for students to dedicate themselves to learning

the subject matter and to get along well with the teacher. Emphasizing the positive interpersonal relations between the teacher and students, he said,

> They have to trust that you care about them. And that is really important…. If kids come in here and they think the experience of being in my room is going to be horrible, if it is going to be oppressive to them, if I am going to be mean, if I am going to be just not cordial, you know, if I am not going to treat them well, then I am not going to be able to teach them anything because they are going to put up a defensive mechanism the minute they walk in the room. But, if they walk in, and I have a smile on my face, and say hey [yells], good morning, come on in. We are going to have cool stuff today. And it is positive.

Teacher 1 also thought that if a student-teacher is to be a successful teacher and develop professionally, he or she should be fair and friendly in his or her treatment of students. When a given student does not feel good or has a problem, the teacher needs to recognize that psychological state of the student and try to help him or her get relaxed and feel better. He said, "When they had a bad day, I walked up and I said you need a minute? You need a minute? Would you like to just [go outside] for a second, you know, be able to be yourself and come in back." So, the teacher needs to avoid confronting students when they are in a bad mood which may negatively affect their interaction with the teacher. For this reason, Teacher 1 tries not "to be confrontational" unless he has to be, and treats students as he wants to be treated. He also instructs student teachers or substitutes to treat students well and make learning history a good experience.

Like Teacher 1, Teacher 2 also thought that to build a positive relationship with students, the teacher should be able to have insight into students' situations when they experience something bad either at home or in school. Stressing the ability to recognize students' emotional state, he stated,

> You have got to learn [*long pause*] at times we have to recognize that someone may not be having a good day, and so, as an effective teacher you need to understand that, you need to see that, you need, that is what your special teacher's hours are coming. Your

> ability to perceive what your students may be experiencing and you need, you need to let them know that is okay. Well, I have been in a bad day, next time we'll get together, let's move forward.

Teacher 7 also saw it crucial to care about students as individuals. To have a working relationship, the teacher should have a good intention and strive to help them without treating them harshly. She said, the teachers' attitude and behaviors should be so well-intentioned and helpful that students can understand that "you are trying to do something good. You are not there to punish them or to make them be miserable for an hour and a half every day. But, you want to help them." In addition, the teacher needs to behave in such a friendly way that students can feel that teacher is approachable to talk to. Other teachers also made similar comments about the importance of a caring attitude on the teacher's part. Stressing that "they need to see you be compassionate," Teacher 12 said the teacher needs to keep a friendly relationship with her students so that they will like her, as a result of which students' motivation to learn from her instruction will most probably increase. So, as teacher 12 said, "there needs to be the sense that they know they are cared about and their opinions do matter." Teacher 3 also lets students know that he enjoys having them in his class as does Teacher 5 who loves his students.

Personal Connection with Students at Individual Level

Some teachers thought that in addition to caring about students and treating them well, the teacher needs to establish a personal connection with students at an individual level. According to Teacher 5, a personal touch with students is necessary to have them involved with lessons. He said,

> One of the most important things for the teacher is to learn students' names as quickly as possible. I learn my students' name. I take pride in that. I think within the first week of the class, everything I do, they will do their assignment. They turn in and I handed back to them and that allows me to learn their names very quickly. And doing so, with speaking to them, making eye contact with them, looking directly in their eye -because

> students respect that when you are talking directly to them- make them feel like they are involved.

Teacher 9 also highlighted one-on-one relationship or what she called "touch-based" relationship with students. Thinking her role both as a "facilitator" and as a "validator," she articulated what touched-based relationship might look like in practice by saying "You are trying touch-based, I call it, touch everybody… I am trying to recognize their birth dates when they have that. But, they know, they should know that when they come in here, they will be validated and have some sense that they are a person, not just as a learner." So, what she wants to "venture a little bit with students" is to "validate them" but "never to diminish them." Even though Teacher 4 did not refer to a caring relationship, he also thought that the teacher should get to know a little bit about all students and their families to build a positive relationship with them. He said, "On the first week of class, I have them tell something about themselves so that at least I know where these kids are coming from, what kind of [*brief pause*],a little bit about their family life." On the other hand, he is precautious enough not to "get too emotionally involved with these kids because some of them come from really tragic situations."

Recognize the Teacher's Authority and Abide by Rules

Caring about students and making a personal connection with individual students does no mean that the teacher is going to interact with students as their friend. Teachers' views of the kind of relationship that they think should exist between the teacher and students suggest that the teacher needs to be careful enough not to get too much involved with students at a personal level. More than half of the teachers made a distinction between nurturance on the one hand and separateness or a proper distance between the teacher and students on the other. In other words, rather than focus on developing friendship and social ties, the teacher is supposed to keep his or her main role "as a teacher" in mind all the time when interacting with students. The common

pattern emerging from teachers' responses is that it is the teacher's dedication to fostering students' learning and the primacy of detached professionalism that should color the relationship between the teacher and students. Students are expected to recognize the teacher as an authority figure who is in charge in the classroom. Teacher 3 expressed this point by saying "You are the student and I am the teacher. My job is to teach you." Teacher 4 put across his view in a similar fashion by stating, "First of all, they need to know that I am the teacher, they are the students. I want them to think of me as their friend, but they need to realize that I am the teacher, I am in charge." Drawing attention to some students' tendency to establish a close friendship with the teacher and warning student teachers to beware of this tendency, Teacher 10 said,

> You have got to be careful, not to be their friend…. [Be] professional. I mean I am a teacher and they are students. I think there is a definite distinction between [the] above. I have told my student teacher, above, there is a fine line between [*brief pause*], I am not there to be their friend, I am telling them. I am not here to be a friend and I am the adult in a situation, and I can be [*brief pause*] not on their level…. My role is to be an adult. My role is to be a role model. My role is to be friendly, a guidance. I mean, in their learning, to guide them, to instruct them…. I think a lot of teachers want to be a friend for their students and they want to be a buddy and I do not think you can just do that

Teacher 6's perspective is very parallel to that of Teacher 10. As Teacher 6, He also stated that "I do not think teachers at the high school level should seek to be friends of their students… Many people in high schools want to be parents, want to be friends for their students." Even though these two teachers had such a sense of teachers who act as students' friend, teachers' responses generally suggest that their impression is groundless. As Teacher 2 contended, if he just goes "in there as their buddy, their pa" or "just sit around and talk to them, nothing is going to get done." So, for the same reason Teacher 1 thought, "You can't just be the kids' friend."

Both Teacher 5 and Teacher 9 are the ones who try to touch very student in the class though different tactics. Still, like other teachers, they also did not see it appropriate to be a friend of students. Both highlighted the importance of having rules in the classroom for students to follow.

Teacher 5 stated that the teacher has to take necessary precautions so that students will recognize him as a teacher and follow the rules he or she expects them to abide by to have an orderly classroom. Disagreeing with those people who think being a coach helps the teacher avoid having problems with students, he said,

> I do not have problems because you know, you pick up and choose your battle. I think if you set the tone on the day one and kids know, they know your reputation, they know I am the stickler for rules… Am I flexible? No.

Likewise Teacher 9 emphasized the need to have a structural relationship with students by saying, "They need to understand that the rules that are in place. You do structure to be successful. It is a structural relationship because there is only so far you can go with teens. They need to know what the line is in this venture."

Safe Environment Conducive to Learning

While explaining their views of the proper relationship with students, teachers also made reference to the classroom learning environment in which learning and teaching take place. In other words, they put the relationship into context by considering their roles in creating a safe and enjoyable environment in which students can feel secure enough to voice their opinions without the fear of being ridiculed or put down by the teacher or students. Respectful and caring dispositions are seen as the building blocks for constructing that kind of environment. Emphasizing that "respect will lead to a healthy learning environment in the classroom," Teacher 2 explained why it is important to have a safe classroom environment:

> You want to create an environment where your students will want to come to your class and know that they are going to be okay when they get there. It is going to be a safe environment for them to learn. They do not have to worry about anything else. You want to know that, you want them to know that you are glad to see them…. They may come from a home that no one is glad to see them. They may come from a home that is a place of danger. They need some place safe. When they are safe, they can let their guard down and they want to let your guard down, then you have a chance to grow academically.

So, Teacher 2 thought that students need a safe classroom environment to be able to the subject matter, developing intellectually. Teacher 8 also made a similar point. Seeing trust between the teacher and students as a foundation for a healthy learning environment, she said, the teacher needs to make the classroom "a safer environment." That is, students need to experience a classroom atmosphere where "everyone can feel safe… feel well emotionally and academically" so that they can "take the risk academically in classroom." Likewise, Teacher 7 also pointed out that safety is an important issue in building a relationship with students, and for students to learn, she thought, it is necessary that "they know that they are safe." She also expected the teacher to be approachable so that students they can go to him or her when they have a problem. Teacher 10 expressed the same view in slightly different way. Expecting students to respect her, she said, "I want them to be able to feel like they can talk to me, we can laugh, we can joke, we can play around, and we can carry on…. I do not want them to be scared of me. I do not want them to be devil, mean person." Teacher 9 also expected the teacher to construct an environment with a sense of humor as well. She said, "You know, just joking with them. And that joke is right back because that makes it a little bit more even a playground for them." Stressing that teachers act a role model for their students, staying open to students without being not afraid of making mistakes, Teacher 12 said, "I do not want my kids to be afraid of just saying something. How do you expect your students to admit it if you can't admit it?... They need to see you be human and make mistakes. A lot of teachers are afraid to admit when they are wrong."

Teacher 5 also emphasized the key role a safe learning environment plays in students' learning. He expected the teacher to stay away from making discouraging or negative comments

on students' responses. He explained why the teacher has to be careful not to put down students in the classroom:

> [If] responses are incorrect when you ask that particular question, do not say that is wrong, say listen, that's part of the answer. Let's look, let's look deeper right here because if you tell that to students especially to a lower level learner as wrong then you just shut that kid down. So, he is not going to be open and responsive any more when it comes to working, talking their discussion questions. And that's what you want, kids to be involved.

Teacher 2's comments add another dimension to the relationship between the teacher and students within a learning environment. According to Teacher 2, in addition to being a safe place for students to be in, learning environment and relationship between the teacher and students within it also must be productive, challenging, and motivating. He put across his thoughts on these characteristics of relationship as follows:

> You create an atmosphere that is going to be productive. You want your students to be productive. I think you need to model what being productive is all about…. You want a relationship that is kind of where your students are going to when they come to your room. There is a really good chance that they are going to be challenged. They are going to be challenged to learn [*long pause*] about something that they may not really be interested in, but you are going to convince them that something they need to have an understanding of.

Teacher 12 also pointed out that the teacher needs to have a challenging relationship with students at least from time to time.

Teachers stated other characteristics of the relationship between the teacher and students that have more to do with the teachers' roles and responsibilities than those of students. In addition to those roles explained above, the teacher should be generally dedicated to students' learning by providing them with relevant learning experiences, by giving them feedbacks on their work, by appreciating students' effort to learn and to make themselves better through encouraging words and praises, and by being concerned with their personal development in general (Teacher 1, 2, 3, 7, 10, 11).

Teachers' Views of the History Teacher's Roles in Student Learning

Teachers' views of the history teacher's roles in students' learning share similar elements with their views of the characteristic features of an effective history teacher. On the other hand, their images of an effective history teacher were more sophisticated, more nuanced, and more detailed than their perspectives on the roles the history teacher is supposed to play in students learning. While some teachers employed only their general pedagogical knowledge to articulate their thoughts as to the roles the history teacher is expected to play in students' learning without considering history itself as a school subject, others took the substantive features of history into account as well to elucidate their views. Teachers generally gave short answers without elaborating on them. Some of them just named the teacher's roles through such descriptors as an instructor, a facilitator, a guide, a coach, a disciplinarian, and so on.

Teacher 2 thought that the teacher's role was to teach for understanding. This implied that the teacher is supposed to be concerned with whether students engage in a deep or meaningful learning rather than a surface learning or memorization. So, what matters most in the teacher's roles is to ensure not the quantity but quality of student's learning, as he said "It is not how much you teach as how much you can teach that is understood." Like Teacher 2, Teacher 3 thought that the teacher's role is basically that of facilitating teaching and providing students with opportunities for learning. He said that "the teacher is supposed to facilitate instruction, put the material forth to make sure that students have an opportunity to learn. I think that is my role: To prepare lessons, put material together, give it to the students, and give them an opportunity." Even though this teacher's view of teaching and learning embodied learner-centered ideas, putting students in the center of teaching and learning process as active learners, his view of the teacher's roles put the teacher at the center of teaching and learning process. i.e., the teacher

plays more active role in students' learning. He was also implicitly critical of those students who do not pay attention to the opportunities the teacher provides for them. Referring to students' negative attitudes toward the teacher's instruction, he contended that "some of them do not learn it because they do not want to…. Provide the opportunity. Opportunities are everywhere. Are you going to take it? Or just ignore it?"

Like Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, Teacher 10 also explained her perspectives on the teacher's roles in student learning by employing generic pedagogical terminology. But her view also incorporated some concepts and drew attention to some roles on which social studies education and organization put emphasis, expecting teachers to put them into practice. According to Teacher 10, the history teacher's role was similar to other teachers' roles, so it did not matter whether the teacher is a math teacher, a science teacher or a band teacher, they need to act as "a role model, a guide, a facilitator" and a resource person, to whom students can come for information. They all also have an obligation to raise "a kind of creative responsible students, teaching them how to function in society, how to get along with people, how to make a difference, a positive difference." As is clear from her responses, this teacher's view of the history teacher's roles in student learning reflects the major goal of social studies education, citizenship or civic competence. The teacher is expected to help students understand their responsibilities, help them prepare for effectively functioning in society by developing their intellectual, social, and dispositional skills such as the ability to get along with people and disposition toward promoting social ends.

Teacher 12 also made use of concepts and descriptors coming from a learner-centered pedagogical orientation to explain her view. Like Teacher 10, she also briefly stated that the role of teacher in student learning is that of "facilitator, guide, instructor, supportive mentor and a

good listener. That is what we are supposed to play." Likewise, Teacher 7 thought the teacher may have different roles to play in student learning, be it tutor, coach, role model, parent, and disciplinarian, depending on the students' intellectual and emotional levels. But, irrespective of characteristics of a particular student groups, the teacher needs to care about students and built a positive relationship with them.

Half of the teachers looked at the roles the history teacher is expected to play in student learning by considering history. Because history illustrates a wide variety of ways that people took a particular course of action by making a choice from selecting among many choices available to them, Teacher 6 argued that the history teacher needs to use history as a means to help students learn how to make informed and reasoned choices in their lives and help them develop their decision making skills. He said,

> The role of the history teacher is to try and model how history, knowledge of history and appreciation of history can be used to inform your choices. And it is not just political choices, diplomatic choices. That is a big part of what history is used for. But economic, social choices, personal choices, all of those things…. Everybody confronts choices and history helps inform many of our choices about life. And so, the history teacher has to, you have to model that some way in the classroom.

Like Teacher 10, Teacher 6 also seemed to internalize and support a major goal of social studies education. He thought that the history teacher is also expected to help prepare students for their lives after school in society. To help students effectively function in society and contribute to its development, the history teacher needs to play a role in the process of socializing students into society. Teacher 5 also saw history as a means to help young people prepare for the future. So, the role of history teacher is to help students "reflect on the past, understand what was going on in the past," and eventually teach them how the past can be used to help them "prepare for what is yet to come." And the history teacher can best perform this role by acting as a facilitator.

Teacher 8 articulated her view of the teacher's roles while simultaneously thinking about history, social studies, and students. Being aware of the difficulty students have in seeing the relevancy of the past to their lives, she argued that the role of history teachers is to help connect history with students' lives. She said, "You want to see how it connects to not only to the subject but also the world around here." To accomplish this effectively, the history teacher needs to be aware of his or her own biases and should not let those personal biases negatively affect or shape students' perspectives. The history teacher needs to let students develop their own voice and perspectives on the past and present issues without imposing his or her own interpretation of history on students. Implicitly drawing attention to social studies teacher's obligation to recognize and try to realize the goals of social studies education, she put across her viewpoints on the history teacher's role in student learning as follows:

> I guess being diligent about [*long pause*] perspective and sharing. I think as an American, I have grown up in the North and, you know, [because of] my own biases, I may have different perspective than most of my students here. And I should be aware of that. But I also allow them to find their own perspective and their own biases. Other role would be to, I am thinking in terms of U.S. history and just not world history. Most importantly, I think civics, as you know, they are not the citizen of their state or country but of the world and understanding human interaction, you know, through money or through wars or, you know, psychology, just to understand humans better.

Teacher 9 put an emphasis on the need to help students develop their own perspectives as did Teacher 8. She stressed that the history teacher's role is to provide students with "open-ended opportunities, be it discussions, questions, projects and "let them take the perspective" Teacher 11's perspective on the history teacher's role was similar to the other two teachers'. She also expected the teacher not to teach history from a certain agenda or through a particular interpretation of the past. Rather, the history teacher's role is to teach history objectively, neutrally, and holistically without marginalizing the history of any particular group of people, provide students with multiple interpretations and different perspectives on the same historical

events and let them make up their own mind or develop their own perspectives. The history teacher is also expected to have students confront both positive and negative human experiences in the past, help them deal with historically sensitive issues by posing moral and ethical questions, and ultimately develop in students a questioning attitude toward their country's past without accepting any historical claims or explanations at face value. She elucidated her view of the history teacher's role in student learning as follows:

> I try to teach history realistically. You know, a lot of the topics in the United History over the past two, three hundred years haven not been always nice. You look at slavery. You know, I am not going to glorify them. You can't say, oh, all is just fine. You know, I think you can give them the fact. But, you also have to realize that what were the deriving forces as to why the Native-Americans were removed? What were the deriving forces that one group of people would enslave another group of people? Was it right? Was it wrong? When you look at manifest destiny, were there times we paid money for land owners? Were there times when we used trickery to get land? You know, were there times we actually paid for it? You know, if I can give students all those facts and say, yes we accomplished manifest destiny. Sometimes we did the right way. And there were times we did wrong way. And I think, that's the realistic. You have got the good. You have got the bad. This is actually what happened.

As is the case in her responses to earlier questions related to history, her racial and ethnic backgrounds seems to influence her perspectives on the history teacher's roles. She again paid attention to the experiences of those people who are historically marginalized and discriminated such as African-Americans and Native-Americans. As an African-American teacher, she expects the history teacher to play an important role in helping students develop a disposition toward being dedicated to social ends. To successfully put into practice these roles, she thought, the history teacher needs to "step back and allow them to learn something on their own, see what they think, see how they will solve the problem." So, the teacher needs to help students become self-regulated and independent learners who not only question the teacher but also question history.

Lastly, Teacher 4 and Teacher 9 stated another teacher role which is affective in nature. Both teachers stressed that the history teacher need to motive students to learn history and develop an interest in it. Teacher 9 briefly touched on this teacher role by saying, "Along with the motive, keeping them motivated about history." She thought that the history teacher can motivate students to learn history by taking on a facilitator role. Teacher 4 elaborated on his view of the teacher role as a motivator. He said,

> I try to awaken some interest in the students in learning more about history, or at least being introduced to the facts that they should know to be well educated… So, these kids may find a particular part of history that they really enjoy or they may go to a college and stay there and they may be a professor someday or something. I had many students over the years. [One of them] said Mr. Anderson [Pseudonym] I enjoyed your class so much that I want to be a history teacher. That is just, that is the greatest praise I can have [*brief pause*], divine aspire to be a history teacher.

Teacher 4 also drew attention to teachers' mandatory roles such as teaching state-mandated curriculum. He said that "we must teach them the state curriculum. So, we have to cover that. That is my job. I have signed an oath that I will cover the state curriculum. So, first of all, I have to do that."

Teachers' Views of Learning Environment that Fosters Students' Learning

What kind of learning environment best fosters students' engagement with history? Or what are the characteristic features of the kind of learning environment that facilitates students' learning of history? To answer this question, teachers looked at different dimensions of learning environment such as its physical and social aspects, though the emphasis was on its social characteristics. Teachers usually drew on their general pedagogical knowledge and the characteristics of students in secondary schools rather than subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge within the context of history classrooms to articulate their image of effective learning environment. Some of teachers' answers described the features of an ideal kind of learning

environment which is quite difficult to realize in the face of constraints that are in place in schools. According to teachers' responses, if a given learning environment is to facilitate students' learning, having positive effects on their engagement with history, it should have the following types of attributes. The learning environment should (a) have lots of visual stimulus to be physically appealing and attractive to secondary school students whose attention span is limited; (b) be conducive to re-enactment, i.e., it helps students be able to connect with the past by visualizing or imagining the past events, people and their lives in their mind, so it helps students see the relevancy of the past to their lives; (c) be highly interactive, engaging, involving, and interesting and demand student active involvement with lessons (d) be safe and respectful to encourage students' participation; (e) facilitate the interaction between the teacher and students through appropriate physical arrangement; (f) have clear rules and expectations that are understood and abided by students; (g) have enough resources for students to benefit from; (h) have small class size; and be intellectually challenging (see Figure 4.3).

Environment with Lots of Visual Stimulus

Learning environment needs to be visually stimulating in terms of its physical features to get and maintain students' interest and attention. Teachers especially pointed out how the classroom walls were supposed to be designed by the teacher. Classroom walls need to be filled with different sorts of materials and artifacts, some of which are expected to exhibit works done by students. Emphasizing that materials and artifacts displayed in the classroom should relate to history, Teacher 1 said,

> If you want to talk about classroom environment, it's, look around you. I do not believe in blank walls. I do not believe in football posters upon walls. In history classrooms, there should be history displays all over. This is why I do not want to be a college professor because college professors do not have their own classrooms. So, you walk into a very generic room, white walls that bore. That's it…. Students are not fascinated, and engaged with the material when they walk into a white room. They need stuff. They need displays.

They need pictures. They need flags. They need models of things…. They need, they need a classroom to be almost like a museum. That is why I have got all the stuff.

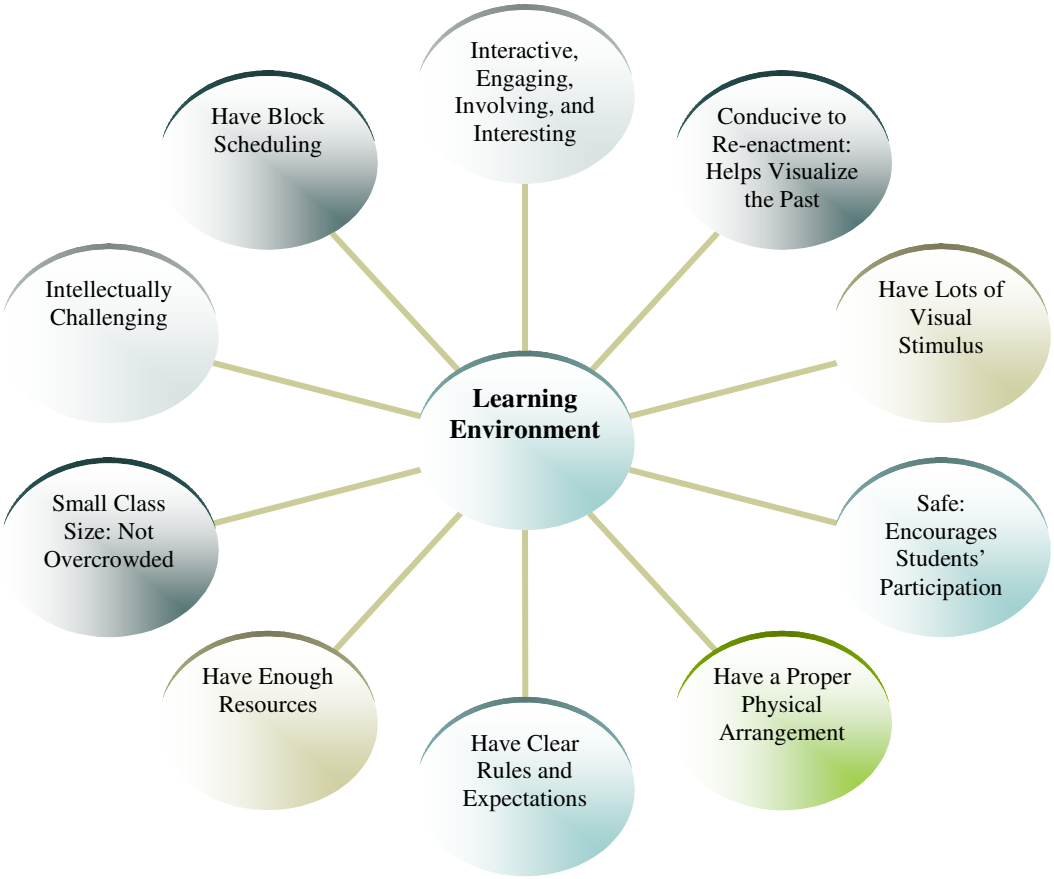

Figure 4.3 Teachers' views of an effective learning environment

Likewise, Teacher 11 thought that classroom walls should be "bold." They should be filled with some stuff because displaying both the teacher's and students' works on the classroom walls such as "pictures and plans" helps the teacher "keep students' attention in the class." Teacher 9 also stressed the importance of displaying "artifacts all around on the wall" in order to help it become physically inviting, by means of which students' attention can be caught. Without referring to the classroom walls, Teacher 7 also drew attention to the importance of having "lots of visual stimuli" to maintain students' attention span. Teacher 4's perspective on the physical

features of the classroom environment sharply contrasts with other teachers' perspectives in that he thought that "physical environment has to be plain" if it is going to be "conducive."

Environment that is Vicarious, Conducive to Reenactment, and Facilitate the Effort to Imagine the Past

Learning environment does not necessarily need to be confined to the four walls of the classroom because learning can take place almost everywhere in the world from home to the street. This is especially the case when it comes to teaching history. There are lots of historical monuments, artifacts, museums etc. that can be used to help students understand the past. While almost all teachers thought of a learning environment as a place in the school, usually the classroom, and focused their attention on the realities of classroom life without considering much the possibilities or ideals as to constructing a learning environment that can be conducive to history learning, Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 looked at the construct "learning environment" from a broader perspective without constraining their thoughts to the classroom environment. That is, rather than think of a traditional learning environment which is under constant constraints stemming from the structure of schools and other institutional contexts, these two teachers did not let those institutional constraints delimit their image of a learning environment that best fosters students' engagement with history. In addition to considering the possibilities, Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 also differed from the rest of the teachers in terms of employing both general and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge and their practical experiences in teaching history. While Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 took into account the nature of history and students' views of or attitudes toward it to elucidate their thoughts as to effective learning environment, other teachers usually drew on general pedagogical knowledge without relating it to history.

Teacher 1's and Teacher 6's responses implied that the past has gone and one of the best ways to have access to the past and to understand people and their lives is to try to empathically imagine the past events, people, and their thoughts and actions. Reenacting the past can make it comprehensible and understandable to lay persons and students alike. Being aware of this point and considering the nature of history and characteristics of secondary school students, Teacher 1 said,

> I believe in immersion. I want to tell a kid story, but if I take him somewhere and let him see it happening, immersing in it. Like, when I teach civil war history, I love to take kids, if I have the opportunity this year, to a reenactment in Atlanta in horse park. If I can take kids to watch a Civil War reenactment, and they watch the battle, not only do they see it, they hear it, they smell it, they can feel it…. Feel this, man. When the cannons go off, they see the smoke, they smell the gunpowder. I like immersion for that reason. It is so much more engaging than just standing and telling a story.

So, having students relive history help them understand the past better. But, the opportunity to have students engage in those kinds of "living history" activities and events is very limited in the practical world. That is, engaging with the past through reenactment or living history is not applicable in classroom. But, to counteract against this impediment, Teacher 1 said, the teacher can "make the classroom as much with immersion" as he or she can. For this reason, Teacher 1 uses a lot of film clips to give students a visual impression of what he is trying to get them to understand. Teacher 6's image of learning environment was very similar to that of Teacher 1. He also believes in the construction of a learning environment that enables students to have vicarious experiences to be able to relive history. He put across his perspective as follows:

> I think the best one, it has nothing to do with the classroom. I think the best kind of learning environment for history is living history. Students are brought into a situation where they attempt to experience first hand what was going on… Living history, and that is important. I think engaging in living history is the most effective environment.

Like Teacher 1, Teacher 6 also was aware of impracticality of this way of teaching history. He elaborated on the reasons why it was almost impossible to let students live history by

pointing out the obstacles related to the nature of secondary history curriculum. Because history curriculum is coverage-oriented rather than depth-oriented, and teachers are required to teach it through survey-type of courses, having students live history is not practical in secondary schools. He elucidated his thoughts as follows,

> I do not have the opportunity to do what I think to be the most effective or those other kinds of activities…. The problem is the most effective environment is not necessarily in terms of the best environment of what we do here because you are dealing with the curriculum, you have to grapple with the issue of things such as the survey course, survey course work. What is that all about? When you survey, you scan the top. Living history or participating in history, you do not scan…. But, living history is the best way… You say, stop here. We are going to cover this in depth and I have no doubt that is the best way to learn about the past…. And I think that is one of the struggles we are having in education particularly. I can't speak for other countries but in the United States, there is a tension between coverage and depth.

As is the case for Teacher 1, Teacher 6 also thought that even though living history is not applicable in classroom, the teacher can resort to some innovative teaching methods to help students live history. Role-playing, Teacher 6 said, is the best one among instructional strategies to really engage students with history. But, if one is employing role-playing to teach history, he or she has to have a good understanding of what knowledge and skills take to practice it effectively. Otherwise, both instructional time and students' time are wasted. Another strategy to help students connect with the past, Teacher 6 thought, is providing them with personal biographies and videos. Especially a diary-type approach can expose them to living history and compensate for the lack of opportunity to live history. Teacher 6's sophisticated subject-specific pedagogical knowledge became more apparent when he pointed out the fact that even though personal biographies and such activities as researching one's family's past can help students connect with the past people's lives and gain some historical research techniques, they may not connect them with world history and may not help them understand historical processes.

Teacher 1 also demonstrated the sophistication of his thoughts as to history as a school subject by elaborating on the reason why it was important to help students see history alive by saying,

> Get a kid to understand that history is not dead, history is alive. It is around you everywhere. You just have to learn how to see it, and how to experience it. If you can learn to do that, then you see history everywhere because it has happened everywhere, you know. You just have to be able to see it. And somebody has got to teach you to do that. Otherwise, if you think it is just in a book. That is what it is. But, if you have learned to live it, and see it everywhere, then it becomes such more than experience.

So, Teacher 1 and Teacher 6 explained their image of an effective learning environment by drawing on their general and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge. They jointly stressed that when constructing a learning environment, the teacher needs to keep in mind how to enable students see history alive and relevant to their lives.

Interactive, Engaging and Involving Learning Environment

Half of the teachers placed an emphasis on the interplay among the teacher, students, and curriculum within learning environment. They thought an effective learning environment involves an active interaction between the teacher and students and between students and learning tasks. That is, learning environment needs to be quite interactive and students need to be actively involved with lessons. It also needs to be engaging and interesting. According to teachers' responses there are different ways to make a learning environment interactive, involving, engaging, and interesting. To Teacher 8, employing project-based instructional strategies is one way to make learning environment engaging and interactive. Teacher 2 said that the teacher can make learning interactive by asking lots of good questions and by helping them learn the material through by enacting their problem solving skills. So, in that way, the teacher can make a learning environment interesting and engaging and eventually it can be a place where students want to be and say, "I do not want to be late, I do not want to miss something."

Similarly, Teacher 3 argued that a learning environment can be made interactive and engaging by forming small cooperative learning groups in which students are asked to deal with lots of activities that draw on different disciplinary contents, i.e., learning tasks interdisciplinary in nature. Teacher 5 also explicitly stressed the importance of constructing a learning environment that actively involves students with instructional tasks. He contented that "active involvement is the only way learning takes place," and made further comment on this aspect of learning environment by saying,

> I think like I said active learning environment is probably the most important to me. I just, I can't think any higher level classroom environment that has students involved. And those are the kinds of things that I strive to do, making it more engaging to students and keeping them engaged in our lessons.

Teacher 7 expressed her image of the learning environment as an active place in a slightly different way. She thought an effective environment is "the one that involves movement and noise [*laughs*] especially in their school. It helps." To her, a noisy learning environment meant that students are talking with one another about what is under discussion in the class. Lastly, Teacher 11 also expected a learning environment to be engaging and involving. She especially focused her attention on the importance of optimizing both instructional time and on-task behaviors in the class without wasting any single minute on anything that is irrelevant to the subject such as "bringing in things that happened over the weekend to the class" She put across her thoughts on this aspect of learning environment --by considering her obligation to help students grasp those topics that are going to be tested on state-mandated tests-- as follows:

> Instruction starts when the bell rings and goes to the end. That is the kind of environment that I want. So, the teacher is involved. The students are involved… When we get to the class, let's try to, say, focus on the subject area because if you do not, you think that there are ninety minutes, we have lots of time. But, to me, you know, you waste time that you are going to push into those things that you know are important like end of course test, Georgia High School Graduation Test or the College Board exam, and AP. So, we do not

> have a lot of time to waste. I mean we got to be learning, you know, say the opportunity to re-teach, make sure that the students are learning.

Safe Environment that Encourages Students' Participation

Another common theme emanating from teachers' images of an effective learning environment is that of a safe and respectful environment. Students need to feel comfortable enough to put across their viewpoints in the class without being concerned with possible negative reactions to their opinions. There should also be a positive interpersonal relations colored by respectful attitude between the teacher and students and among classmates. Taking into account the iterative causal relationship between respectful attitude, positive interpersonal relations, safe environment, and eventually students' learning, Teacher 11 explained her view of the learning environment as follows:

> I definitely like an environment where students feel safe in the classroom, not fear that [when] they say something, somebody is going to, you know, put them down, not an environment that they feel like, they feel bad, somebody is going to physically hurt them…. That is the kind of environment, an environment where students have no fear. I do not want them to have a fear for me, but a classroom where students are going to learn, the teacher gets along well with students who get along well with the teacher, who get along well with each other, [and] behavior problems are few. That is the kind of learning environment that I like. When a problem comes up, they are able to handle it and move on…. Those are things that I see when it comes to a safe environment. Safe environment, to me, leads to an environment where, an environment where learning is taking place.

Teacher 9 also saw it important to build a personal connection with students to make the learning environment safe. She thought that in a positive learning environment the teacher is expected to recognize students as individuals and to greet each individual student by saying "good morning by name" as they come in and to help students feel that "their opinions matter." Likewise, Teacher 5 also put a double emphasis on the importance of building a positive relationship with students as a means to help them feel safe to take part in classroom activities. Teacher 5 thought that there was a strong causal relationship between a safe environment and

active student involvement in class discussions. He argued that once a positive relationship is structured into the classroom learning environment, the opportunity to learn the subject matter is optimized on students' part. He elucidated his views as follows:

> In this classroom, it is constant communication, constant [*brief pause*], I guess building those relationships makes it so easy, by building that relationship; I built that relationship where the kids feel comfortable in the class… In the past I know in many cases some students, even students who come in the classroom excessively shy, over a period of time, they will eventually get, begin to blend in because they feel comfortable participating in the discussion…. If the kids do not feel comfortable within that classroom environment, there is no learning taking place. And if I did not make them feel comfortable, whether it is safety or respected, there is not learning, no learning is going to take place because their mind is elsewhere. I want their mind to focus on what we are discussing at hand. If they are focused on things that that are not surrounding the subject matter that we are discussing or working on, then it is not productive.

According to Teacher 12, the basic defining feature of an effective learning environment was its open characteristic. In an open learning environment, Teacher 12 argued, students will not "be afraid to just say something in the class." So, she did not "want them to be afraid to voice their opinion." She briefly elucidated why an open environment was needed to effectively engage students with history which is characterized by contrasting and multiple points of views:

> To teach history, you have to have an open environment because again it is about empathy and trying to see things from different perspectives and you know, that requires, you know, a very open environment, I think.

Environment in which People Respectfully Treat Each Other and Rules are in Place

Treating each other respectfully, making expectations clear for students to understand or having rules as to how to behave in the classroom when interacting with one another are seen as preconditions for feeling safe in the class. Teacher 2 said that an effective learning environment is the one in which the teacher and students are going to be respectful of each other. It is also the kind of a learning environment where the teacher plays an important role in helping students internalize how to participate in classroom activities such as discussions. He further described

how the teacher can integrate that kind of respect and order into the classroom environment as follows:

> Everyone should want to have something to say. It is important that they wait their turn, because what they say is important. You can't listen to three people at once and understand all three are saying, so let each, you know, let them understand you, just this person. Their hands are up first. We are going to come to hear you right next, and just thank you for waiting. I appreciate your patience. [*Long pause*] I think that helps a lot.

Teacher 11 also emphasized both the importance of building a learning environment with order and enforced rules and the need to take action when students begin to display improper behaviors. Considering that nobody has a right to prevent others from the opportunity to learn, she said,

> If something goes wrong, a student misbehaves, I have got to do something about it. Students know that I will not just be sitting there and tolerate that…. A student who keeps other students from learning, I have got to deal with that, do something about that.

Teacher 10's view of an effective learning environment was similar to those of Teacher 2 and Teacher 11. She expressed her perspective a little differently, opting for a more structured learning environment. Like the other two teachers, she also thought that the teacher needs to make expectations clear in the class and let students understand and follow the classroom rules and routines. She especially took the grade level of students and the nature of society into account when stressing the need to have a structured learning environment. She articulated her reasons why she wanted a learning environment built in that way as follows:

> I think they learn well in a more structured environment. I know they push down to have an open classroom, and have very few rules and everybody can just [*brief pause*]. I do not function in that situation and I do not think that is the realistic view of what society is like. So, I think they learn much better when instruction is structured, focused, when they know and understand what the routine is. And they know what is expected of them all the time when the things are just very structured in the classroom…. I think as the older you get, then I think the environment may be less structured, maybe a junior, a senior class in high school, I think, may be more relaxed, you know, free to talk, free to speak. That is kind of works well. But, in this grade level [8 graders], I think they learn better in a structured environment…. I taught to some junior, senior economics class. They were

> less structured. I think the maturity of students as well. I think if you get a very mature class, maturity of students may be able to handle less structure…. Maybe age, maybe grade that has something to do with it.

From Teacher 10's perspective, safety can be accomplished by integrating a structure into the classroom environment. She said that she had experience in building both structured and unstructured classroom environments, and to her, "the structured environment is where the kids feel safe." When students feel safe, she thought, they are going to learn. So, this teacher also saw a causal relationship between safe learning environment and student learning.

Physical Arrangement Facilitating People's Access to Each Other

In addition to emphasizing the rules that help manage the learning environment and prevent possible student misbehaviors, Teacher 2 and Teacher 11 also touched on the need to arrange the learning environment in a way that facilitates physical movement and interaction among people. In other words, the physical arrangement of a learning environment needs to be compatible with the way instruction is practiced. It should facilitate the teacher's access to students. While Teacher 11 indirectly referred to this feature of the learning environment by saying, "An environment where you see the teacher is not just at the desk. She is up, moving around," Teacher 2 explicitly stated that the learning environment should facilitate the interaction between the teacher and students. They need to be able to easily access each other. He said,

> I think it is good to have order…. I think sometime your physical arrangement can contribute. It needs to be one that will allow movement of your students and the teacher. You can't stand right there. I mean I stand over there [showing the front of the classroom], stand over there [showing the right side of the classroom], stand back there [showing the back of the classroom], I stand in the corner.

Small Classroom Environment

Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 argued that learning takes place better in a small or smaller learning environment than a big one. Teacher 3's preference for an interactive learning environment

might have led him to value a small class size in which there is more opportunity for the teacher and students to interact with each other at individual level. From Teacher 4's earlier comments, it might be deduced that Teacher 4 prefers a small learning environment because he wants to have a controlled and orderly classroom environment where the teacher is in charge as a boss. Recognizing the impossibility to have a small classroom in public education, Teacher 4 said, "I think having a small class size will help…. Ideally it will be a small group or maybe eight to ten students for the course…. I mean I taught small classes and large classes. Obviously, it is easier for the smaller class."

Environment with Lots of Resources

An effective learning environment is supposed to have lots of resources, not just textbooks, for teachers and students to resort to when they need. Pointing out that she teaches without textbooks, Teacher 9 said, "I think in the learning environment they have got to have resources in a supportive learning environment. And that does not mean the textbook you can teach, but I teach without a textbook." Drawing attention to technology tools, Teacher 4 also stressed that the learning environment should have maps, videos, and other equipments to help facilitate teaching and learning. Teacher 3 also emphasized the need to have satisfactory resources in the classroom.

Class Time Schedule

Even though teachers' thoughts usually focused on the psychological, social, physical, and spatial dimension of a learning environment, one teacher brought temporal or time dimension of learning environment to the fore. Teacher 5 argued that the way the classroom time is set has a consequences on the way teaching and learning occurs. He thought that block scheduling was better than the traditional class period in terms of its effects on student learning. Drawing on his

own personal experiences in teaching differently scheduled classroom environments, he contended,

> Block scheduling is totally different. I taught in a school system which we had six classes a day and it was very difficult to get kids actively involved because you are only working with a fifty five minute class and then by the time you get into class, check roll and get situated, you are working only forty minutes of instructional time. Within that classroom environment, to really have discussions, I was more lecturing. And disseminate information…. I think that is probably one of the most important features of any classroom environment.

Challenging Learning Environment

Lastly, two teachers, Teacher 7 and Teacher 8 stated that the learning environment needs to be challenging if students are going to respect the subject and learn from it. While Teacher 7 just named this feature of a learning environment by saying "one that is challenging," Teacher 8 a little bit explained why the learning environment should be challenging. She said, "I think it has to be challenging. If you have down history, down at such a low level, I do not think they respect it as much [*brief pause*] actually challenged.

Instructional Strategies Used by Teachers

Analysis of teachers' responses clearly indicates that they employ almost all teaching methods to teach the subject without sticking to a particular instructional strategy. Their methods of teaching range from lecture, recitation, worksheets through graphic organizers, games, jurisprudential teaching, to research projects, discussion, role-playing, theme-based instruction and so on. In other words, they vary the methods they use in order to help students effectively engage with learning history. The most important reasons why they think they need to use a variety of teaching methods stem from their recognition of the differences in student learning styles and ability levels and thus their intention to accommodate those differences. Teacher 10 gave the most eloquent explanations as to why she needs to keep changing her teaching methods:

> They learn in different ways**.** Everybody learns so differently, so I don't know there is one that is so effective because what is very effective for this student is not going to be effective for another student. In one class, if I have seventeen kids in the classroom, all learn differently. Some learn by listening. I have got some students who don't like writing a thing down. I have got some students who can't listen. They are just too destructive. So, they are going to learn by answering questions, and going over questions and discussing them. So, it is hard for me to say which one is most effective because all are so different, which is why I try to do such a variety in my classroom. I try to touch on different things.

Emphasizing the importance of reaching every student, Teacher 1 said, "There are just tons of stuff that we use because there are so many different learning styles. There are so many, we have such a myriad of kids that come in here." So, to accommodate different learning styles, he stressed the need to vary "teaching methods to get them involved." Teacher 5's and Teacher 7's reasons for employing various teaching methods focused more on the ability levels of students. Teacher 5 said,

> I have never only one, different teaching strategies. I just do what is best for my students and there is no one style for all my classes. It has various styles. Here our class size usually ranges from about twenty eight to thirty two students. So, it is very important to understand that what level of learners you are dealing with…. I have various lessons and I have different strategies for giving that lesson across our students…. So, it goes back again to teacher, being able to adapt their lessons to fit those of learners.

Likewise, Teacher 7 stated that teaching methods need to be changed from one class to another, from one group of students to another, depending on the make-up of the class. She said, "In certain classes, I just move away from open-discussion because they get frustrated, so it all depends on the class. I pretty much mix it [teaching methods] up a lot for many students, just to try to reach different learning levels." The reason why Teacher 12 thinks the teacher need to vary her instructional strategies has more to do with the psychological and developmental characteristics of students at secondary school level. Drawing attention to students' views of history, she said that if the teacher uses only one teaching method, students are inclined to think "history is boring, but it is not." That is why she really tries to mix it up for students." Teacher 2

also made similar comments on the need to match teaching methods with students' learning styles. He said, "I heard that in a class yesterday and I think that's pretty accurate. I think today's learner [*long pause*] is capable of [*brief pause*], has a different learning style than I might have had." Other teachers also implicitly pointed out the need to mix teaching methods up in order to accommodate students' learning styles and ability levels. What follows next is the specific explanations of the instructional strategies that teachers use in their classrooms.

Lecture

Of all teaching methods, lecture was the one that all teachers reported using to teach history. Lecture also seems to be the most frequently employed teaching method. Even though lecture was employed by all teachers, the reasons for using lecture changes from one teacher to another. While some teachers use lecture because they like lecturing, others use it because they are forced to use it even though they do not like, even hate, lecturing. Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 4, and Teacher 10 like lecturing and thus practice it a lot. They provided explanations as to why they opt for lecturing. The reasons for their propensity to employ lecture basically have to do with the teacher, students, the subject matter, and the textbook. Teacher 1 said, "I think the story-telling is important. I still do that to a great degree. I enjoy telling stories." Refering to the limited knowledge base students have in history, he further stated,

> They don't come with basic knowledge. They don't know basic events. They have to be, they have to be taught. I use lots of aids, whether it be written, or whether it be a film, or whether it be an activity that they do, they still have to be given the basic information. That is what we do.

Likewise, Teacher 4 also drew attention to differences in the levels of knowledge between the teacher and students. Because students' knowledge of history are restricted in comparison to that of the teacher, Teacher 4 argued that lecture is the best teaching method to impart the teacher's vast amount of knowledge to students. He also thought that secondary school students lack skills

in discussion. “They do not even know what they are discussing” and saying “what point is that, sir?” Therefore, it is necessary to lecture students in order to save time and provide students with knowledge. Naming lecture as his most frequently employed instructional strategy, he further argued,

> I think lecture plays a very important part [in students’ learning]. After all, I am the one with knowledge. I am the one that has studied history for years…. I think my job is to impart knowledge. So, yes, lecture is very important to me. And I do a lot of that. I give them a lot of knowledge in the lecture.

The other reason why Teacher 4 enjoys giving lecture is because he thought it helps prepare students for college. Since students are going to college and most of their classes will be in the lecture format there, “they might as well get used to listening and taking notes now in high school, so that they will be prepared for this when they reach college.”

Lecture is Teacher 10’s favorite teaching method too. Since she feels “more comfortable with standing up and talking about things,” she enjoys teaching history via lectures. She said that she especially goes for lecture if she is comfortable with a topic, some subject areas, and some theories of history that she knows more about and that she has done more research on. She provided further rationale for her predilection to use lecture: “I think my enthusiasm caused out, I think my lecturing. I think I can add a lot more information. I think we can cover a lot more. I can also help them listening, and finding, and get help them get going.” Teacher 2 also reported that he makes use of lectures a lot in his classroom. His predisposition to employ lecture grows out of his early schooling experience and his concern with students’ understanding of history. Drawing attention to the effect of modeling on his enjoyment of lecture, he said, “I look at who I thought was a good teacher. When I was a student, I sat at this desk and I looked at in front of the room. What did I think was a good teacher? That is what I try to do. I teach the way I was

taught." His other reason for preferring lecture is that "the textbook is not good and sometime students do not read well and so, they need explanations."

The four teachers cited so far not only lecture a lot but also enjoy employing it. The rest of the teachers do lecture but as one of their least favorite teaching methods. Teacher 6's view of the lecture is a little different from the two distinct categories of attitudes toward lecture, i.e., both using lecture a lot and enjoying it vs. using lecture without enjoyment. Teacher 6 does like lecturing to students. Even though lecture is not among Teacher 6's least favorite teaching methods, he practices it a lot. He prefers to call his lecture as a "teacher talk" or as a "dialogue with students." He elucidated in detail his conception of teacher talk as follows:

> When I say teacher talk, I view teacher talk for a lot of varieties, a spectrum. Teacher talk can be a lecture, can be very formal lecture, can be a teacher asking a question, can be a teacher responding to a question. Most of my classroom is built around conversation of the students. If someone was looking at it, they would say it was a teacher-centered classroom. I don't think it is worth arguing about the nuances of what makes a classroom teacher-centered versus student-centered…. If somebody is just tabulating what happens in the class, they would say I spend a lot of time talking to students or talking with students when I am teaching history…. I draw on stories. You could say story telling was a big component of my classroom.

As a matter of fact, the way he employs lecture is not very different from the way other teachers who enjoy lecturing to students practice lecture as will be seen in the following paragraph. He refrains from remarking the construct lecture most probably because of the negative connotation of lecture as a traditional teaching method which has been devalued in recent years with the arrival of constructivist orientation to teaching. The reason he provides for his use of lecture, or what he calls a dialogue with students, has to do with his intention to help students gain substantial knowledge base in history. He indirectly explained his reasons for using lecture by arguing the role of the teacher in students' learning:

> Why have a teacher in the classroom? I think it is tied to expert knowledge. There are a lot of educators who would dispute that. Why have a teacher in the classroom unless

> there is expert knowledge there. If there is not expert knowledge, why haven't there. Get the students a book. Hire people who don't have a college degree, to tell them to sit there and make sure students read the book and answer the question. Why do we do it the way we do unless there is something there that can't be replicated?

Therefore, Teacher 6 thought that the teacher has to have expertise or adequate preparation in his or her subject area and lecture can help him or her to effectively impart knowledge to students. Still, for all his emphasis on providing students with teachers of expert level of knowledge, Teacher 6 does not like lecturing. This is because "it is difficult to discern their level of engagement. They can appear to be engaged. They can appear to be disengaged."

Other teachers also stated that they lecture but dislike using it. They said they employ lecture because of their obligation to teach the coverage-oriented curriculum and their concern with helping students prepare for standardized tests by providing them lots of information via lecture. Referring to students in his advanced placement classes, Teacher 3 said,

> They may take a test. They may want to go to college. So guess what? I have eighteen weeks and to make sure they know everything they need to know to be successful on the test. And if I don't give them something that is going to be asked on that test. If I don't introduce them, they will not be able to answer questions. And they won't be successful on the AP test. So, the goals, as far as Madison Central [Pseudonym for the school district] is concerned and especially students are concerned, have not been met. So, we can talk about relevant issues like Hurricane and discuss stuff like that. But, if we just don't move on with our lecture, they are going to miss some questions that are going to be on the test…. if they don't pass it, they don't graduate. That is a challenge in high school teaching.

Teacher 5 and Teacher 9 also have a dislike for lecture. Both teachers contended that lecture as a teaching method does not allow the interaction between teacher and students and it prevents students from actively engaging with lessons being taught. Teacher 5 said,

"I employ all of them [teaching methods] at some point in time, but I have to say lecturing is my least favorite mainly because of the fact that you are dealing with the students…. because a lot of time students are not actively involved." He also stated that

In addition to keeping students actively involved in lessons, maintaining the students' attention is one of his most important considerations and lecture falls short of realizing these goals effectively.

Likewise, Teacher 9 dislikes lecturing and sees it as her least favorite teaching method. Like Teacher 6, She also pointed out that lecture is not capable of letting students actively interact with each other and with the instructional tasks. She said, "I don't use lecture much because that's always teacher directed. That is not saying as bad, but if I want them to be interacting with the material, then they have got to have the chance to talk. I want them to be interacting with what they do." She also argued that lecture as a boring teaching method excites neither her nor her students, causes them to lose their enthusiasm, and does not allow students to make connection with their previous learning. That is, it fails to be a "cognitive hook" to make history lessons interesting and engaging. Still, because of the need to cover curriculum in a limited time period, she has to use lecture. She said, "I hilariously go into teacher-centered instruction because I am restricted by time." Teacher 12 also finds lecture boring. "Whenever I am lecturing, giving notes, I am bored and they are bored." But, because of the time constraint and coverage-oriented curriculum, like other teachers, she resorts to lecture to fulfill her responsibility to teach the topics in the history curriculum. She said, "there are days, because of the amount of information I have to teach in a semester, there are probably one or two days a unit that I am going to have to lecture for thirty minutes or so and it is boring." She also sees lecture as an ineffective teaching method because when she lectures, "students are just copying the notes of the board" and not really listening to her, as she tries to explain it.

Teachers also made comments as to how they employs lecture in their classrooms, drawing attention to the differences between lectures given at university and secondary school, i.e., non-

stop lecture vs. broken up lecture. The most prominent pattern in their use of lecture is the use of lecture along with other activities or teaching methods especially with questions. Drawing attention to the importance of maintaining students' attention during lessons, Teacher 4 said that because non-stop lecture fails to sustain students' attention, he breaks up lecture by employing other activities or strategies. Pointing out the block schedule during which upholding students' attention is difficult, he stated,

> You can't just stand up and lecture for ninety minutes, so I try to stop every fifteen or twenty minutes or so and do some other activity, just a brief activity, maybe a summarizing activity to have the students share with each other what they have learned, write on a piece of paper, then, the main points that they have learned and that segment of the lecture, just to have them do something different. Maybe, we will watch a sort of video or something or have them write a brief paragraph or essay or something, just to vary the routine…. I stop and ask questions. I make sure that they are comprehending as we do. And if I ask them questions, I ask, I throw things out.

Teacher 4 also inserts close-ended and open-ended questions into his lectures to help students speculate and think about the topics being taught and give them a chance to tell their thoughts. Describing his lectures as a kind of story- telling, he said, "I may use lectures, but I am going to ask a lot of questions. Why do you think they are doing this? Who is doing this? Why are they happening? What could have made this outcome different? So, you ask students, you ask questions." So, he employs lectures like story-telling in order to develop a story about a historical event and people involved in it and help students understand "the chronological order of what is happing and in what order are these things happening." Like Teacher 2, Teacher 3 also makes use of questions when lecturing in order to get students to think about what is taught. Describing his lectures as "an interactive lecture," he stated, "When I am lecturing, whatever the lecture is about, I like to ask questions. I mean I am not going to stand up there lecturing. In each area, every section of lecture, questions are thrown out. They ask me questions. I throw out questions." Likewise, Teacher 10 employs lecture by mixing it up with other activities. She said,

> Sometimes, I do half of the class period and let them have the rest of the class period and work on the projects that we will be working on. I try not to lecture a whole class period because they loose their focus and interest very quickly…. I never just do that typical college lecture. You know, lecturing, when I am talking, they write. That does not work with these kids. I can't do that. And I have a hard time keeping that. So, I try to change everything that I have.

Teacher 6 follows a similar procedure when lecturing to students. He also injects questions into his lectures to keep students' attention and interest alive during lessons. He described the way he uses lecture as follows:

> The closest thing I do to a lecture is I put a topic and I may ask students about the topic. And then I may follow up what the students say. He says what about this? Or I may give a series of questions. What I want to do is to talk about this. And one that is done, I go over the questions with them and I throw in information related to questions. But, they are doing some talking. I am doing some talking. That is why a lot of people call it lecture. But, it is not really lecture.

Likewise, Teacher 10 and Teacher 12 highlighted the need to break lecture up to avoid having students fall asleep or let their mind think something else not related to topics. Drawing attention to the differences in types of student population at two distinct settings, college and school, Teacher 12 said, "You can't do it every day. And when you do lecture, you had better get half an hour at the very most." Otherwise, the teacher will lose students, half of whom will be probably sleeping and the other half will be day-dreaming, she argued. Teacher 11 also stressed the need to break up lecture by asking students questions from time to time or reviewing what is taught.

Discussion

Discussion follows lecture in terms of its frequency of use by teachers in classroom. More than half of the teachers cited discussion among their teaching methods and as opposed to their views of lecture, almost all of tem had a positive attitude towards using discussion in their classes. So, there is a consensus on the educational value of discussion in helping students attain the goals of subject. Like a double-edged sword, discussion benefits both the teacher and

students. Teachers like having students discuss topics because they think it helps students get involved with what is taught, understand the textbook topics better, develop their higher-order thinking and social skills, and function in society better. It also helps the teacher (a) keep track of current issues and development in the world and thus constantly renew their knowledge base, (b) keep themselves excited about teaching the subject, (c) get to know their students better, (d) see how students think of issues and topics, and then (e) relate the topics to their lives. Teacher 3 and Teacher 5, both of whom are African-American, provided the most eloquent explanations as to how and why they use discussion in their classrooms.

Discussion is Teacher 3's favorite teaching method. He likes employing discussion on a variety of topics in the class without trying to influence or shape students' minds. Emphasizing that he enjoys interacting with students, he said,

> My favorite teaching method would be facilitating, starting a discussion. I like to start conversations and let them stretch their opinions. When they get comfortable, they are going to tell you how they feel and that gives me chance to, you know, show them, not influence them, but just show them why I agree or disagree. I just ask some questions to make them think about the topic we have. I like facilitating and talking to get their opinions and I don't push my own. I just ask some questions.

He is also interested in seeing what students think of the topics being taught by asking such questions as "What do you think about it? What is your opinion of it? What is the point behind that? How would you go about doing if you were in charge of it?" By means of discussion, he not only gets to know his students and where they come from better but also expands his knowledge base through the information students give when involved in discussion. Discussion also helps him teach more effectively because he can make subject matter relevant to students' lives and ultimately pave the way for students to better function in society. Because he has more experiences than students, discussion also helps bring all them up.

Teacher 5 also identified discussion as his most commonly used teaching method, expressing his enjoyment of it his classroom. Calling the kind of discussion he employs "active discussion" or "interactive learning," he explained how he uses discussion:

> We have an outline of what we want to talk about. We outline our chapters. And within that outline, we leave certain areas that may be blank. They had to go back and do reading, read the textbook if it fills in, look different chapters in the book which requires the students to pull out the key elements of the information and then when we start our discussion, we go in depth within this outline. Therefore, that leads us into our discussion. Then within that discussion, that's when we can really go in depth and spend more time actually finding ways to relate the information to the students.

He further stated that by helping relate subject matter to students' lives, discussion helps students get involved with lessons. Discussion also is an effective teaching tool to facilitate lower-level students' understanding of textbooks. This is especially the case if students' reading comprehension level is below their grade levels. He said, "I have students who can't read, they can't comprehend what is in the book. They are reading letters, but they are not comprehending the concepts in the book." So, by having students actively discuss the topics or issues found in the textbook, he can pull out key elements out of the textbook and then help students gain a better understanding of crucial information. Implicitly touching on Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, Teacher 5 stressed that discussion helps him accommodate different learning styles. It facilitates the learning of those oral students who learn best by talking or orally disseminating information rather than practically applying information. Teacher 5 also explained how discussion helps him keep his teaching motivation alive and develop his knowledge base continually:

> I think it energizes me. I think that by doing so, it requires me to keep track of world events and world issues quite constantly. And that requires me to do a lot of reading, and watching the news, trying to keep up with current events because the more knowledgeable I am on an current issue and issue that has place every day, the more likely it is that at some point when we come those issues in the textbook, I can find a way to relate issues and relating issues is very important to me because it keeps me actively

> involved. It keeps me actively engaged in the process…. Having expertise in one's area is very important. But, there are always areas that you are not as knowledgeable on. That requires me to continually pursue more and more knowledge.

Class discussion is also the teaching method that Teacher 12 practices most in her classroom. Like Teacher 3 and Teacher 5, she also pointed out the importance of discussion in relating subject matter to students' lives. Expressing her enthusiasm for discussion, she gave a specific example to illustrate how she uses it and it helps students learn topics better:

> Before I teach manifest destiny, we talk about destiny. What is destiny? Do you have a destiny? Can you manifest your destiny? Can you make your destiny happen? So, when we talk about manifest destiny, the idea of making America into the size that it is. They understand what they mean. You know, but if I just go straight into it, they are not going to think it matters to them at all. But, they think destiny is cool, so I start most of my new lessons and materials that are starting the class discussion, to try to relate to their own lives.

Teacher 9 favors discussion as her most employed instructional strategy as well. Like other teachers, she also emphasized the importance of providing students with the opportunity to interact with each other through discussion. She said, students need to have "the chance to discuss and the chance to ask questions through discussion where they can ask questions, where we together try answering the question. They don't just look to me." Teacher 6 also said that he engages students in small group discussion, sometimes just standing and listening to their discussion without being involved, sometimes stepping in the discussion. Likewise, Teacher 11 also she enjoys having a discussion every day in her classroom. She said that a number of opportunities for discussion arise in the class whenever a student asks a question. She gave a specific example about the way she conducts discussion from her recent class discussion.

> We were talking about the westward movement, and new technology. We were looking at the time period eighteen thirty, eighteen fifty. The question was what, what would have been some of the reasons that you would have left a northern city and move to the west? So, that started the discussion, as to well maybe land. Maybe I want to get rich. Maybe the cities were, you know, becoming overcrowded. They can answer that because they

> have already been assigned reading a book. And some people came back with answers on their own because they have read.

Teacher 10 also conducts discussion but her attitude toward it is a little different than the rest of the teachers. It is not discussion itself but the maturity level of her students at eighth grade level that influences her view of employing discussion in the class. She contended that it is not the most practical teaching method to employ in an eighth grade classroom because "They don't [know how to discuss], they need to be taught how to discuss, how to involve in discussion. They don't respond very well to a class discussion a lot of times. They don't want to discuss." She explained how discussion is initiated in her classroom: "I am sometimes more comfortable letting them go over a series of questions. They answer, we go over. I sometimes combine them and let them get three to four answers to a set of questions. And then we will generate that to a class discussion."

It should be noted that some of these teachers may confuse discussion with recitation. As a matter of fact, there is a clue in Teacher 11's statements shows that she calls some of her recitations discussion. In reference to discussion, she said, "somebody asks a question and sometimes we stop whatever we do just for five or ten minutes or two or three minutes, whatever is used, answer a question that students may have, so there are a lot opportunities for discussion." As is clear from this quotation, what she describes is recitation rather than discussion. One of the most important defining characteristics of discussion is the amount of time it takes and the number of questions asked. The amount of time devoted to a real discussion cannot be as short as five or ten minutes. It takes at least half an hour to conduct a discussion. Teacher's 11 comments also indicate that she or her students pose and answer a lot of questions during discussion. But, actual discussion involves only one or a couple of questions to be deeply dealt with by the teacher and students. Discussion requires students and teachers to talk back-and-forth at a high

cognitive and affective level, both with one another and the subject matter being discussed (Larson, 1997). On the other hand, recitation is recurring sequences of teacher question plus student answers, where students recite what they already know through the questioning (Dillon, 1984, p. 50). According to the research studies on discussion and recitation, a lot of teachers call their recitation activities discussions (Dillon, 1984; Milner & Litcher, 1996; Mitchell, 1994). So, this may be the case for other teachers involved in the study too in addition to Teacher 11's case.

Question and Answer & Recitation

As already seen in teachers' answers with respect to lecture, teachers usually employ the question-answer technique when they are lecturing to students in order to keep their attention alive. That is, lecture and recitation are used together simultaneously. While some questions are asked to check for students' understanding of basic factual information, others are posed to get students to think about topics and issues through why questions that usually require students to employ higher-order thinking skills. Teacher 3 uses questions for both purposes. Expressing his concern with students' understanding of subject matter, he said,

> They may be able to read and they may not be able to understand ideas. So, you ask questions, you give material, you give facts, you ask questions. Why do you think they did this? You try to get students to understand facts but at the same time but you want them to be able to think about why something happened. You have five questions, the five Ws of history, okay, who, what, when, where, and why and you try to touch those and you try to make them, you try to help your students understand that there is a continuum here. That is, something that happened here is related to something that happens here.

Teacher 2 also suggested that the teacher be honest to students when he or she does not know the answer to the questions asked by students. He said that according to his experiences, students appreciate honesty on the teacher's part. For this reason, he confidently stated, "If they ask a question that I don't know the answer, I am going to tell them, I don't know the answer to that

question." Teacher 3 also asks what he calls facilitative questions by which he means making students think about what they learn.

Teacher 7 poses questions in oral and written form to help students "make their own meaning or their own understanding of the basic topics and concepts." Pointing out that students enjoy answering questions, she explained how she poses questions of increasing difficulty as follows:

> if you start up with questions that are pretty basic, very simple, you know, you get them hooked, and you start asking detailed questions and as, you know, kind of build up to the real tough one, you know, so they feel confident, they can answer and that they are doing well.

Other teachers also cited question and answer among their instructional strategies but they did not elaborate on their answer or did so when explaining their use of lectures.

Group Work & Cooperative Learning

Almost all teachers stated that they have students do group work. While most of them just named the strategy or expressed their attitude toward it Like Teacher 12, other teachers such as Teacher 9, Teacher 10, and Teacher 11 elaborated on their answer. Cooperative learning is the second most liked instructional strategy of Teacher 9 after discussion. She seems to be well informed about the theoretical or conceptual foundation of cooperative learning as evidenced by her emphasis on the most crucial two components of the cooperative learning, individual accountability and togetherness or what Johnson calls swimming and sinking together. Pointing out the discrepancy between theory and practice, she said, "Cooperative learning is not always the way it played out by the manual," and then explained her use of cooperative learning as follows:

> I like cooperative learning, group work, kids working together. To me, I am not sharing some information and then tell them to break it with their partner and discuss it and come up with the summary statement or question. So, I do like, I do [emphasis] like group work to the point that everybody still has an individual accountability. There has to be individual accountability. And there has to be togetherness.

She made further comments on cooperative learning by drawing attention to its positive effects on student learning and her teaching or professional development as well. She said, "[practicing cooperative learning] keeps me passionate, keeps me interested. I keep learning from them. They keep learning from one another. Teacher 11 also practices group work in her classroom. The most important reason she likes having student engage in group work has to do with her belief in that strategy's capability to help make topics somewhat relevant to students' lives or help them identify with what they study. She again gave an example to illustrate how she uses it in the class:

> We were just doing Texas revolution and I took that particular unit and I gave one group, why Americans were invited to move in Texas? So, one group worked on that. And then I gave another group, tell me how did the population of Texas change, say from eighteen twenty to eighteen thirty? So one groups looked at that. And another group looked at why did the people in Texas rebel against the Mexico government? One group did that research. So, there is a lot going on. Everybody has a set of tasks, so they have to look at. One thing I would be giving, if you have twenty minutes, so use those resources books, you see o the shelves. Then they came back and then they taught their subject to the rest of the class or to the other groups.

As is clear from the above quotation, she conducts a teacher-directed cooperative learning. Instead of students, she decides on what topics to do research, so her use of group work is quite different from the way Teacher 9 uses it, which is less structured and more open-ended.

Teacher 10 also elucidated her view of cooperative learning. She again differs from other teachers in terms of her attitude toward it. While other teachers like practicing cooperative learning, maintaining a positive toward it, she dislikes it. As a matter of fact, she indicates cooperative learning or group work as her least liked teaching method. The reason why she does not like it stems from one of the common problems associated with cooperative learning groups. It is social loafing and frequent off task behaviors that seem to lead Teacher 10 to develop a

negative attitude toward group work. Remembering her early experiences with group work as a student, she explained her thoughts about it as follows:

> I don't think a lot it accomplishes. Maybe, it is cheating that I hated when I was growing up because what happens once you put them in the group and even though you may give everyone role and things to do in your group, one person or two people will do all the work. When you leave a group, as soon as you walk to the next group, they are off task, talking something else. And then you come back, you can get them back on task, as soon as you walk over here, that is off task or doing something else. And I think it is hard for me to manage…. That is my least favorite, I think.

As her answers to previous questions, she again drew attention to her personality and said that her dislike for group work may also grow out of the way she is, i.e., as "more a controlling person," she likes to have control over her classroom. But, because almost all teachers want to have control over their classroom, her despise for cooperative learning most probably stems from the weak sides of cooperative learning.

Role Playing & Simulation

Role playing or simulation is one of the most commonly used and liked instructional methods. All teachers expressed enthusiasm for and positive attitude toward role-playing. The most important reason why they like having students engage in role-playing is because it enables the teacher to help students become motivated, engaged, and involved. Teachers usually employ it as a sort of empathetic exercise aimed at helping students develop an insight into other people's situations and understand the past better. Teacher 3 explained how he has students engage in simulation with a specific example from his teaching. Since he is very dedicated to having students see negative historical phenomena or undesirable human experiences such as racism that African-Americans have been gone through, Teacher 3 asks his students to put themselves in the place of the past people:

> Give them exercises and activities and put them in the place if they don't have a literacy test. So, I put them in the same setting. I will have you all take this literacy test. You are

> going to take this test that I am going to give you and I simulate just like it was in the sixties when the blacks were trying to vote. You know, the blacks are going to take this test to be able to vote and then, you know, the whites? We just get a free plan, so I give them some questions and I say whoever can pass this test does have to take the real test. Some kids are struggling with it and finding it hard and eventually complaining starts. This is not fair. Why do we have to do this? And I say, you see, this is real life in the sixties. You know, we have got to get through all this just to be able to vote. So what I am saying, you put them in a situation that shows them how the life was like.

Likewise, Teacher 4 also employs role playing through emphatic exercises to help students think about how the past was like, what was going on then. His main aim is to help students see the relevancy of the past to their lives by bringing history come alive and spark and keep students' interest in history alive. Like teacher 3, he also provided a specific example from his role-playing exercises to explain his use of the method:

> I do role-playing. I say, suppose you are a Virginia planner in 1619, how [*brief pause*] where would you go to find labor? Where would you go for that? Would you go to the Native-American population? Would you bring in servants from England? Or would you be interested in purchasing slaves from Africa. What would be your [choice]?

He further stated that he wants students to see people in history as real people with real emotions rather than just as people painted in black and white pictures in history books. Role-playing and scenarios are among Teacher 2's most favorite teaching methods too. Emphasizing his love for role-playing, he said that it is a fun for students to engage with and it is also an instructional aid for him to "get students up and get them involved." So, He thinks that method is capable of having students get engaged and be interested in history because it makes history lived. Teacher 1 also had a similar perspective on the role of simulation in helping students understand the past people by walking in their shoes. Teacher 12 also favors role-playing because it is fun for his kids who love role-playing. Students' enthusiasm in turn makes her love it more. Other teachers also cited role-playing among their teaching methods.

Worksheet

Teachers identified worksheets as their least favorite teaching methods on the grounds that they are not an effective method but a sort of busy work used to control and manage both instruction and student behaviors instead of engaging students in meaningful learning. Citing worksheet as his least instructional method, Teacher 6 elaborated on why he thought that was the case:

> It is just call and response. I think most students don't learn from it. I am unable to get students to really accomplish what I want them to accomplish….And they are going so far off task. That it is a way to try to manage that behavior and the reason I go to it and I think other people go to it is because students are socialized to respond to…. If you pull out the worksheet, suddenly the students say, oh, I can do this, I know how this works and sit down and start doing. And so, you get them a little bit back, a little bit closer to where you would like them to go. I mean, they are not where you want them to go. They are not close at all where you want them to go….But, given some of the options you encounter in the classroom, you think okay here are my weapons. Which one am I going to choose today? I am going to choose this one because I know it brings them more directly on task for ten minutes, fifteen minutes however long it takes.

Likewise, Teacher 2 views worksheet-or its varieties such as word search or crossword puzzle-as an ineffective method in that he thinks it cannot get students engaged and involved in learning. Teacher 7 does not like giving students worksheets as well for the same reason the other two teachers stated, "Students don't get much out of it. They do it and it is just gone. There is no real learning going on." Teacher 10's view of worksheet was different from other teachers as is the case for her views on other instructional strategies. As opposed to the teachers cited above, she is interested in having students do worksheets. When putting her perspective on cooperative learning across, she said in reference to worksheet, "The easiest way is to just give them worksheet and have them go on questions. That is the easiest. That is what I want to use it a lot." So, note-based worksheets help her manage and control student behaviors in the class.

In addition to the above teaching methods, teachers also mentioned individual or group research projects, technology tools such as videos, games, guest speakers, and graphic organizers. There are also some teaching methods that only one teacher touched on. What follows next is the quotations from the teachers' responses to illustrate the teaching method Teacher 6, Teacher 11, and Teacher 12 talked about.

Theme-based Instruction

Teacher 12: My curriculum is not based on chronologically, it is theme-based. My units are developed around themes. I think they call it issue-based which lends itself to more critical thinking and relating it to their own life. If I taught in a bigger school system, I would probably not be able to teach that way, which is a shame…. I am in movement right now. I am talking about different movements in history, nationalism, sectionalism, civil rights. All these things have a lot of things in common. You know, big groups of people are trying to make a change in America. You know, the feminist movement, different musical movements. They relate to each other. Last unit was about discrimination, and so we talked about Native-Americans and African-Americans, and women, immigrants, and how they all are discriminated against in our history. It makes for a better topic. They relate better to their own lives…. It makes more sense than talking about Native-Americans, women, you know, not talking about immigrants for another six weeks and trying to relate it back.

Teach Re-teach

Teacher 12: It is called teach-re-teach where the kids are divided up into the groups and sometimes I'll pick up a teacher within their group and they have to come up to me and I teach them about something, then they go back to the group and teach them about it. I try to pick some of my lower level learners to be the teachers and it is such a great thing as a teacher to speak them, teaching smart kids. But, the information is, and sometimes they just get the biggest kick out of it. And so, it is about powering those kids, I think. It does not always work but, for some kids, but usually works with most of them. They do it. And they get a kick out of it. You know, it is very empowering for a lot of my lower level students. And they do really well on that section of the test. They taught it and then re-taught it

Jurisprudential Teaching

Teacher 6: I also try to teach, create student-centered dialogue where I was not in the dialogue, where students were having dialogue with each other. And I created an approach to that, based on the Johnson' model structure-controversy that I am using in my AP class, jut try to do that. The structure-controversy modification I made was jurisprudential in the way I try to get students to converse with each other and have a dialogue about important issues.

Socratic Dialogue (As an ideal strategy)

Teacher 6: The approach I probably would use, if I could use it would be Socratic dialogue. I don't think I have ever practiced it. The classroom just does lend itself. The classrooms that I am exposed to do not lend themselves to a Socratic questioning or dialogue. It is just not working because you are getting any responses. A person, when you engaged in a Socratic dialogue to person you are working with the student must respond. They have got to respond in some way.

And based on that response, you can go on. But, the Socratic dialogue works best with a small group, preferably one or two people rather than thirty-five people.

Writing Assignment

Teacher 11: We have what is called writing assignments. It is something, a new thing that we try to do on a weekly basis. Writing assignment would be probably one of things that I like best because when it is done, writing assignment tell me a lot about individual student….I will give my students five or ten minutes say, from the lesson that we just did over the constitution, how was it written? Why was it written? Who was there at the convention? How the amendments that were added? So the original, then how, and why for the first ten minutes. Then I will give them probably ten minutes, and then okay tell me what you have learned from this? And once they have finished their writing assignment, I will take it up, I will actually read it and from that I can see one on one for all twenty four students that I teach in each class and say okay this student understands. What I am telling you, look at each individual student's paper. That is when you find out that student really understands what you are trying to impart to the class or what you try to teach. When you read those papers, you can say that person understands this but, he or she does not understands this, so I need to go back and readdress that.

Teachers' Considerations When Choosing a Teaching Method

Teachers were also asked about their main considerations when choosing a particular instructional strategy. Teachers considered the characteristics of their students, level of information or topics, and a given teaching method's potential to engage students with lessons. The most commonly found pattern was the teachers' concern with helping students grasp the topics being taught by matching the strategy with the level of the students. In other words, the most consideration or thought is given to whether the strategy works in practice, helping the teacher accomplish the objectives of the lesson. Teacher 4 briefly drew attention to this point by saying, "Does it work? That's the main thing." Emphasizing that the teacher should not go for the easiest way to teach the subject, Teacher 2 said, "You need to do what is best for students in your class." That meant whether the strategy is "helping students understand and learn." Likewise, Teacher 3 pointed out the same consideration by saying, "We have to get the material across the best. How can I get the point to them?" Elaborating on his answer, he explained what helps the teacher get the points across to students. He said, "Take things that are somewhat interesting to engage students in lesson. That's why I concentrate on activities and strategies that

will make them most, more interested." So, whether the selected strategy along with the topics are engaging or not is Teacher 3' main consideration.

Teacher 9 also emphasized the need to consider how to make lesson engaging and motivating. She stated that when she selects a strategy to teach the actual content to the students, she considers which strategy is likely to motivate students. So, it is important, from her perspective, "Finding the most engaging way to get this material across." Teacher 5 more explicitly talked about the importance of the level of students when selecting a teaching method. Highlighting the differences at a class level, he said,

> The most important is the level of learners, understanding what level of learners you are actually dealing with, whether you are teaching ACP level courses or CP level courses. Even with the ACP level class, not all the students are on the same learning level, so yeah, some students are more advanced than the others, so you have to be able to make sure your strategy encompasses all levels of learners.

In addition to students' level, Teacher 5 also emphasized the need to consider students' learning style and the teacher's teaching style. He said, "One style does not fit every student. One learning style does not fit every teacher and understanding that, therefore, is important to me." For this reason, he stressed that the teacher needs to be flexible and employ a wide variety of instructional strategies. Teacher 12 also put an emphasis on the importance of using different methods by taking into account the difficulty level of topics. She said,

> The one thing I think about when I am choosing a strategy is did I do this the day before? So, it is important to mix it up every day. Try not to do the same thing from the day to the next. Have a variety of instructional methods. I would like to make sure they are all different. One is going to be an individual. One is going to be a pair. One is going to be a group activity. One is going to be a written assignment. One is going to be a speech. One is going to be a computer presentation, you know poster, brochure…. If it is difficult information, it may not be the best idea to have them do something [that] is student-led or it is a group activity because they may not really get it. You know, it needs to be a teacher-centered activity if it is difficult information. If it is not difficult information, and maybe that's a good group activity to do or pair activity. If it is new information and if it is a big concept, that's when I use class discussion.

Considering the recent change in the level of her class, Teacher 12 further stated that she had to change some of her teaching methods to slow down the pace of instruction so that her students can understand the curriculum materials. She said, "I need not to go as in-depth. I need to repeat myself more, maybe give extra enrichment." Students' intellectual levels and learning styles are what most concerned Teacher 11 when choosing a teaching method or activity. She said,

> I think the biggest consideration that I have to make is the audience, who I am teaching. For some students, you can do lectures. For other students, that does not work because they just get tired when you talk. So, you have to look at the level of students. Some students like hands-on, some students like working in groups, some students like re-teaching methods, some students like powerpoint presentations. Some students even like going to the board, drawing some [pictures].

Paying a due attention to the level of learners was also an important consideration when picking up an instructional strategy for the rest of the teachers. Some teachers mentioned other criteria to decide what teaching method to choose to teach the lesson. These considerations were the teacher's skills, class size, class personality, visual appearance of the classroom, and cultural backgrounds of students. Teachers 6's teacher-centered orientation to teaching came into play in affecting his main consideration for selecting a teaching method. He said, "In the real world, I consider my skills and talents, what I am interested in, what I am capable of doing and that's really the number one." Teacher 10's personality seemed to shape her decision about which criteria to use when picking up an instructional strategy. As a structured person, Teacher 10 liked having a structured classroom, so considered whether the class size is big or not. She said, "I think I have to take into consideration the number of students I have, the class size. I have a class that has thirty-one in it. We can't do group work in that class. There are just too many students. I have got a class that has fourteen. We can do group work." She also paid attention to the specific class disposition to decide what teaching method to employ. She said, "Every class has an attitude, just a certain personality. I think I have taken into consideration their personality."

Teacher 11's race and ethnicity had an impact on her consideration for selecting instructional strategies or activities. Because she is African-American, an ethnic group who is considered among minorities in the US, she wanted to provide some opportunities for students to identify themselves with in the classroom. Drawing attention to the role the visual appearance of the classroom plays in helping students feel recognized and appreciated, she explained why the teacher needs to consider students' cultural backgrounds:

> I think it is a good thing when they can see a visual. If you look at my room, a lot these pictures relate to what I teach. They are not just up here. So, when we are talking about Native-Americans, they can see that. When we are talking about Hispanics, they can see this thing. We are talking about civil rights movement, even if we are talking about the great depression, or we are talking about Asian-Americans. We are talking about cultural diversity. I think when you look at pictures, those themes can make students identify with what you are teaching. And the visual is to me the most important. That's what I try to implement in my classroom as much technology as I can.

In conclusion, the most important consideration that teachers pay attention to when selecting a teaching method is matching the strategy with the level of students and the difficulty level of topics so that students can understand lessons. Teacher 6, Teacher 10, and Teacher 11 also consider the teacher's skills, the size and personality of the class, and the visual appearance of the class along with cultural backgrounds of students respectively.

Teachers Approaches to Assessing Students' Learning

How do social studies teachers understand if students understand what they try to teach? How do they know if students are meeting the learning goals and objectives that they set for their history courses? The teachers' responses reveal that they make use of a variety of assessment techniques to assess and ultimately evaluate students' learning of history. Their assessment techniques encompass both formal or systematic and informal ways to make judgments about the extent to which students understand what they are taught. Their assessment techniques range from informal observations of students' reactions to instruction or learning tasks through more

systematic and structured questions and discussions to formal multiple-choice tests, essays, projects, peer assessment, performance assessment, and the like. Depending on the type of student learning they want to assess, be it a simple acquisition of facts through memorization or a deeper understanding of subject matter through complex reasoning and thinking, they vary their approaches to assessing students' understanding of history. They also consider the developmental levels of the students they are teaching, be it a whole class, a particular groups of students, or an individual student. The most commonly employed assessment techniques cited by teachers involved in the study are teacher-made or standardized multiple-choice tests, different types of projects, question and answer, and discussion respectively. Essay, performance assessment, peer assessment, cooperative learning group, role-playing, notebooks, homework, reflective writing, portfolio, take-it-out-door.

Multiple Choice Tests

The most frequently mentioned assessment type is multiple-choice tests and quizzes. Teacher 6 is the one who most favors and likes using multiple-choice tests. He endorses the use of this assessment type because he thinks that is one of the most efficient, effective, and objective ways to assess students' learning and to predict their future performance. Highlighting the change in his conception of effective assessment methods, he said,

> I primarily use multiple choice questions. When I first started teaching, I was very much against multiple choice questions as a form of assessment and norm-referenced test. I don't hold to the views I held early in my career…. I think for what we do in the high schools, multiple choice questions, when appropriately [*long pause*] put together and structured [*brief pause*], are one of the most effective ways for assessing student knowledge and skills…. I think I can get a much stronger prediction of students' performance, using multiple choice test, I think, a much more standardized perspective on where they are.

Teacher 12 also said that she made the most use of multiple-choice tests to assess her students' learning. But, the reason why she employs those tests is very much different from the

reason Teacher 6 has. As opposed to Teacher 6, she does not see a lot value in multiple-choice tests in terms of their educational benefits. She feels obliged to employ those tests not only because the judgment on the quality of her teaching is predominantly based on her students' standardized tests scores but also because she wants her students to be successful in taking standardized, state-mandated tests. She said, "I do test, I do multiple-choice tests, unfortunately…. The majority of my tests are multiple choice because I have got to get them ready for the end of course test and practice, practice, practice." For the same reason, Teacher 5 also said that he uses standardized tests as one of his most used assessment methods. He also referred to state-mandated tests, implicitly saying that that his assessment is shaped and influenced by the standardized tests. He said,

> The most common assessment is, we use rubrics, we use testing, standardized testing. Teacher-made test is one of the important things that I use in class, my teacher-made test that I use to evaluate [students' learning] over the units. Students are exposed to standardized testing questions because of the EOCT that they will be taking at any semester. And graduation test they will be taking at the, probably like their spring or junior year. So, those are the various methods that I use in class.

Likewise, Teacher 3 employs, though not frequently, multiple-choice tests of his own, trying to make them as reliable and valid as he can. He said, "Sometime I have to test with multiple-choices, standardized tests. But, I spend time writing questions. I mean that's hard for me to do." While Teacher 4, Teacher 7, and Teacher 10 just cited tests as one of their assessment methods, Teacher 1 explained what type of student learning he assesses by using those multiple-choice tests, to assess students' understanding of basic facts such as dates, places, and names.

In addition to multiple-choice tests, some teachers stated that they also use quizzes. Teacher 7 uses quizzes to assess if students have understood basic concepts of the subject. Likewise, Teacher 9 employs simple quizzes with multiple choice to measure whether students acquired concrete pieces of information. She said that testing comprises twenty five to thirty percent of a

student's total grade. Teacher 8 and Teacher 11 also cited quizzes among their assessment techniques.

Projects

Projects of different types follow multiple-choice tests as the second most commonly used assessment technique. Except for Teacher 6, other teachers either just named them or explained how they use them in one or a couple of sentences without providing a rationale for their usage. Teacher 6 makes use of individual and group projects and structures flexibility into those projects, allowing students to have choices as to selecting the topic of the project. He also involves students in the assessment of their projects. He explained how and why he uses of project as follows:

> I have used projects or group projects. I had students create PowerPoint projects for my comparative religion class. I would give them a list of topics and they had to do research and create a PowerPoint presentation on their topic. And they would present them in the class. And I thought this nice. I liked the way this works. Students seem to be relatively happy with what is going on. They seem to be involved. They are learning stuff. But, I used those sort of things. I had projects for students to create a poster, poster projects that had rubrics, and I scored them. I also had all the students in the class score as well.

Like Teacher 6, Teacher 9 also lets students have the opportunity to decide what kind of projects they want to engage, so she employs open-ended projects to assess some of student learning. Teacher 1 and Teacher 10 also have students deal with projects to see if they have really grasped what was taught in the class. Teacher 2, teacher 7, and teacher 8 also cited projects among their assessments methods.

Question and Answer & Discussion

Question and answer format along with discussion is the third commonly cited assessment technique. Teacher 4 is the one who uses questions as his most employed assessment method. If students do not ask questions, it indicates that "they either don't care or they have not learned it

up to asking questions, so then students do need to ask some questions." He basically uses lower questions aimed at checking for understanding when reviewing the topics taught through recitation. He said,

> You also from day to day, you have to keep asking questions. Do they miss it? or do they get it? And every day I start each class for the review of what they learned the previous day. I want to make sure they understood what we did yesterday before we go on the new stuff today. So, that's what I do…. I just ask questions. I go back and review…. That is how they get it, I guess.

Teacher 11 also said that she resorts to questions to judge whether or not students understand what is taught. Like Teacher 4, she also starts teaching the class by "just simply by throwing questions out." She especially asks questions to see if students understand chronological order. In addition to posing questions for the whole class to answer, she also asks five to six questions to individual students on one-on-one basis when she instructs them individually to prepare for the test. She said that employing individualized assessment through questions not only helps her not to leave any student behind but also helps individual students understand the subject matter better. Teacher 10 also takes advantage of questions as an assessment technique to make judgment about students' learning. She uses questions and discussions together. While asking questions, she interacts with students in a more relaxed classroom atmosphere through dialogue. She said,

> Sometimes just by talking to students, having interaction in the classroom discussion, calling on students, asking questions, sharing ideas. I can tell whether they understand the concepts. I may not give them a grade for that. But, I can tell whether they understand something, just based on the answers they give me. I can understand whether they read something, based on the answers they give me. So, dialogue.

Question and answer, both written and oral, is also among Teacher 2's and Teacher 8's repertoire of assessment techniques. Teacher 8 noted that she mostly asks open-ended questions even though her students hate them.

Discussion

While some teachers ask fact-driven questions to check students' understanding of basic facts of history, others make use higher-order thinking questions to see if students understand subject matter deeply through enacting their reasoning and thinking skills. Teacher 3 said that he uses open-ended questions when involving students in discussion. He explained how those questions help him assess students' learning and metacognitive skills:

> I try to do more discussion, or more open-ended questions. An open-ended question helps you get better results because it does not have a certain right or wrong answers. It allows the learners to elaborate on their thinking. You can see where they are coming from and how they arrive at that answer. So, that's why I like it better than other instructional strategies.

Teacher 1 also employs discussions, asking complex questions for students to answer. He said that if he wants to assess students' levels of higher-order thinking and reasoning skills, he asks them why questions: "If I want to note, if a kid understands why it was difficult to invade, to occupy France in nineteen forty-four, and I ask a discussion question…. Ask them a discussion question and let them write and then you can see to the depth of their understanding." Teacher 8 and Teacher 9 also cited discussion among their assessment techniques.

Essays

As is the case for the other assessment techniques, teachers use essays for different purposes. Teacher 6 employs essays especially in his AP classes for the sake of preparing students to take those mandated tests including essay questions. He said that students' assessment in AP classes requires them to take a test with three essay questions, so he is spending a lot of time to help students learn how to write a test essay. He contended that a lot of teachers and instructors do not know how to write a good essay questions. Noting that he does not have any problem with essay questions, he said,

> I think they are misused tremendously by teachers. When I taught methods [course at a research university], I would spend some times on essay questions. I think that the questions that are given are really horrific for the most part. I think it shows that a lot of history professors need some experience and instruction in how you create essay questions that are appropriate.

Even though Teacher 6 might have used essay questions to see the depth of students' understanding of a particular topic or issue, his basic purpose is to meet the demand of teaching AP courses by helping students prepare for taking the test with essay questions. On the other hand, Teacher 1 resorts to essay type of assessment to detect the depth of students' understanding of subject matter taught. The way Teacher 12 uses essays is a little different from the way other teachers use. Because she is concerned with helping students successful test takers, she uses assay questions by inserting them into all of her tests. Teacher 9 also stated that she likes assessing students' learning through essays.

Other Assessment Techniques Used by Teachers

In addition to assessment techniques explained above, there are some other types of assessment that teachers mentioned. Teacher 11 and Teacher 12 reported using performance assessment, be it an action, a sketch, or a presentation done either individual students or a group of students. Teacher 5, Teacher 6, and Teacher 12 cited rubrics among their assessment techniques. Teacher 6 elaborated on his use of rubrics by saying,

"I have always used rubrics when I use assessment. Rubrics tend to make people be more intentional about what is expected of them." But, he thought that like essay questions, rubrics are also tremendously misused by teacher in that they are either too vague or too specific to properly assess students' learning. For this reason, he said, "when I use rubrics, I keep them rather simple, very simple, maybe to the point that some people may argue that it is not a valid rubric."

Teacher 12 also stressed that rubrics help the history teacher not only be equitable to students but also be objective in evaluating students' understanding of a subject that is very subjective in nature. Teacher 2 and Teacher 9 reported having students keep notebooks. Teacher 9 argued that there is a direct correlation between the student's ability to keep an organized notebook and his or her test scores. "So, those kids who are totally unorganized, it reflects their test scores." Teacher 4 And Teacher 7 reported using "the ticket-to-leave" and "take it-out-the door" respectively. Both assessment techniques aim to detect if students have understood what was taught in the class. Teachers basically ask students to summarize the day's lesson before letting them leave the classroom.

Teacher 2 and Teacher 7 cited reflective writing or student journals among their assessment methods. Teacher 5 uses portfolios to assess overall students' progress at the end of the semester. He stated that having students put their works in portfolios help him and his students see their strength. He stressed that portfolios are especially useful ways of assessing those students who are not successful test takers but artistic and skilled at using their hands dexterously. Teacher 6 reported occasional use of peer assessment, especially with his AP class, as an informal measure of students' learning. He explained how he employs this assessment method by saying "I am having students read a book outside the class. I have divided them into reading groups. And each group presents a panel and I am letting students assess panels and give me a score."

Teacher 7 employs small group work by having students engage in creative assignments where they have to take what they have been talking about in the class and "make something out of it." Teacher 9 occasionally gives them homework to do. She tries to see if students have really read their assignment and been able to pinpoint the most important and critical pieces of information and put them together in their homework. She tries to motivate them by asking them

put their best college effort: “I can point out the ones, no that’s not your best college effort. I am not looking for deep correct answer. But, those things that are critical for the correct answers.” Teacher 2 named role-playing and video presentation as his assessment methods. Teacher 4 also reported the use of informal observation of students’ reactions to his instruction in addition to the above assessment methods that are usually systematic and formal. He said,

> Actually by being in the classroom that they are using, you can pretty much tell whether students are getting it or not getting it. And if you look at, get a bunch of blank stares, if you ask a question, and they are also there to look at you, you know they are not, they are not getting it or they are not understanding it. So, you then you have to go back and, and re-teach or find out what they do understand and go from that.

While some teachers talked about constraints on their effort to assess students’ learning in large public school classrooms, others pointed out the need to tailor assessment to students’ learning styles and study approach recognizing individual differences. Teacher 1 said that it is difficult to get to know each individual student in a typical secondary public school in a limited time period. So, any class with large number of students limits the teacher’s effort to assess students’ learning with integrity. Drawing attention to individual differences among students, Teacher 1 elaborated on this point as follows:

> We have thirty kids in classroom. I am probably not going to get to know very single kid to the level I would like to in ninety days. It is not because I don’t try, I don’t want to. Some people are more aloof than others. And so, if kids come in here, they don’t raise their hands, and they don’t really say a whole lot, then I don’t know them as well as those students that participate all the time and ask me questions, and talk to me. I learn, I make an effort to bring the other ones out. But, with thirty kids, some you can, some you can’t, some you do to one degree, some you do to another degree, you know, so, some kids you can assess because you can tell just from the questions they ask and the comments they make, that they get it, and they understand it…. They understand the concept you are tying to get across. Others, they don’t speak so that much, then you have to use more a standard assessment like tests, like projects, reading quizzes and this kind of things.

Likewise, Teacher 11 highlighted the difficulty to assess each student in public schools. She said,

> Sometimes we don't have a lot of time to do that in public school where you have twenty five, thirty kids in the class. But, sometimes we need to make the opportunity to see if this child is getting it. I know this teen over here had it, but what about this kid? Because you can easily get left behind.

Teacher 2 emphasized the need to consider differences in students' learning styles when assessing their learning so that each student will have opportunity to show his or her understanding of subject matter by those assessment methods they are comfortable with. So, he stressed the importance of using a variety of assessment techniques to reach each student. He put his perspective on this point as follows:

> Some students are going to be great, sitting down and answering questions with pen and paper, pencil and paper at hand. [*Long pause*] Some students have a tremendous amount of knowledge but they have a phobia of taking a test. They may know, they may be able to tell everything that you want to know, but they can't tell you that on a piece of paper. [*Long pause*] Do you penalize that person because they are not a good test-taker? You need to find out that person. If they are knowing what they are doing, and this is how I and I have changed. I used to be there is one way to evaluate. You evaluated everybody the same way. I don't think that's effective. So, you have to use several different ways to evaluate your students to see if learning is taking place. Do you want your students to be alike? I don't think so.

Is there a Relationship between Teachers' Conceptions of History and Conceptions of Teaching?

Now that the teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history have been presented, the relationship between the two distinct but interrelated components of teacher knowledge can be examined. According to this research study's findings, there is not a clearly discernible relationship between teachers' conceptions of history and their conceptions of teaching. The responses of Teacher 6, Teacher 10, and Teacher 12 best illustrate the lack of relationship between their conceptions of history, conceptions of teaching and teaching approaches or instructional practices. To begin with, Teacher 6 had the most sophisticated conception of history. His views of history as a discipline are characterized by a

constructivist epistemology and a disciplinary understanding of history in that he saw history as an interpretation of the past or an argument about the meaning of the past events. He provided elaborate and coherent explanations to articulate his conception of history by employing a language of disciplinary history.

On the other hand, his views on the different dimensions of teaching and learning are strongly identified by a traditional behaviorist framework rather than a constructivist one. He had the most teacher-centered orientation to teaching even though his conception of teaching incorporated some elements of constructivist pedagogy. As such, his conception of teaching best exemplified an understanding of teaching as transmitting knowledge and skills from the teacher to students. He put a doubled emphasis on knowledge or the content of the subject matter and teacher knowledge by saying, "I think of teaching as actually almost a master and apprentice relationship, someone with knowledge, someone without knowledge. Knowledge and skills need to be transmitted to an individual." Likewise, he saw learning as the acquisition of knowledge. When conceptualizing his view of learning, he said,

> I do not think there is a stream of thought that you might call constructivist. I may not be completely fair to them because I am not completely aware of exactly what that means…. I believe as a teacher that in the classroom, there is knowledge that I try to impart…. I believe all classrooms ought to be teacher-centered in [a] way I think about it, meaning that the teacher is organizing and structuring the environment for learning…. Learning objectives are really very, very important for teachers. And a learning objective has to focus on, I think, an overt behavior…. The essential question I have on the board is what is a fair tax? What is a fair tax? But, that does not tell me what I expect the students to be able to do and indicate that they have learned.

The above quotation clearly shows how the behaviorist framework came into play in shaping his conception of teaching. The fact that he is not "completely aware of exactly what that [constructivism] means" might provide some explanations as to why there is no congruence between his conception of history and conception of teaching. It is his unfamiliarity with the

literature on constructivism or his lack of training in constructivist pedagogy that is likely to prevent the teacher from making a connection between his conception of history and conception of teaching.

Teacher 10 had the second most sophisticated conception of history. Like Teacher 6, her training in the discipline of history came into play in her view of history as an interpretation of the past, so a disciplinary understanding of history was reflected in her conception of history. She was able to recognize the subjective component of history, or the way the historian's perspective, race, ethnicity, theoretical framework, etc., affect the construction of historical explanations. She saw historical knowledge as tentative, constructed, and subject to revision and change. Most of her perspectives on teaching and learning were also characterized by a constructivist orientation to teaching. She viewed teaching as facilitating and guiding learning. Her view incorporated some elements of cognitive apprenticeship. She saw learning as a cognitive process of understanding concepts. She said,

> [Teaching is] facilitating, allowing students the opportunity to understand something, showing people how to do something. Teaching people how to function, helping people come to an understanding about certain, certain topics, opening minds to new ideas…. I think students can take information, they can process, they can understand it…. That is something that I do not think can even be measured sometimes. I do not think we ever know how much a student learns…. I think there is a lot of learning going on in our students' mind [that] I will never know. And I do not think anybody can ever measure that internal understanding of the concepts.

So, her conceptions of teaching and learning were identified by the principles of cognitivism and constructivism or the principles of learner-centered education. Even though constructivism underpins Teacher 10's conceptions of history and conception of teaching, her teaching approaches or instructional practices were identified by the behaviorist orientation to teaching. This is because lecture is Teacher 10's favorite teaching method. She enjoys teaching history via lectures but dislikes discussion and cooperative learning, both of which are among learner-

centered instructional practices. There are some clues in Teacher 10's responses that shed some light on the reasons for the inconsistency or a lack of relationship between her conception of history, conception of teaching, and teaching approach. First of all, coverage-oriented curriculum and state-mandated standardized tests affect the way she teaches. To illustrate, when explaining her goals for teaching history, she said,

> I think one goal is to get them to pass the test at the end of year. I mean I think as much as I do not like that, I mean that is the overall driving force…. In a real [world], in reality the most important ones [goals] is to have that test. I mean in all bottom line, my most important goal is to pass that CRCT Test….. We have to turn in goals like my goals eighty percent of my students will have satisfactory test scores.... Just teaching to test. You are teaching to the objectives on the test and not to [*brief pause*] just the overall goal of what you want to accomplish. So, that would be my number one goal.

So, in order to help students pass standardized tests, which are fact-oriented, she tries to teach via lecture to cover all the facts in the social studies curriculum. There is another reason why she employs lecture frequently. Teacher 10's personality seemed to shape her approach to teaching. She said that she is "a structured person," so, she likes employing lecture as a structured teaching method more than discussion and cooperative learning, both of which are less structured and more open-ended than lecture. She also likes lecturing because she thinks that she feels "more comfortable with standing up and talking about things."

Teacher 10's negative attitude toward discussion and cooperative learning springs from her view of eighth graders as well. Because she thinks students at eighth grade level "don't [know how to discuss], they need to be taught how to discuss," she comes to a conclusion that it is not a practical method to use with eight grade students whose maturity levels she thinks are very low. Likewise, she does not like group work because of social loafing and frequent off-task behaviors associated with group work.

Like Teacher 6 and Teacher 10, Teacher 12 also saw history as an interpretation of history. Even though she did not have training in history, her conception of history had some elements of a disciplinary understanding of history. Constructivist epistemology characterized both her conception of history and conception of teaching. She viewed teaching as facilitating and guiding learning. She said, "Teaching is guiding. Teaching…is not showing things. But, teaching is helping your students open their mind." Likewise, seeing learning as meaning making, she said, "Learning is not memorizing. It does not mean showing facts. But, learning is something that you can apply on your life. It is about concepts, ideas, and thinking, getting them to see outside their small world." These quotations clearly demonstrate her constructivist view of teaching and learning. But she frequently employs behaviorist methods of teaching such as lecture and recitation. This is because, like teacher 10, she was very concerned with students' standardized test scores. When explaining her goals, she said, "My other goal is to help them pass the end of course test, so the practice, practice, practice, practice, practice, practice on multiple choice questions. And we do that every day," and added that "I am judged so much on test…. I am judged a lot on, on test and how my students do on test and so, I have to make sure that they get the facts or at least facts according to what the state says the facts are."

So, as institutional or external constraints, coverage-oriented curriculum along with high-stake standardized tests affects both Teacher 10's and Teacher 12's curriculum planning and implementation. These two external forces are one of the reasons why there is inconsistency and incongruence in these teachers' conceptions of history, conceptions of teaching, and instructional practices.

Factors Influencing the Development of Teachers' Teaching Styles

A wide variety of factors can contribute to the development of a teacher's teaching style, from early school experiences to one's own personal experience in teaching. The extent to which these factors influence teachers' teaching styles change from one teacher to another. Teachers involved in the study cited the following factors as contributors to the development of their present teacher styles: colleagues, previous teachers as role models, one's own teaching experience and reflection on it, types of students, college experience at teacher education programs, early school experience at secondary level, one's conception of history, disciplinary preparation or training, politicians and educational decision makers, and educational reforms or policies.

Colleagues

Analysis of teachers' responses reveals teachers' colleagues as the most commonly cited influence on their teaching styles. Around sixty-six percent of teachers (8 Teachers) stated that they have gained some knowledge and skills by observing and listening to other teachers' suggestions, behaviors, and classroom teaching. Teacher 6 is the one who seemed to be most affected by the ways his colleagues were teaching when he was just starting his career as a novice teacher. Thinking that student teachers' teaching styles were also shaped greatly by their supervising teachers, he said,

> I know that one of the big influences [on my teaching style is], teachers, just colleagues. And I think early in my career, that was important to me… Early in my career I know that there were a couple of teachers I had and I did not overtly emulate their styles, but when I think about what intrigued me in the classroom, I would always have to go to those people and think about what went on in their classroom and I had to make a decision [*brie pause*] what they did. I think that is just a naturally occurring phenomenon. They would talk more in the classroom. They would present more information in the classroom.

That is why he always emphasized the importance of the content knowledge and its presentation to students. That is what was modeled for him early in his career. Teacher 10 also

reported getting ideas from colleagues, watching them teach, observing them, and drawing on their experiences all shaped her teaching style or what kind of teacher she is.

Teacher 7 and Teacher 8 also stated that their observations of what other teachers have done and the teaching tips they have gotten from them helped contribute to the development of their teaching styles. Likewise, Teacher 12 contended that if one is going to be a good teacher, he or she needs to go and watch other teachers and should not be afraid of asking questions or borrowing ideas from them. So, she thought that professional development and self-improvement as a teacher demands benefiting from other teacher's ideas and experiences. Teacher 4 also said that his colleagues taught some of their styles to him. Highlighting the need to be open to adapting different approaches when needed, Teacher 2 stated, "I learn from my student teachers. I am always picking up something from my student teachers that help me, I think, become a better teacher." So, supervising teachers influence student teachers' teaching styles, they are in turn influenced by their student teachers. Teacher 11 gave a specific example to illustrate how she has benefited from her colleagues' ideas by being committed to devoting herself to student learning:

> I have a lot of friends who teach. One of my dearest friends teaches in another state and one of things she told me years ago. She teaches in elementary. She said no child leaves my classroom unless he understands basic math. She teaches in elementary. And I said I was so inspired by that. I teach in high school. My friend teaches in elementary. But, I am just saying what a difference we can make if we try hard to make sure that what we taught is understood by every child, so that inspired me.

Previous Teachers as a Model

Teachers draw on their memories of how they were taught by the teachers that they had in the past to develop their teaching styles. Half of the teachers reported that their previous teachers served as a role model for them to emulate when developing their teaching styles. Showing respect and admiration for his past teachers' ability to make history interesting, Teacher 4 said,

> I guess that's the way I was taught. I had some history teachers. I really admired and I enjoyed their teaching style. A lot of my professors at the university, [*brief pause*] I enjoyed the way they taught. They may have history come alive for me and, and increase my interest in history and so I just try to emulate my teachers. I guess I am just traditionalist, just the way I learned.

Teacher 2 also made similar comments as to the influence of previous teachers on his teaching style. He said, "I have taught a lot like the way I was taught. I teach the way that I was taught. I taught what helped me learn." Likewise, expressing enjoyment in taking courses with her past teachers, Teacher 10 said, "I think that's mainly a lot of the teachers I am. Just looking at the teacher I had in the past. Calling her previous teachers' teaching styles as traditionalist, Teacher 7 also said, "The way I was taught too. You know there are some traditional ways to use in the class." Teacher 5 and Teacher 11 also indicated the previous teachers' influence on their teaching style.

One's Own Teaching Experience and Self reflection

Teachers' teaching experiences along with self-reflection on teaching approaches and practices also play a big role in helping them revise, modify and change their teaching styles. Emphasizing the role of trial-and-error or experimentation in shaping her instructional practices, Teacher 10 said,

> I think my own experiences. Every year I learn something different, something new to do. Some of my own experiences in the classroom, things that work, and do not work, but I think working on what doesn't work. All that a kid of pull together, I think helps make me the teacher that I am…. I think just every year, just experimenting what has worked and what has not worked. I think that has probably the biggest influence on my teaching style.

Teacher 10 also said she used to benefit from students' reactions to her instructional practices, but as years passed, she quit asking students such questions as "What do you like best that I did? What was it that we did and worked best?" Teacher 7 also pointed out the effects of self-

reflection on the development of her teaching approach. Drawing attention to the progress she made by reflecting on her teaching experiences, she said,

> Brain storm to try to figure out how to do things. You look at what you have done before and then you say okay how can I approve this or how can I get the students engaged in this more, understand that more? Some practice, practice, that helps. And then again, just adapting to what you need to do, to make it, whether it is adapting your, a lesson, or adapting how you approach a student in certain situation, how you approach a whole class of students. You got to mix it, you have to change, if you do not, you are not really learning, you are not moving on, getting better.

Teacher also explicitly stressed that teachers have to be open to evaluate themselves. Teacher 5 and Teacher 8 also mentioned the effects of past teaching experiences on their teaching styles.

Early Schooling Experiences in Secondary School and College

Teachers' early educational experiences first in secondary school and then in college also had an impact on their teaching styles. Both Teacher 5 and Teacher 9 seemed to remember some of their early schooling experiences as dull, uninspiring, and intellectually unchallenging on account of the fact that they did not think they were provided with lots of meaningful learning experiences. For these reasons, they implied that they try to pinpoint what was it that made them feel satisfied or unsatisfied, motivated or unmotivated, engaged or disengaged, and the like with their early experiences in learning school subjects and then make effort to turn whatever seemed to them as negative or undesirable learning experiences into positive ones for their students. Referring to his high school days, Teacher 5 said,

> I think understanding the students and being one of those types of students. When I was going to the high school, my area of strength was reading comprehension. I loved history. I loved language arts…. And nobody's class actually had me actively engaged in learning. Teachers who had me in classes, what they did constantly disseminate information. I did well because I studied. But, those are the classes I remember. And I look back and ask, what teacher made me feel the most comfortable? What classes would I be engaged in? And that really helped me along the way.

Teacher 9 also referred to both her and her child schooling experiences when talking about the influences on her teaching style. Like Teacher 5, she said that did not experience innovative, challenging, interesting, and engaging instructional activities in some of her teachers' classes in secondary school. She said,

> I remember being a student at this age [7th grade]. And I watch my two daughters going through middle school and later high school… And I remember writing a poem while being a student. When I was a younger child, it was like being confined in this box and not having a chance to come out of the box and do all these explorations. And then I saw what my kids were going through and how much they were exposed focused, you know, lower level ideas, I mean, not getting to the big concept. So I am frustrated by watching some of the things my kids went through.

While Teacher 5 and Teacher 9 talked about their schooling experiences at a secondary level, other teachers drew attention to their learning experiences at a tertiary level. Teacher 6, Teacher 7, Teacher 10, and Teacher 12 all pointed out the influences of their teacher education programs, especially methods courses, on their teaching styles. Teacher 7 stated that her teaching style was most influenced by her education of becoming a teacher. Teacher 6 also said, "Methods courses and continuing education has influenced me." Likewise, Teacher 10 said, "Some of I comes from formal education, going through education program." Teacher 12 also cited one of teaching methods courses as having a big impact on her teaching style. She said,

> I took Dr. McNeil [Pseudonym]. He was so good. He is not here anymore in education department, I think. He had an ideology. His ideology was inspiring to me…. I loved him, that was the class that I took, developed my US history curriculum, and he loved my curriculum. That made me feel more confident. He made us try to think outside the box and [*brief pause*] challenged us. And I do not know, I think I have just more respect for him because he had taught in high school. I had professors who have never taught in high school. But, it is hard to think I am going to learn something from somebody who has never even taught.

So, Teacher 12 was critical of some of her teacher education program and its faculty in that there were some professors whose teaching experiences in secondary school were limited. She argued that the student teachers that were sent to her classroom to be supervised were "not

getting reality" but "getting whatever books says." So, the curriculum of the teacher preparation program that she and her student teachers attended was not effectively developed to provide pre-service teachers with pedagogical knowledge and skills balanced in terms of theoretical and practical considerations.

Student Characteristics

The types of students that teachers have also affect their approaches to teaching. Almost half of the teachers drew attention to the differences in student characteristics and their effects on the way they teach. They especially emphasized the need to change their teaching approaches to accommodate differences in students' interests, intellectual ability and learning styles. Teacher 3 said,

> What kind of students I have. Students work better with discussion. They do work better with more structure. Some kids need structure. They do not know how to discuss. They do not feel comfortable with that. And you can try to do that. So, give them structure, give them some driving, leading activities. You can't teach every student the same way. You have got to look at their learning capacity and their interest and things that relate to students.

Teacher 5 also highlighted the need to tailor one's teaching approach to accommodate the differences in students' learning styles. Being suspicious of some college professors' claim that every student is on the same level of learning, he contended,

> When you get into your first classroom, when I did my student teaching, I realized, wow, you are dealing with so many different attitudes, you are dealing with very personality, sometimes fifteen to twenty different learning styles. And all these things are in one classroom setting. So, what we do is to put them together. Adapt the style that is reflective of all these things.

Similarly, Teacher T7 and Teacher 8 identified student characteristics as a big factor in giving shape to their teaching styles.

There are other factors that teachers reported as having an impact on their teaching styles. Teacher 6 mentioned the effects of disciplinary preparation or the content knowledge he

developed on his teaching style. Emphasizing the role of content knowledge in helping him teach the subject or share information with students, he said, "I think my content knowledge has had a big impact on the way I teach in my classroom." Teacher 6 also touched on the influences of the educational reforms or innovations initiated by the state or the city's educational board by saying drawing attention to the way he practiced a learning-focused approach to teaching. He said,

> The learning-focused caused me to change the way I did a few things. But, when I say change, something I was already doing I thought, oh here is what I am doing, it is learning-focused. And it maybe caused me to think about it in a little bit different way, maybe draw it out in my instruction a little bit more. The focus activity, I have always had focus activities, but for about two years, I really spend a lot of time developing them. Now, I am not using it in the quite same way.

Teacher 3 also regrettably pointed out the external top-down influences on his teaching style when he said, "George W. Bush, the parliament, the school boards are telling us what students need to know. This is what they should know. Teach it to them. That is what affects me." Lastly, Teacher 6 cited personality and Teacher 12 conception of history respectively as factors affecting their teaching styles.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This qualitative research study examined teachers' conceptions history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history, so this section presents the two distinct yet interrelated components of the research study respectively.

Teachers' Conceptions of History

Five conceptions of history are identified from the analysis of the teachers' views of history. These hierarchically ordered conceptions are history as a nation's memory, history as a story of mankind, history as an enactment in one's mind of the past, history as a study of change and struggle over time, and history as an interpretation of the past. The first conception of history is colored by a nationalist view of history along with the concept of citizenship. It thus draws heavily on nationalistic terms and concerns by defining history in relation to the nation's past experiences more than the experiences of the people of the world and seeing it a means to help the nation guide and conduct itself in the present. The institutional context in which the teacher works seemed to have a negative influence on the teacher's conception of history as indicated by the teacher's response. Since coverage-oriented social studies curriculum and state-mandated standardized tests focus more on US history than world history, both external forces can be said to delimit rather than enlarge the teacher's conception of history. These forces lead the teacher to be concerned with how to meet the external demands imposed on him and how to help students learn the basic facts and places in the face of an obligation to teach a large number of historical topics within a limited time period. The second conception of history is by and large more comprehensive and global than the first conception of history in which a strong nationalistic element came to the fore on the grounds that it defines history more globally as the story of total

experiences of the world's people or humankind and emphasizes the trajectory of the past events and human development. The third conception of history views history as the enactment of the past in one's mind retrospectively and highlights the connectedness of the past, the present, and the future.

The fourth conception of history is culture-oriented and thus defines history from a multicultural perspective by focusing on the experiences, struggles, and cultures of the world people. It not only emphasizes the interaction among different cultures in the world and subsequent cultural changes in society but also the impact of the past on the present and the interaction between people and their environment. Teachers' race and ethnicity seemed to have an impact on their conceptions of history. Teacher 3 and Teacher 11 who are African-American and whose cultural practices are somewhat different from those of the white teachers might have developed sensitivity to other cultures. Since the majority of black people in the US faced and still continue to face discrimination of different sorts in their lives and have to struggle to overcome it and other hostile conditions against their existence, the emphasis on the struggle of people over time came to the fore in African-American teachers' conceptions of history.

As the most sophisticated conception of history, the fifth conception of history defines history in broad terms by taking on a holistic approach characterized by a multidimensional perspective. This view of history takes into account not only the outcome of historical scholarship, i.e., written historical accounts, but also the process through which historical explanations are constructed or the past is given meaning. Teachers in this category recognize the two components of historical accounts, both objective and subjective elements. In other words, this view of history sees the whole rather than just one part of what history is about. A multilayered conception of history, drawing on different aspects of history as a discipline, colors this

perspective. Teachers holding on to this conception see history as a dynamic discipline by defining it as an interpretation or argument about the meaning of the past events. For this reason, they do not see history as concrete or as a complete argument but as being subject to be revised, replaced, or invalidated by better arguments. That is, from their perspectives, historical knowledge is not static but subject to change as time goes on.

The above conceptions of history can be divided into two overarching categories as "a study of the past" and as "an interpretation of the past." The former category encompassing the first four conceptions of history is characterized by fragmented and partial understanding of history as a common sense understanding of history, i.e., a study of the past events, cultures, and people chronologically, and the latter category is characterized by a richer, sophisticated understanding of history. While the majority of teachers in the first category did not recognize the role of subjectivity in historical explanations such as the historian's frame of reference, gender, race, ethnicity, nationality, biases, academic training and the social and cultural climate of a given era, teachers in the second category see the subjective element embedded in every historical account. For this reason, a realist view of the world and a naïve epistemological view of history seem to characterize the conceptions of the teachers in the former category who view history as objective knowledge.

When confronted with the epistemological questions on the nature of historical knowledge or the characteristic features of history, teachers tended to answer them from a practical or pedagogical point of view. That is, rather than see history as a discipline or domain of knowledge, i.e., the way historical knowledge comes into being, the majority of teachers looked at history as a school subject to teach and answered the question in terms of teaching and learning history by drawing on their teaching experiences. This tendency in turn prevented most

of the teachers from seeing the distinctive features of history as a discipline. Some of them even confessed that they had difficulty articulating their thoughts about history as a domain of knowledge since they did not reflect on epistemological and conceptual questions. Teachers' responses also revealed that that they did not see the relevancy of intellectual and conceptual foundations of history as a discipline to their profession and professional development.

When elucidating their views on the distinctive features of history, more than half of the teachers looked at the outcome of the process of historical knowledge construction without taking its process into consideration or mentioning about the forces that shape historical writing. As a result, instead of seeing the whole relationship or the interplay among the past, the recorded past, and the historian, i.e., both the process and outcome, they see a part of the relationship among different aspects of history. For this reason, their conceptions of history were fragmented, partial, and incomplete except for Teacher 6 and Teacher 9, both of whom had a degree in history. What is missing in the majority of teachers' understanding of history is the recognition that historical knowledge is tentative, subjective, socially and culturally embedded in that the historian's frame of reference and theoretical framework along with socio-cultural variables affect the way historical knowledge is produced.

Teachers' descriptions of the characteristic features of history or what distinguishes history from other types of knowledge focused on the reasons for the existence of history, the object of historical study, i.e., study of people's lives, methods of history, the focus of historical study, e.g., difference, cause-effect, possibilities and limits of historical study, forms of historical knowledge, and benefits of historical knowledge.

Art vs. Science Dichotomy in History

Historians have been concerned with and attempted to answer the epistemological questions of whether history is art or science in nature. This study also elicited teachers' views of the nature of history by focusing on their perspectives on art-science dichotomy and found that the majority of teachers see history both as art and science. Out of 12 social studies teachers, 9 teachers (75%) viewed history both as art and science, 2 teachers (approximately 17%) as science, and 1 teacher (8%) as art respectively. Teachers' rationale for why history leans more toward art was more articulate and coherent than their rationale for why history is science too. While articulating their views of history as art and science, teacher focused their attention on (a) the writing part of history and the object of historical study, i.e., people and their lives rather than nature and natural events, and on (b) historical research methods and analytic reasoning respectively.

Teachers provided reasons why imagination and theory are needed in historical explanations. According to their responses, employing imagination or empathy to study the past is necessary because the past is gone and it takes imagination to be able enter into a different time period, to have an emphatic understanding of the past people's mentality and situations, to facilitate and substantiate historical thinking, to give meaning to the historical documents or to make the past understandable and intelligible, to make an educated guess in order to fill the gaps in historical documents in the absence of enough historical data, and to come up with a new understanding of the past events and people.

Teachers also drew attention to the role of imagination in teaching history. They argued that the teacher needs to have students study the past imaginatively if they are to see the relevancy of the past to their lives, to avoid meaningless memorization of history, to view the past from

different angles creatively, and ultimately to develop their historical reasoning and thinking. In other words, imagination helps history become interesting, engaging, understandable, and meaningful by making the past relevant to students' lives. Because imagination evokes a story, students understand how and in what ways the past connects to their lives and thus history becomes fun for students. By means of imagination, students also can develop an attitude of openness toward other perspectives and a willingness to listen to others' points of view; that is, it helps students become open-mind, get rid of or reduce their biases against other ideas and cultures, and avoid dualistic thinking or seeing the world as black and white. Imagination is also seen as a cognitive tool to make the mental process of acquiring, storing, and retrieving historical knowledge easy. It facilitates students' cognitive information retrieving process by helping them better remember historical events, people and places. Teachers also mentioned the conditions for imagination to take place and the constraints on the use of imagination in history classroom. They said that an open-mind, a creative thinking, a willingness to consider other perspectives, an intention to get a better interpretation of the past, and a long time period are needed to be able to engage with history imaginatively. They saw standardized testing, time constraint and coverage-oriented curriculum as obstacles before practicing imagination in history classrooms.

Teachers' views of the place of theory in historical explanation were less elaborate and coherent than their views on the role of imagination. They also seemed to be confused about the difference between a theory and perspective or interpretation. Except for Teacher 6, teachers even could not name a specific historian or a historical theory in their explanations. Almost half of the teachers saw imagination and theory as intertwined with each other. According to their responses, theory is needed in historical explanation in order to answer big questions in history, to understand abstract concepts such as democracy, market economy, systems of government, to

understand complex historical processes, to explain causal relationship among events by providing answers for the "why" questions (i.e., theory helps explain the mechanism behind the process), to make one's explanation coherent (by providing a framework, by means of which information can be organized and related to each other), to provide focus on the historical topics being investigated, to simplify or generalize historical events and processes, and to get a different perspective or ideas on issues being discussed.

Differences between Academic History and School History

Teachers see differences between academic history as a discipline at universities and school history as a subject in secondary schools in terms of their orientations, their presentations, the settings or the context in which history is taught and learned, and the resources used. They view disciplinary history as more specialized, more depth-oriented, theoretical and research-oriented, i.e., aimed at enhancing historical scholarship by producing knowledge, more focused on professional standards and techniques, and more critical. On the other hand, they see school history as characterized by a coverage-oriented curriculum such as survey-like courses, more pedagogical and teaching-oriented (i.e., concerned with how to make history comprehensible for secondary school students whose developmental levels and learning styles need to be accommodated), and less critical. Teachers are generally suspicious of the textbooks, viewing it negatively in terms of their effects on history education. They see differences in both types of books in terms of the presentation of information, e.g., the perspective, owner of the perspective, style of presentation, quality of presentation, sources of information, treatment of controversial issues, external influences on publication, goals of publication, and the ways they are used. Likewise, they see differences between academic historians and history teachers in terms of their professional-orientations, pedagogical skills and practices, level of expertise, types of instruction,

treatment of subject matter, types of student population, the nature of relationship with students, and the working conditions.

Teachers' Pedagogical Orientations toward Teaching History

The first part of the research study examined teachers' conceptions' of history via basically epistemological and conceptual questions, as a result of which most teachers had difficulty articulating their thoughts clearly and coherently. When they were asked questions about their pedagogical orientations, they became quite eloquent and articulate, providing richer and more sophisticated answers to the questions. So, the change in the nature of question from epistemological to pedagogical and practical questions showed the difference in the substantive quality of their responses.

Teachers' goals for teaching history relate to both their conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations, so they serve as a bridge between the two distinctive components of the research study. Most of the teachers' goals are influenced and shaped by the concept of citizenship to a great extent. Since social studies educators and organizations alike have designated citizenship as the most important outcome of social studies education, it is safe to conclude that the participant teachers' goals for teaching history are influenced by professional organizations and teacher education programs. Even though all the teachers embraced and internalized the citizenship goal, there is a fundamental difference in their conceptions of citizenship. Teachers' images of the kind of a citizen they aim to raise vary from a patriotic and obedient to a reflective and critical citizen. Therefore, teachers' responses as to the citizenship goal can be arranged on a continuum ranging from the goal of passing cultural heritage on to students to the goal of encouraging students to critically examine that cultural heritage. While Teacher 3's and Teacher 10's responses best reflect the critical disciplinary approach, i.e., the

goal is to critically examine history and to produce critical citizens, Teacher 4's conception of citizenship best exemplifies the cultural heritage goal of raising patriotic and nationalist citizens. Teacher 3's race and ethnicity are found to shape his goals for teaching history. As an African-American teacher, Teacher 3 stressed the need to help students understand such sensitive issues as racism and slavery in history and set a social goal of helping students make a difference in the world.

Helping students understand the trajectory of the nation's development together with seeing patterns in history and extracting lessons from the past follows the citizenship goal as the teachers' most important second goal for teaching history. More than half of the teachers stressed that the history teacher should help students understand how the nation is formed and then develop in students an appreciation of the past that they inherited in order for them to gain a better understanding of how Americans came to be where they are today. Having students develop an awareness of the impact of the past on the present, on their lives, and on the future is another commonly stated goal. Students are expected to understand how the past influences the choices they make in their lives and to better estimate the impact of their choices on the future generation.

Almost all teachers also stated goals for developing students' cognitive and life-long skills beyond high school for them to be effective and successful individuals in society. In relation to the development of students' higher-order thinking skills, teachers stated such goals as helping students develop the ability to ask and answer questions by seeing human behavior from a broader perspective, helping them learn how to form and most importantly support their opinions, having them think about urgent issues facing society, enhancing their problem solving skills, developing their ability to make better and more effective choices in their lives, helping

them develop a questioning disposition toward the past and the present, helping them become adaptive, flexible, and self-regulatory individuals, helping them enhance their the procedural skills, and developing their communication skills.

Teachers' other goals for teaching history are having students confront controversial issues, developing a disposition of sensitiveness towards other cultures, making history relevant to students' lives, making history exciting and interesting, and preparing students for the test and for college. An interesting pattern emerged from the analysis of teachers' goals. When elucidating their goals, teachers referred to the state-mandated curriculum and high-stake standardized tests, viewing them as detrimental to the accomplishment of the most important goals of teaching history. For instance, rather than fostering students' higher-order thinking skills through in-depth treatment of important topics, teachers try to provide students with lots of disconnected factual information in order to both teach the coverage-oriented curriculum and help students become successful on standardized tests.

Teachers' Perspectives on Teaching and Learning

Teachers' conceptions of teaching are not characterized by a single conceptual framework. Rather, teachers draw on the elements of different theoretical models of teaching, be it the principles of the behaviorist orientation to teaching or a more recent constructivist approach to teaching. Still, four conceptions of teaching are identified on the basis of similarities and differences in teachers' responses. The variations in teachers' perspectives on teaching can be seen as a spectrum of qualitatively different viewpoints ranging from a view of teaching as "a teacher-centered and content-oriented" to a view of teaching as "a learner-centered and learning-oriented" on a continuum. These four conceptions of teaching are teaching as transmitting knowledge and skills, teaching as developing students' cognitive skills, teaching as facilitating

and guiding learning, and teaching as making learning relevant. The first conception of teaching emphasizes knowledge and the transmission of knowledge and skills from the teacher to students. Playing a central role in students' learning, the teacher helps them gain knowledge, skills, and values by passing them on to students through expert-novice relationship. The second conception of teaching aims to foster students' cognitive and critical thinking skills rather than the dissemination of information to students. The third conception of teaching sees the teacher as a facilitator or a guide in students' learning and thus places a great emphasis on helping students understand the subject and construct meaning from the instructional materials. Students are expected to play a more active role in their own learning, taking on more responsibilities as independent and self-regulated learners. The last conception focuses on learning and making learning tasks relevant to students' learning, so it is close to the learner-centered view of teaching.

As is the case for teachers' conceptions of teaching, teachers' conceptions of learning are informed by different learning theories, so a multiple view of learning characterizes most teachers' understanding of what learning means. But, rather than behaviorist framework, cognitive and constructivist models of learning come into play in shaping teachers' views of learning. Even though teachers' conceptions of learning shared more similarities than their conceptions of teaching, four conceptions of learning are identified from teachers' responses. Arranged from the behaviorist conception of learning to the constructivist view of learning, these conceptions are learning as the accumulation of knowledge, learning as the application of information and decision making, learning as a cognitive process of understanding concepts, and learning as a meaning making respectively. The first conception places emphasis on content and acquisition of knowledge by students under the guidance of the teacher without recognizing

differences in students' needs, interests, abilities, etc. The second conception also emphasizes the importance of acquiring knowledge but as one component of learning. Learning is seen more as an application of previously acquired knowledge in one's life such as using it to make decision. The third conception reflects a more complex view of learning that focuses on the cognitive elements involved in the learning process such as internal cognitive understanding of the concepts and processing of information to solve problems. As the most sophisticated conception of learning, the last conception places a coupled emphasis on the learner, learning, and learning process. Learners' previous knowledge and skills are deemed to be central to the process of learning which is viewed as making meaning out of curricular materials.

Images of an Effective Teacher and of an Excellent Student

It is the teacher and students that as main agents are most involved in the process of teaching and learning in secondary schools. So, teachers' images of an effective history teacher and of an excellent student were also elicited. Teachers identified quite a few characteristic features of an effective teacher who is supposed to have knowledge and skills in intellectual, affective, dispositional, disciplinary and pedagogical domains. Teachers placed the most emphasis on the affective features of the teacher. An effective history teacher first and foremost has to have certain dispositions toward teaching, the discipline of history, and students such as being enthusiastic about teaching and history, having interpersonal skills or knowing how to interact with students at secondary school level, caring about students' intellectual, social, and emotional developments, and being open-minded toward different viewpoints. Pedagogical knowledge and skills along with disciplinary knowledge follow affective and dispositional characteristics on the effective teacher's part. An effective history teacher is expected to have a strong command of his or her field, to motivate students to put effort to learn the subject, to help them become interested

in history, to make history relevant to students' lives, to successfully handle learning environment, and to use different teaching methods.

Affective and motivational dimensions of teaching and learning also come to the fore in teachers' images of an excellent student. Rather than cognitive abilities, intellectual capacities and achievements of students, teachers placed emphasis most on certain student dispositions and attitudes toward learning in general and toward history in particular. An excellent student is not necessarily the one who as a smart person earns high grades and excels in his or her academic achievement among his or her classmates. Rather, an excellent student is the one who first of all takes responsibility for his or her own learning by making a great effort to learn the subject, participates in class activities, has an intrinsic motivation to learn, is open-minded, inquisitive and respectful for others.

The Relationship between the Teacher and Students

In addition to teachers' images of an effective teacher and of an excellent student, teachers' views of the proper relationship between the teacher and students are examined in this research study. Recognizing the role of the relationship between the teacher and students in shaping the nature and quality of student learning, teachers explained their views of the proper relationship between the teacher and students by paying more attention to their roles and responsibilities than those of students. Even though the larger contextual factors such as the school setting do influence the kind of relationship that teachers build between themselves and their students, their responses did not touch on those institutional factors. From teachers' perspectives, the effective relationship is first and foremost built on mutual trust and respect. The teacher must not only care about students but also try to get to know each student individually through one-on-one interaction. The teacher also is expected to construct a health learning environment in which

students can feel safe, appreciated, recognized, and challenged. Students are also expected to do their best to help the teacher build a healthy relationship. They first of all need to know their roles as students and recognize the teacher's authority without crossing the line or without exploiting the teacher's caring attitude toward themselves.

Teachers quite briefly explained their roles in students' learning without elaborating much on their responses. Most teachers drew on their general pedagogical knowledge and used generic pedagogical terminology to articulate their roles in students' learning without considering their roles in relation to history as a school subject. Some teachers did consider the substantive features of history to elucidate their views. According to their responses, the history teacher is expected to effectively carry out his or her basic responsibility, teaching students the subject matter and helping them grow and develop intellectually, socially, and emotionally.

Views of Learning Environment

Teachers' images of the characteristic features of an effective learning environment conducive to learning incorporate both physical and social dimensions of learning environment. But, most teachers had a tendency to elucidate their images of the effective learning environment by considering a generic classroom environment, instead of looking at the learning environment within the context of history classrooms in the light of subject-specific pedagogical content knowledge. Those teachers such as Teacher 6 and Teacher 2 who looked at the learning environment in relation to history described some features of an ideal kind of learning environment difficult to realize in schools. Teachers' responses revealed that for a given learning environment to be effective in terms of facilitating students' learning and the teacher's instruction, it should have lots of visual stimulus to be physically appealing to secondary school

students, facilitate the interaction between the teacher and students, and be highly interactive, engaging, interesting, and safe to encourage students' participation.

Instructional Strategies

Teachers' repertoire of instructional strategies is found to be rich, ranging from lecture, recitation, worksheets, graphic organizers, games, jurisprudential teaching, to research projects, discussion, role-playing, theme-based instruction and the like. That is, teachers make use of almost all teaching methods available to teach the subject without sticking to any particular method. They stated that their teaching methods need to be varied in order to help students effectively engage with learning history and accommodate the differences in student learning styles and ability levels. Lecture emerged as the most frequently cited and employed teaching methods. While some teachers such as Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 4, and Teacher 10 practice lecture because they personally like it, other teachers such as Teacher 3, Teacher 5, and Teacher 12 employed lecture not because they like it but because they feel obliged to meet the external demands imposed on them such as coverage-oriented curriculum and standardized tests. The most common pattern in teachers' use of lecture is mixing lecturing up with other activities or teaching methods especially with questions aimed at maintaining students' attentions during lessons.

Discussion emerged as the second method in terms of its frequency of use by teachers in classroom. But, as opposed to lecture, almost all teachers had a positive attitude towards discussion in their classes. They like using discussion in that they think it not only helps students get involved with what is taught, understand the textbook topics better, develop their higher-order thinking and social skills, but also helps the teacher keep abreast of the current issues in the world, maintain their motivation to teach the subject, and get to know their students better, and

then relate the topics to students' lives. Teachers usually employ question-answer method to keep students' attentions alive and to check for their understanding of factual information. Teachers use recitation most when they are lecturing to students. Role playing or simulation is one of the most commonly used and liked instructional methods as well. Teachers think that role-playing is an effective method to help students become motivated, engaged, and involved. It also helps students develop an insight into other people's situations and understand the past better when used as an emphatic exercise. Cooperative learning or group work is also among most teachers' instructional strategies. Worksheets are found to be the least favorite teaching methods of the teachers save for Teacher 10 on account of the fact that it is considered as an ineffective method and a sort of busy work used to control and manage both instruction and student behaviors, instead of engaging students in meaningful learning. There are some other teaching methods that are used by a particular teacher. Teacher 12, Teacher 6, and Teacher 11 employ theme-based instruction, jurisprudential teaching, and writing assignment respectively.

Assessment Techniques

As is the case for teaching methods, teachers employ a variety of assessment techniques to assess and evaluate students' learning. Their assessment techniques range from informal observations of students' reactions to instruction to systematic and structured questions, discussions, formal multiple-choice tests, essays, projects, peer assessment, performance assessment and the like. They pick up a particular assessment technique depending on the type of student learning they want to assess. If it is the assessment of students' acquisition of facts, factual questions and multiple-choice tests are used. But, if students' deeper understanding of subject matter is assessed, essays and discussion are usually employed. Teachers also take into account the developmental levels of the students they teach when choosing assessment methods.

The most commonly employed assessment techniques cited by teachers are teacher-made or standardized multiple-choice tests, different types of projects, question-answer, and discussion respectively. They are followed by essay, performance assessment, peer assessment, cooperative learning group, role-playing, notebooks, homework, reflective writing, portfolio, and take-it-out-door.

Influences on Teachers' Teaching Styles

Colleagues, previous teachers, one's own teaching experience, types of students, college experience at teacher education programs, early school experiences at secondary level, one's conception of history, disciplinary preparation or training, politicians and educational decision makers, and educational reforms or policies are the factors that cited by teachers as having impact on the development of their teaching styles.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter focuses on the discussion of research findings along with the recommendations for history education.

Even though teachers' responses to the research questions revealed certain patterns and themes, i.e., commonalities in their answers, each teacher had a distinctive and praiseworthy characteristic. For instance, Teacher 1 is seriously concerned with how to build a positive relationship with students by means of interpersonal skills or individual connections with individual students in a healthy learning environment. His conception of teaching is shaped, to a great extent, by a nurturing approach to teaching. Even though Teacher 2, as a veteran teacher in his fifties, experienced a teacher-centered education throughout his early schooling including college, his views on different educational topics clearly indicated that he was trying to make a transition from teacher-centered to learner-centered instruction. His views seemed to challenge a common bias against the older teachers who are supposedly very traditional in terms of both their educational ideas and instructional practices. Recognizing the differences in students' learning styles, he repeatedly stressed that the teacher needs to employ a wide variety of teaching methods in order to accommodate different learning styles or study approaches. Like Teacher 1, he also placed a great emphasis on the role of interpersonal skills and safe environment in students' learning. At the end of interview, he said that a genuine interest in students' learning and a sincere dedication to educating young people could summarize his conception of teaching in particular and his life motto in general.

Teacher 3's conception of teaching and approach to teaching history were predominantly colored by emancipatory pedagogy and a critical orientation to teaching. Of twelve research

participants, he was by far the most critical of current educational practices and history teaching in secondary schools as reflected by his responses to almost every interview question posed. As an African-American teacher, he had the most questioning attitude toward history curriculum, textbooks, political leaders, educational policy makers and schooling in general. His race and ethnicity seemed to be instrumental in leading him to develop a critical or social re-constructionist perspective on secondary schooling.

Even though Teacher 4' overall approach to teaching was quite traditional as he himself overtly expressed, his responses showed that he had a great passion for history and was trying to transfer his enthusiasm to students by modeling how to be enthusiastic about history. Indeed, it is not only amazing but also praiseworthy to listen to him saying that he was jumping up and down, making a rap out of a poem in order to help students like studying history. Given the age of Teacher 4 who is in his late fifties, his robust effort to have students develop an interest in history by making history come alive is admirable and laudable. Teacher 5's honest attempt to elucidate his thoughts on epistemological questions through on-the-spot reflection is worthy of appreciation. Without insisting on his first answer to the question of historical imagination, he tried to elaborate on his initial response by thinking aloud about the role of imagination in historical knowledge production. In the meantime, he changed his perspective on historical imagination and gave a sharply differing answer by acknowledging its place in historical knowledge production. He was also the most articulate of all teachers in terms of explaining his view and use of discussion as a teaching method.

Teacher 6 had the most sophisticated conception of history and thus provided the most eloquent answers to epistemological questions without having difficulty articulating his thoughts about the characteristic features of historical knowledge and about the role of theory and

imagination in historical explanations. It was abundantly clear from his answers that he keeps track of developments in disciplinary history by reading a wide range of books on both analytical and philosophical history. It is my assumption that in the nation's secondary schools, one can find only a few social studies teachers who, like him, not only have a well developed conception of history but also have a substantial knowledge base in world history. Teacher 6 might even be a unique social studies teacher on account of the fact that he explicitly teaches students, especially students in AP classrooms, historiography at the beginning of every semester. Given that most faculty at colleges of education do not even teach pre-service social studies teachers about historiography or require them to take courses on historiography or analytical history, his awareness of the role of historiography in students' learning and his effort to make student understand analytical foundations of history are highly laudable. If students have some understanding of the canons of history or how historical knowledge is constructed, one can contend, they will be in a better position to develop a desired level of historical literacy or a sophisticated, deeper historical reasoning and thinking.

As a young teacher with four years of teaching experience, Teacher 7 emphasized the importance of knowing how to interact with students at secondary school level. Making a distinction between college teaching and school teaching in terms of instruction and the nature of the relationship between the teacher and students, she highlighted many roles and responsibilities of the history teacher.

Teacher 8 was the youngest teacher and had the least number of years of teaching experience. Still, as a novice teacher who seemed to be trying to establish her authority in the class, struggling with how to manage the classroom, she reported that she was trying to help students

develop their own voices and perspectives without allowing her biases or opinions to negatively affect students' learning and developments.

Of all the teachers, only Teacher 9's responses explicitly incorporated elements of a social constructivist conception of teaching. She saw her roles both as a teacher and as a learner in the teaching endeavor and emphasized the need to empower and validate learners by recognizing their perspectives and opinions. She stressed that the teacher and students need to come together to construct meaning out of curricular materials. Teacher 9 was also the one who seemed to enhance her understanding of the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the social constructivist approach to teaching as reflected by her explanations of the two prominent principles of cooperative learning along with that method's shortcoming in the real classroom life.

Teacher 10 provided the most comprehensive and eloquent explanations as to the goals for teaching history, stating more learning goals than the rest of the teachers. Her views of history teaching also reflected the critical disciplinary history perspective. This was especially the case for her citizenship goals that aimed to raise critical and reflective citizens who have a questioning attitude toward their country's history and attempt to make a positive difference in the world.

As the most seasoned social studies teacher, Teacher 11 seemed to make a great effort to make sure that students are learning the history curriculum. Her responses showed that she does not want to waste a single minute on anything irrelevant to topics being taught. Her effort to ensure every student is learning with integrity appeared to lead her to resort to those teaching methods that require one-on-one interaction between the teacher and students such as writing assignment.

Although Teacher 12 did not have a degree in history, she was able to see the main characteristic feature of history, history as an interpretative endeavor. Her lack of training in history did not prevent her from putting across articulate answers to conceptual research questions. Whereas even experienced teachers had trouble providing answers to epistemological questions, she did not experience the same level of difficulty to articulate her thoughts. She also gave quite well-developed and coherent responses when explaining her answers to different questions aimed at identifying her pedagogical orientation. Theme-based instruction that she employs to teach history also deserves appreciation since that approach to teaching can help students not only see the connection among different parts of the topics in history curriculum but also develop a holistic perspective on history, seeing the big picture.

In addition to having strengths in their different aspects of conceptions and approaches to teaching, teachers had some weaknesses, too. The most commonly found weakness in teachers' responses was their naïve conceptions of history, which were partial, incomplete, and fragmentary. Not only novice teachers but also experienced teachers had difficulty looking at history as a discipline in terms of its underlying epistemological and conceptual underpinning. When explaining the characteristic features of history as a discipline, more than half of the teachers did not touch on the interpretative nature of historical knowledge. Instead of seeing the whole relationship between the different parts of the process of historical knowledge construction, i.e., the historian, the past, the recorded past, and the interplay among them, most teachers' attention focused on the outcome of historical scholarship. Their views of history did not reflect an understanding of the syntactic dimension of the subject matter knowledge with its concepts, principles, and processes. So, what is apparently missing in teachers' conceptions of history is a disciplinary understanding of the subject.

However, in order to teach history effectively, social studies teachers need to have a satisfactory understanding of the subject they are teaching, including its theoretical and conceptual foundations. A number of conceptual and empirical research studies, especially Schulman's pioneer works, have indicated that one of the prerequisites for effective teaching is pedagogical content knowledge that demands teachers to have a good understanding of the subject matter knowledge with its substantive and syntactic features. If the efforts aimed at improving the quality of teaching at the tertiary level are to be successfully realized, they should be grounded in disciplinary communities (Shulman, 1993). Drawing attention to the role of syntactic subject matter knowledge in teaching effectively, Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman (1989) contended:

> Novice teachers who lack knowledge of the syntactic structures of the subject matter fail to incorporate that aspect of the discipline in their curriculum. We believe that they consequently run the risk of misrepresenting the subject matters they teach…. Teachers who do not understand the role played by inquiry in their disciplines are not capable of adequately representing and, therefore, teaching that subject matter to their students.

So, it is important that teachers understand the syntactic structures of the subject along with its major theoretical frameworks to teach their subjects effectively. Unfortunately, teachers in this study generally did not see the relevancy of theory to their teaching. There is a clue in teachers' responses which might explain some of the reasons for their neglect of theoretical foundations of the subject they are teaching. Their overt comments on epistemological questions implied that because they are not a researcher but a teacher who is dealing with the practical world rather than the theoretical one, there is not much value in bothering themselves with epistemological and theoretical questions. That's why some teachers did not seem to know even the well-known theories in social sciences. For instance, when I asked Teacher 1 to put across his perspective on the role of theory in historical explanation, he said, "Give me an example of a

theory that you are talking about." To his request, I replied, "For example, Marx's theory." Interrupting me, he said, "Survival of the fittest?" And I responded in turn by saying, "No, it is Darwin's theory or some social Darwinists' theory. Marx's is historical materialism. He says the motor of change in history is the role of production or relations of production."

There is another clue in the teacher's response that suggests one of the reasons why a clearly discernable indifferent attitude characterized the teacher's view of theories in the discipline of history. When I finished interviewing Teacher 1, I asked him, "Is there anything we haven't talked about that you would like to add? Having stated that I pretty much covered it, he said, "You are getting a PhD. You are going to be a researcher, right?" I said, "Yes." He replied, "Okay. Do me a favor," and then made the following comments:

> So, be a researcher. But, keep it practical. Keep it realistic. Don't, don't create a new term or something that is done every day and everybody knows what is in any way. Don't make a model for somebody to understand the cognitive function of this thing that happens in the classroom. I [think] that's crap. It does no good. They have us read this stuff all the time and then, you know, what I do? I purposely forget it because it makes no change. It does not help me. If you want to help history teachers, keep it practical. Keep it real. I am in yet to have a researcher to tell me for this type of kid, here is a method that works, you know. Go into a classroom and do an activity, [as a result] this kid is going to love history. Show me a researcher that can do that and I will buy his book and read it. But, don't give me a model. Don't give me a graphic organizer with lines, with arrows to terms, with things that I have already known about. You know what I am talking about. Don't you? I do not want any more books like that because, excuse me my friend, they are bullshit. They are not good. They do me no good. They don't help teaching. And I don't want to mean to be disrespectful, but I love doing this. It is important and we need research. But we don't need models and terms [emphasis], you know. If you want to fix education, it is not about a model. You know, so-called fix education. Personally, I don't think there is anything that is much wrong with education. I think politicians just don't know how to view it, you know. You can't fix [it] with the standardized multiple-choice tests. You can't fix it by fixing your graduation rate. That's stupid. It's politics. It is not education.

As is clear from his response, Teacher 1 was very frustrated and even seemed to be offended by my conceptual and epistemological questions. Needless to say, one of the consequences of the teacher's overt hostile attitude toward theory is his failure to be familiar with the most renowned

theories that even a high school student is supposed to know. Though this teacher's perspective cannot be generalized, it might shed some light on the failure of almost every innovative reform efforts aimed at enhancing the quality of teaching and learning by making a change in teachers' instructional practices. It is the teacher's mentality or pre-convinced ideas and beliefs that prevent him or her from being willing to try putting educational reforms into practice. The fact that Teacher 1 purposely forgets what he is asked to do by reformers might be the case for many teachers. So, the above quotation also supports the earlier research findings that teachers' beliefs, conceptions or mental maps should be taken into account in any curricular or instructional reform initiatives if they are to make a difference in how school subjects are taught and learned (McNeil, 1988; Thornton, 1991).

As a matter of fact, serving as tools of resistance, theories provide teachers with different perspectives, by means of which they can both resist "institutional constraints on their teaching," and the "anti-intellectual climate of school staffrooms" (Wong et al., 2006). Therefore, since knowledge keeps growing in this information age, "teachers need to be able to evaluate new theories and explanations on the basis of the evidence" (Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989, p. 30). As Teacher 1 himself argued that history is everywhere and alive, one just needs to learn how to see it, theoretical frameworks are relevant to teaching and learning if one knows how to see their relevance. Teacher 1 fails to see their relevancy to teaching not only because of his own biases against theories of different sorts including pedagogical ones, but also because of the way these educational theories and models are presented. It is jargon and abstract terms that make it difficult for teachers to understand a given model in its entirety and to see its relevance to teaching. Therefore, some of Teacher 1's points make sense and needs attention.

Unfortunately, although theories or conceptual frameworks in education are supposedly aimed at enhancing teachers' and students' understanding of different dimensions of teaching and learning, they are not easily comprehensible to practicing classroom teachers on account of their abstract nature. So, in order to make a positive change in teachers' views of any models of teaching and learning, researchers should not coin new terms or very abstract concepts to explain their proposed frameworks. This does not mean that theoretical models are to be in simple forms. Rather, it means jargon and unnecessarily abstract terms are not to be employed to explain what that model is about. It should be kept in mind that the foremost aim of the models is to help people visualize what cannot be seen or experienced directly and to provide them with a means of facilitating their understanding of the world, not making it difficult for them to comprehend their world (Dorin, Demmin & Gabel, 1990; Ryder, 2005). It is my speculation that some researchers coin new terms just for the sake of making their models appear original or different from the rest so that people or scholars, not teachers, are going to be interested in what they introduce to what has increasingly come to be called the educational market. Not surprisingly, the majority of the models of teaching and learning fail to penetrate into real classroom settings, remaining mainly in academia. Not only experienced in-service teachers but also student teachers are found to view teacher education programs as highly theoretical, abstract, and disconnected from real classroom settings (Barone et al., 1996; Bryan & Abell, 1999).

Even though teachers did not see the relevancy of theory to their profession, teaching, and their professional development, they tended to look at historical imagination positively, recognizing its role in helping students develop historical thinking. For this reason, of all epistemological questions, they gave the most elaborate and coherent answers to the question of the role of imagination in historical knowledge production, giving concrete examples as to how

making use of historical imagination or empathy can benefit student learning in history. Some respondents used empathy and imagination interchangeably to explain their perspectives. There are quite a few research studies on historical empathy. It is relevant to give an overview of the literature on this important topic.

Educational researchers and disciplinary historians with divergent and convergent perspectives discussed and studied the notion of historical empathy at theoretical and empirical levels. First of all, definitional problems with regard to the term empathy come to the fore in the research literature. Depending on where the term is used, it takes on quite different meanings. Both the everyday language and the scholarly literature attach distinct meanings to empathy, thereby generating confusion and misunderstanding about the term. Because empathy is assumed to purport the affective domain of human skills in people's everyday use, so to speak in popular culture, Davis argued (2001), "too commonly, people misunderstand historical empathy as sympathy or kind of appreciative sentiment. This understanding of empathy means developing a positive attitude or feeling toward an individual, event, or situation."

Even within the scholarly community, the term is assigned diverse meanings by different disciplines. For instance, in the field of psychology empathy is defined in seventeen separate ways by psychologists (Foster, 2001, p.167). Researchers discussed whether the meanings that the psychologist assigns to empathy can be applicable to the study of history. Shelmit (1987) argued that the psychologist's assigned meaning to the term empathy are of limited use in the study of history in that there is a conceptual difference between these two researchers' intended use of the term (p.44). While the historian is concerned with understanding the past or the distance between the past and present, and thus unable to confer with historical individuals in the present, the psychologist is concerned with the present world, and thus able to establish a

reciprocal context for a contemporary relationship (Foster, 2001; Knight, 1989; Shelmit, 1987). But, with respect to historical research, empathy generally refers to the combination of intellectual and imaginative capacity (Ashby & Lee 1987; Foster, 2001). The term sometimes is used as a synonym to perspective-taking. While British researchers have opted to use the notion of historical empathy, American researchers have usually used perspective-taking (Barton, 1996). Because of the lack of consensus on scholars' parts concerning the definition and theoretical constructs of the term, historical empathy has remained an ambiguous, problematic, and contentious term so far. (Ashby & Lee 1987; Downey 1995; Foster, 2001; Jenkins 1991; Knight 1989; Portal 1987; Shemilt 1987; Yeager & Foster 1998).

But, in order to facilitate scholarly communications among themselves, scholarly have recently attempted to clarify the definition of empathy. Educational scholars together with historians have engaged in concerted discussions about both the nature and the meaning of historical empathy in recent years. Making connection between historical empathy and historical understanding, Lee and Ashby (2001) defined the term as "the ability to see and entertain as conditionally appropriate connections between intentions, circumstances, and actions, and to see how any particular perspective would actually have affected actions in particular circumstances." They continued to argue:

> Historical understanding does not come from feeling what people in past felt. On the other hand, it comes from knowing how people saw things, knowing what they tried to do, and knowing that they felt the appropriate feelings…. Empathy as historical understanding demands hard thinking on the basis of evidence. It requires students to use historical knowledge in order to explain actions and institutions…. It means entertaining complex ideas and seeing how they shape views of historical circumstances and goals, even when such ideas and goals may be very different from our own. (p.25)

Estimating the argument against their definition of the term, Lee and Ashby (2001) stressed the possibility of entertaining purposes and beliefs held by people in the past without accepting

them. They further emphasized the necessity of the ability to understand actions and institutions in terms of reasons, beliefs, and values. On the other hand, Knight (1989) contended that the term empathy is a source of confusion to classroom teachers who tended to confuse empathy with sympathy. According to Barton (1996), historical empathy is the skill to recognize how people in the past viewed their circumstances, evaluated their opinions, made decisions, and how their perceptions were shaped by their values, beliefs, and attitudes. Likewise, Downey (1995), who preferred the term perspective-taking to the term historical empathy, defines the term as the ability to understand historical characters' frames of reference—on the basis of historical facts and events—without trying to identify or sympathize with their feelings.

Aware of the context's role in giving meaning to empathy, Lee (2002) pointed out that the term together with change is identified as a second-order, structural, and metahistorical concept in the UK, where "empathy tends to be used to mean the explanation either of action itself, or of the ideas, beliefs and values that lie behind actions and social institutions." Lee also put forward the idea that "concepts like change and empathy can be treated as amalgams of ideas about what happened in the past, theories about how things happen, and structural understandings of the concepts of change and explanation." VanSledright (2001) tried to explain historical empathy in terms of what it is not. "Empathy does not take the form of a simple and temporary propensity "to feel like" or "walk in the shoes of" those who lived before us "as though they were us." Rather historical empathy demands considerable thoughtful effort" (p.55). Empathy has found its way into the National Standards for History, which is said to have represented the work of more than thirty professional organizations and scores of history teachers from across the nation. Empathy is explained within historical comprehension in these standards which define empathy as the ability to learn to judge the past on its own terms. The emphasis is put on understanding

the historical agents' purposes, beliefs, intentions, values, and feelings within historical contexts. Using perspective-taking instead of empathy, Historical Thinking Standard 2 defined the notion of historical empathy:

> The ability to describe the past through the eyes and experiences of those who were there, as revealed through their literature, art, artifacts, and the like…. to consider multiple perspectives in the records of human experience…. to read historical narratives imaginatively, taking into account the historical context in which the event unfolded. (National Center for History in the Schools, 1996)

Researchers commonly attempt to explain the nature of historical empathy within the context of historical inquiry and historical understanding. That is, their frames of reference as regards historical empathy seem to be based on a disciplinary history orientation. Foster (2001) claimed that historical empathy lies at the core of historical inquiry. Similarly, Davis (2001) argued:

> Empathy constitutes one of the essential elements of historical thinking and rigorous historical inquiry that result in deepened understanding within context. For the most part, it is intellectual in nature, but certainly it may include emotional dimensions. It arises or develops from the active engagement in thinking about particular people, events, and situations in their contexts, and from wonderment about reasonable and possible meanings within, in a time that no one can really know. Frequently, empathy springs from considerations of more than one, even several different, points of view or perspectives. Even though it is imaginative, it is always based upon available evidence. (p.3)

Stating that historical empathy should not be based simply on exercises in imagination, over-identification, or sympathy, Yeager and Foster (1998) argued that helping students develop historical empathy demands a historical method composed of four interrelated phases: the introduction of a historical event needing the analysis of human action; an understanding of historical context and chronology; the analysis of various historical evidence and viewpoints; and the construction of a narrative framework. In his subsequent attempt to characterize the qualities of historical empathy, Foster (1999) stated that historical empathy means paying attention to the consequences of actions done in the past through the benefit of hindsight,

avoiding presentism –the act of viewing the past through the lens of the present, and appreciating the complexity of human action and achievement. Foster (2001) further synthesized research studies on historical empathy. Taking into account the nature, processes, and purposes of disciplinary history and historical inquiry within the context of secondary school classrooms, he identified six characteristics or components of historical empathy in terms of what empathy involves or does not involve. Historical empathy:

- primarily does not involve imagination, identification, or sympathy,
- involves understanding people's actions in the past,
- involves a though appreciation of historical context,
- demands multiple forms of evidence and perspective,
- requires students to examine their own perspectives,
- encourages well-grounded but tentative conclusions. (p.169-175)

What does it take to engage in historical empathy? First of all, students must know more than a fewer historical facts, concepts, and interpretations to engage in historical thinking and empathy (Davis, 2001). Likewise, in order for students to successfully practice and develop historical empathy, they must (a) have access to authentic historical sources, engage in critical examination of those sources, understand and interpret the nature of historical conclusions (Riley, 1998); (b) ensure a balance of imaginative speculation and methodical investigation (Portal, 1987); (c) relive the thoughts of past individuals through heuristic of contextualization (Lee, 2004); (d) "examine, appreciate, and understand the perspectives of people in the past and to render them intelligible to contemporary minds" (Foster, 2001); (e) make reasoned evidential reconstruction in addition to taking a position to reconstruct a set of beliefs, values, goals, and attendant feelings that historical agents had (Ashby & Lee, 2001); and (f) engage in sustained effort and thoughtful strategy to "suspend their present sensibilities and place themselves in past people's shoes, to understand the otherwise strange and inexplicable events of the past on their own terms and not judge using the contemporary criteria" (Ashby & Lee, 2001). Therefore,

teaching how to engage in historical empathy is a challenging and time consuming activity. Yeager and Doppen (2001) stated that the teacher's preparation of such a unit involves many hours in the selection of materials and the development of learning activities. And since the teaching of the unit takes a long time, teachers will be faced with a decision as to depth versus coverage.

The empathic engagement with the past is a difficult task to accomplish as well. According to Downey (1995), perspective construction is one of the most difficult tasks of historical thinking because it involves trying to bracket one's own attitudes and world views in order to understand those of the past without falling prey to presentism. That is one of the reasons why it is problematic to develop empathy in children who do not have the same knowledge, skills, and experience that historians possess. Likewise, Ashby and Lee (1987) pointed out:

> Entertaining the beliefs and goals, and values of other people or of other societies is a difficult intellectual achievement. It is difficult because it demands holding in mind whole structures of ideas that are not one's own, and with which one may profoundly disagree. And not just holding them in mind as inert knowledge, but being able to work with them in order to explain and understand what people did in the past. All of this is hard because it requires a high level of thinking. (p.63)

Teachers' views of empathy also seem to make it difficult to practice empathy in classrooms. Most practicing school history teachers as well as recently prepared teachers have little personal and direct experience with serious historical thinking tasks (Davis, 2001). Some teachers are said to have reported that they never engaged in such tasks with historical sources in any of their undergraduate history courses. Teachers also may see the encouragement to teach historical perspective-taking as another whimsical innovation like others about which they hear almost every year (Davis, 2001, p.11).

Concerned with how to translate historical empathy's constructs into meaningful classroom practices, Foster (2001) offered valuable suggestions for teachers of history to set the stage for empathic understandings on students' parts. Teachers are expected to:

- focus on a puzzling and paradoxical situation in the past while practicing empathy exercise in order to help students distinguish the past period and to initiate curiosity among students,
- provide students with some knowledge of historical context and chronology before delving deeply into the selected topic of study,
- introduce a wide range of primary and secondary sources to students, depending on the cognitive and developmental levels of students,
- encourage students to ask critical questions of sources to help them avoid the risks of taking any sources at face value,
- scaffold and build up students' learning so as to help them develop dispositions to ask more complex and thought-provoking questions,
- urge students to ask questions of themselves when examining historical documents,
- encourage students to identify sources and give reasons why the sources they selected are most useful in shedding light on the past events,
- help students be wary of the tentativeness of their final conclusions and interpretations with which others might disagree,
- recognize that engaging students in meaningful empathy inquiry takes substantial classroom time, energy, effort, and resources,
- and finally, understand that the selection of proper materials, asking probing questions, stimulating thoughtful investigation, leading while-class discussion, and maintaining the momentum of inquiry are central to the successful implementation of historical empathy exercises in classrooms. (p. 175-178)

All in all, educational scholars jointly emphasized the centrality of empathy to history teaching and learning. Empathy plays a central role in making sense of the remote past by enabling one to transform the strange and unfathomable to the recognizable and comprehensible, and thereby construct meaning out of the past (Shemilt, 1987). On the basis of their research, Ashby and Lee (1987) concluded that the acquisition of a disposition to empathize and to understand why empathy matters is perhaps the most important task in the teaching of history. Yeager and Foster (1998) also asserted that the ability to take the perspectives of others is one of the important goals of teaching history to students.

History teachers' subject matter knowledge base should encompass not only historical empathy but also other historical concepts and conceptual frameworks. Teachers need to know the nature of history to effectively plan, implement and assess their instructional activities. The importance of an adequate understanding of the nature of a given discipline on teachers' part in the teaching and learning process has been recognized in science education. This recognition manifests itself in the efforts to help science teachers and students develop a sophisticated understanding of the nature of science which is deemed to be a major goal in science education and a central component of scientific literacy by science education organizations and science educators who stress the role that a nuanced understanding of the nature of science plays in fostering higher levels of scientific literacy (AAAS, 1993; Bell, Lederman, & Abd-El-Khalick, 2000; Bybee, 1997; NRC, 1996). For this reason, science teachers are expected to be cognizant of varying positions on the nature of science along with accompanying conceptual frameworks with their methods, goals and theories (Loving, 1997).

The same emphasis on the importance of the nature of subject matter has not been realized in history education yet. However, as Lee (1983) argues, drawing on the insights historical frameworks provide for studying the past is crucial not only to develop a rational way of teaching history but also to adequately address the fundamental issues in history education. Wineburg and Wilson (1991) stress that if the goals for teaching history are to be realized, it is indispensable for teachers of history to understand the nature of the discipline. Likewise, Seixas (2002) stresses that being familiar with the different ways through which the past is made accessible, meaningful, and comprehensible is a must for advancing historical consciousness at schools and confronting the complexity of the past. Unless models in the discipline of history are identified and used in history teaching and learning, any framework for exploring students'

thoughts about history is destined to remain murky (Seixas, 2001, p. 546). Alternative forms of history need not be viewed as burdensome or overwhelming for students to cope with, Pomson and Hoz (1998) state, but may be considered as "cognitive agents fielding the rival attentions of different views of the past." For this reason, teachers need to understand how various methodologies of history have impacted history education (Appleby et al., 1994). To that end, it is important that a course on historiography be incorporated to teacher education programs, in social studies education departments, so that pre-service social studies teachers can have an opportunity to read, discuss, reflect on, modify, and change their understanding of history on the basis of the different approaches to interpreting the past. Since history comprises the biggest part of secondary social studies curriculum, an understanding of how different schools of thought construct historical explanations should constitute an important component of social studies teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. Thus, taking a course on historiography should be one of the prerequisites in certifying teachers to teach history in secondary schools.

Being aware of how historians of different historical orientations construct differing interpretations of the past is one of the preconditions for history teachers to understand the complexity of the past and set the stage for their students to develop an increasingly complex and fine-grained understanding of the past events, people, institutions and processes. If social studies teachers become familiar with, recognize, and appreciate the nature of history and the multiplicity of historical explanations, they can help students not only avoid accepting any claim at face value but also come up with a deeper and more nuanced understanding of the past.

Unfortunately, many social studies educators are even not well acquainted with different historical orientations to the past. One of the most important reasons why many social studies educators and teachers are reluctant to benefit from disciplinary history or historiography is that

the majority of them do not have training in disciplinary history and have little understanding of how professional historian engage in historical research. In a review of research on history teaching, Wilson (2001) found that many social studies teachers lacked content knowledge and less than 50% had a major or minor in history. Drawing attention to the same point, McDiarmid and Vinten-Johansen (2000, p.157) stated, "Few teacher educators are engaged in scholarly research in any discipline and may have little understanding of what historians and social scientists do as scholars." Also, a lot of teacher educators continue to teach outside their major expertise and many of them did not take a satisfactory number of college level history courses (VanSledright, 1998). What is more, they are suspicious of the suggestions made by historians on history education because of their biases against the idea of teaching history as a separate school subject, instead of teaching it as one of the strands of social studies which some historians call a contrived school subject that lacks a disciplinary understanding (Seixas, 2001). Stearns (1998) also argued, "Social studies professionals vary, but many are quite hostile to any of the major history goals, which compounds real learning dilemmas for students and teachers alike."

Because social studies educators are the ones who are training pre-service teachers to teach history, making a change in the quality of history teaching in schools inevitably necessitates addressing their ungrounded negative attitude toward a disciplinary approach to teaching history. To that end, I will center my argument on Evans's works and ideas for two main reasons. First, of all research studies, the most relevant research study to the present study is Evans's studies on teachers' conceptions of history that have had a great impact on the way other social studies educators approach to study history teachers. To illustrate, Brophy and VanSledright (1997) presented their research on the teaching and learning of U.S. history in three fifth grade teachers' classrooms by employing Evans's typology. Second, Evans is the most vociferous opponent of a

disciplinary approach to teaching history. He recently published (2004) a book on this issue, which is titled *Social studies wars: What should we teach the children?*

In successive exploratory studies, Evans (1988, 1989) identified five categories of teachers as *storyteller, scientific historian, relativist/reformer, cosmic philosopher,* and *eclectic* in terms of their conceptions of history and beliefs about the purposes of history instruction. When his typology of social studies teachers is subjected to critical scrutiny in the light of the knowledge base on historiography, it is revealed as vague and in need of clarification. For instance, two categories, *scientific historian* and *cosmic philosopher*, are basically the same in terms of their definitions of how historians approach the past. *Scientific* or positivist historians like Marxists and psycho-historians do search for general laws and patterns in history –as a *cosmic philosopher* does- in addition to placing a doubled emphasis on the importance of a rigorous research methodology in investigating the past. In other words, Evans described teachers' conceptions of history by inappropriately employing the concept of scientific historian. If one is describing his categories by using what is intrinsically an historical concept, it is unacceptable, from a scholarly point of view, for him or her to use that concept without taking into account its purported meaning and implications in the discipline of history.

Evans (1988) made comments on the status of history in schools with a brief review of literature. He said, "confusion over purpose" is at the heart of the crisis in the teaching of history." He attributed the state of crisis in history teaching to the historians who he thinks have failed to come to terms with the meaning and purposes of teaching history in schools. But, the responsibility for setting the stage for exemplary history teaching first and foremost falls on the shoulders not of historians but of social studies educators. Secondly, the miscellaneous reasons historians offer for studying history is not confusion over purpose but the reflection of the

multiplicity of perspectives. Thirdly and equally importantly, the question over purpose is open-ended and value-laden in nature, so it makes sense to expect historians of different philosophical, ideological, and disciplinary orientations to offer divergent responses to this question. What is more, there is a value in the multiplicity of different answers to the question of why study history. As Tosh (2002) argues, instead of "assimilating" those different perspectives on the purpose for studying history, recognizing and "accommodating" them can help improve history education at all levels from primary to graduate school.

There must be, therefore, other reasons why history is in a state of crisis. One important reason is the fact that social studies teachers themselves are not prepared well in the discipline of history, so one might expect that they will most probably fail to help students develop "history's habits of mind" such as the acquisition and practice of historical insights, perspectives, understanding, and thoughtful judgment beyond more generic skills of critical thinking (NCHE, 2002). Actually, this is the case in reality. According to Ingersoll's study based on the data from NCES's Schools and Staffing Survey in 1990-1991, 53.9 percent of students were enrolled in history classes taught by a teacher who did not have at least a minor in the field (in Ravitch, 2000, p. 144). Other studies also confirmed this finding that a majority of social studies teachers do not have either a major or minor in history (Wilson, 2001).

If social studies teachers are not able to satisfactorily live up to what is expected of them as teachers or fall short of performing their roles and responsibilities in teaching history, we need to look at their academic experiences in preservice teacher education programs. The same logical reasoning about the relationship between teacher knowledge and student learning (i.e., the lack of teacher knowledge in history and its effects on student academic achievement) applies to teacher educators as well. That is to say, if teacher educators do not have expertise or a strong

knowledge base in the content of history and lack experiences in practicing the methods of history, they are unlikely to prepare would-be teachers to confidently meet the demands and challenges of history teaching in the twenty-first century. We have more formidable problems in teacher education programs than schools. What exaggerates the problem as to the embarrassing state of history teaching is the fact that not disciplinary scholarship but professional practice characterizes teaching methods courses in preservice programs (McDiarmid & Vinten-Johansen, 2000). This shortcoming sheds some light on the reasons for poor history teaching in secondary schools.

It is essential, therefore, to bring a disciplinary approach to teaching to bear on history education in teacher education programs. Gardner and Dyson (1994) stressed that providing students with the disciplinary tools are the key to quality education and urged educators not to throw away the "disciplinary baby" with the "subject matter" bathwater. Disagreeing with the critics whose critiques lead educators to see the discipline as a significant part of the problem in schools today, they (1994) further argued:

> We maintain that the scholarly disciplines represent the formidable achievements of talented human beings, toiling over the centuries, to approach and explain issues of enduring importance. Shorn of disciplinary knowledge, human beings are quickly reduced to the level of ignorant children.

Furthermore, teaching for understanding requires, Mansilla and Gardner (1997) argued, an "understanding of the disciplinary modes of thinking embodied in the methods by which knowledge is constructed, the forms in which knowledge is made public, and the purposes that drive inquiry in the domain."

I will give a couple more specific examples to illustrate how an inadequate understanding of disciplinary history distorts one' study of history teachers. Evans (1989) argued that teachers with the scientific historian's perspective resemble the analytical positivist philosophy of history.

He said, “For the most part, they see no pattern in history” but share an agreement with the idea of progress. In contrast to Evans’s assumptions which are not adequately informed by historiography, scientific historians do see patterns in history as reflected by Marxist historians’ and psychohistorians’ attempt to show patterns in the modes of production and psychological forces over time respectively. What is more, the above quote suffers from an internal contradiction. If these teachers shared agreement with the idea of progress, this indirectly means that they see patterns in history in that progress in history, if any, is a reflection of a pattern (the most commonly seen patterns in history are progress and decline). Likewise, Evans said each relativist historian sees patterns in history. That is not the case. In contrast, many relativist historians are suspicious of the possibility of attaining objective historical knowledge, let alone patterns. As is the case in his previous article, Evans (1989) repeated, at the beginning of this article, the same assertion that “the current revival of concern is failing to address many of the underlying questions which have kept the teaching of history in a perpetual state of crisis.” But, he did not bother to clarify or elucidate how the concern with a disciplinary approach fails to address key questions in history education.

Drawing attention to the threat posed by the National Commission on Social Studies in the School to the existence of social studies as a school subject (a call for disintegrating the strands of social studies by establishing history and geography), Evans (1990) argued that this call met with a great hostility by social studies educators including himself. However, this negative reaction is not informed by reasoned judgments. As I explained in the previous section, nationally and internationally recognized scholars have articulated the value of a disciplinary approach with well-grounded arguments which have not been refuted or challenged by the opposite camp yet. Evans continued to disregard disciplinary approach by saying, “The report

does little to promote the goal of reflective teaching and the reflective testing of belief". But his claim and any claim like this against teaching history in a disciplinary way in schools will remain as a rhetorical argument unless history is taught as such to students of different socio-economic backgrounds and ability levels in a variety of settings and research findings are obtained on its status. For this reason, those social studies educators who are opponents of a disciplinary-based orientation to teaching history as a separate school subject engage in a straw-man argument, as Evans did.

If one evaluates Evans's article by employing what is called "between-the-line reading," it becomes quite clear that while Evans overtly advocates a social studies approach, his own findings and arguments implicitly favor a disciplinary approach. Put it differently, his own discourse refutes his own argument against teaching history via a disciplinary-based approach. What he vaguely defines and describes as the scientific historian is the reflection of the disciplinary practice of history. In reference to the teacher described as a scientific historian, Evans (1990) came to the conclusion that his students had the clearest notions and most positive perceptions of history, and reported becoming more critical, more analytical by asking questions about their world. To characterize the overall course, Evans stated, "The course seems a liberating experience…. It would be wonderful if more teachers could emulate such teaching." Given these findings and suggestions, Evans himself inadvertently supports the notion of history teaching via a disciplinary-based approach.

Social studies educators need to emulate other scholars in science education and to pay attention to their findings in order to get rid of their unsubstantiated disposition toward history. Research on science education (Matthews, 1994, 1998) has found that if teachers do not have a clear and sophisticated understanding of the nature of science, their students are unlikely to

develop the sort of understandings scientific literacy demands. The same argument applies to every school subject, including history. For students to develop higher levels of literacy and deep interest in any school subjects, a complex understanding of the nature of the discipline on the teachers' parts is needed (Bybee, 1997; King, 1991; Lederman, 1992). The curricular decisions that teachers make can be effective in enhancing a deeper student engagement with the subject if they adequately understand the nature of a knowledge domain that they teach (Matthews, 1994). For these reasons, the kinds of understanding social studies teachers hold about the nature of history should be investigated further to measure their conceptual grasp of history as a discipline. Furthermore, because teachers' conceptions are not static but dynamic in nature and thus subject to change over time, we need to document teachers' conceptions of history periodically to avoid outmoded information that may be misleading. Doing so is likely to enrich our current understanding of history teachers' conceptions of the nature of history. An accumulated knowledge base on teacher conceptions, e.g., strengths, weaknesses, misunderstandings, misconceptions, etc., can also help bring about the development of pedagogically meaningful approaches in teacher education departments for setting proper conditions that facilitate a clear understanding of the nature of history on pre-service teachers' parts.

Another important issue that came to the fore in this research study is the influence of contextual factors on teachers' pedagogical orientations. Almost every teacher made negative comments on the state-mandated standardized tests in terms of their effects on social studies curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Of all teachers, Teacher 10, and Teacher 12 seem to be most negatively affected by state-mandated curriculum and standardized tests. These and other teachers' overt statements indicated that standardized testing "steers the curriculum development in the classroom," forces teachers to leave out and select topics depending on whether students'

knowledge of those topics is tested by standardized tests. Such practices, as Madaus (1988) asserted, influences or determines what is taught, how it is taught, what is learned and how it is learned (p.83). So, this study confirms the previous research findings that there is a strong relationship between state testing and teachers' thinking and practices (Brown, 1992; Madaus, 1988; Mathison, 2001; McNeil, 2000). That is one of the reasons why even though Teacher 10's conception of teaching is learner-centered, her approach to teaching is teacher-centered. Taking the realities of being a teacher, she stated that her first and most important goal is to help students pass standardized tests, so testing was the overall driving force behind her teaching. This may explain some of the reasons why a lot of teachers with more sophisticated conceptions of teaching employ lower level approaches to teaching as well (Trigwell et al, 1996). Likewise, although Teacher 12 hates lecturing, she has to employ it frequently in order to help students prepare for standardized tests. As Kurfman (1991) asserted, it is clear that teachers' concern with test results lead them to realign the curriculum according to what is measured by tests and to modify instructional practices to address the test's objectives and test-taking skills (p.317).

The use of standardized tests needs to be evaluated from a broader perspective within the larger context of schooling in order to make judgments about whether they play an appropriate role in the process of teaching and learning. In other words, to see the big picture, the use of testing needs to be questioned by considering the purposes of education and the emergence and development of standardized tests. The purposes of schooling should not be limited to the development of cognitive abilities and achievements, but encompass the development of higher-order thinking skills and the promotion of affective characteristics on students' part such as attitudes, interest, and motivation. Despite the fact that both cognitive and affective growth of students are emphasized as important outcomes of the schooling process, in practice the former

goal is far more valued at the expense of the latter one. Indeed, as Messick (1988) argued, affective characteristics are rarely assessed in school testing (p.109). This is especially the case for social studies education. Alleman and Brophy (1999) pointed out that typical social studies assessments fail to measure the attainment of major social studies understanding, appreciations, life applications, and higher order thinking (p.335).

In contrast to pedagogic and democratic concerns, standardized tests came into existence as a result of capitalistic interests and considerations. The concern about the formation of a world-class school system that can be linked to increased international economic production and prominence is the driving incentive behind the standardized educational reform movement and testing (Messick, 1988; Rudman; 1987). The interest in high stakes testing springs from a broad corporate strategy to control both the content and process of schooling in the name of establishing global competitiveness for the USA (Mathison, 2001). Also, quantitative test scores encourage impersonal, inflexible, and mechanistic process of evaluation and decision-making, thereby diminishing individual freedom and choice (Messick, 1988, p.113).

We also need to evaluate the extent to which the objectives of standardized tests are consistent with those of social studies education in order to avoid falling short of realizing the goals of social studies curricula and instruction. The components of social studies, i.e., its content, its instructional methods, its activities, and assignments, and its assessment measures, should be planned and implemented in a way that is consistent with social studies goals (Alleman & Brophy, 1999). But, there is not a match between the objectives of these tests and those of social studies education because the former is directed to measure factual knowledge and basic skills through multiple-choice items that focuses on narrow, basic objectives at the expense of high-order objectives (Madaus, 1988). For instance, the following objectives that

social studies education is supposed to accomplish (NCSS, 1991) cannot be assessed by standardized tests: showing concern for the welfare and dignity of others; community improvement through active, democratic participation; rationality in communication, thought, and action; understanding problems of international relations; and reasoned commitment to the values that sustain a free society.

The primary goal of social studies education that The National Council for the Social Studies set is to produce active, responsible, and competent citizens who can identify common public problems and engage in meaningful discussions and arguments in order to find solutions to those problems with informed and reasoned decisions (Alleman & Brophy, 1995; NCSS, 1993). By studying social studies, students are expected to show proficiency in identifying issues and problems confronting local, national, and global communities. They are expected to identify common public problems and to make informed, reasoned and moral decisions to solve those problems for the welfare of the public. But, because of the detrimental effects of standardized tests on teaching, students are unlikely to attain those higher goals, e.g., participating in policy making process through meaningful argument, reflective thinking, and critical examinations of societal issues. Therefore, to accomplish the aims of schooling in general and those of social studies education in particular, we should establish and maintain balance and consistency among curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Implications for Future Research

Since the literature on social studies teachers' conceptions of history is very small and there are a few studies on teachers' epistemological views of historical knowledge, new studies with different research orientations are needed to broaden our understanding of social studies teachers' views of history. This study employed qualitative research methods to investigate the

topic under discussion. However, in order to see more variations in teachers' conceptions of history, the same topic should be examined not only by means of different research methods and instruments such as surveys, questionnaires, observations, interviews, life histories, etc., but also by means of different participants. Longitudinal and comparative studies can illuminate the changes in teachers' conceptions of history over time and the differences in different types of teachers' understanding of history respectively. For instance, pre-service social studies teachers' views of history can be examined at different time periods when they enter and leave teacher education programs. Likewise, pre-service teachers' conceptions of history can be compared with those of in-service teachers, employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods. When examining the differences in conceptions of history, teachers who have a degree in history can be compared with those teachers who are trained in other academic disciplines.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Interview Protocol

Part 1 (Conceptions of history):

- **How do you define history?**
- **What are those characteristics that distinguish history from other types of knowledge or disciplines?** (What are the characteristic features of history as an academic discipline?)

- **Do you view history as an art or a science?**

Prompts:

- ✓ What is your perspective on the place of imagination in historical explanations? (Should imagination have a place in historical explanations? Why or Why not?)
- ✓ What is your perspective on the place of theory in historical explanations? (Should a theory play a role in historical explanations? Why or Why not?)
- ✓ What part of history do you view as an art and what part as a science?

- **What are the differences between disciplinary history and school history?**

Prompts:

- ✓ What are the differences between academic history books and school history textbooks? Should there be? Explain your answer.
- ✓ What factors differentiate history teachers from academic historians?

- **What do you think are the goals and purposes of school history?**

Part II (Pedagogical orientations)

- What do you mean by learning? What does learning mean to you?
- What do you mean by teaching? What does teaching mean to you?
- What characteristics do you think an effective history teacher possesses or should possess?
- What factors make a teacher effective and successful in accomplishing the goals for history education?
- What teaching methods do you use to teach history?
- ✓ What teaching methods do you prefer to employ most? B. Practice most?
- ✓ In what ways do your favorite teaching methods help you teach more effectively?
- ✓ What are your least favorite teaching methods? Why do you not like using them?
- ✓ What are the most important considerations when choosing a particular instructional strategy or method?

- How do you know when you have taught successfully?
- What roles is a history teacher supposed to play in student learning?
- What kind of relationship should exist between the teacher and students?
- What is the student-teacher relationship you strive to achieve?
- What is the image of an excellent student in your mind?
- What kind of learning environment do you think best fosters students' engagement with history?
- What type of environment do you create for students to engage with history?
- What assessment techniques do you employ to evaluate student learning?
- What factors do you think have caused you to adopt your present teaching style?

- Is there anything we haven't talked about that you would like to add?

The following source was especially helpful in developing questions for teachers' pedagogical orientations.

Saskatchewan Education. (1997). *Native Studies 30: Canadian Studies Curriculum Guide.* Regina, SK: Saskatchewan Education.

Appendix B

Consent Form

"Social Studies Teachers' Conceptions of History and Orientations toward Teaching History"

I, **_____,** agree to participate in a research study titled "**Social Studies Teachers' Conceptions of History and Orientations toward Teaching History in Secondary Schools"** conducted by Kaya Yilmaz from the Department of Social Science Education at the University of Georgia (Phone: 542-4292) under the supervision of Dr. Ronald E. Butchart, Department of Elementary and Social Studies Education, University of Georgia (Phone: 542- 6490). I am selected as a participant because I am a social studies teacher about whom this study aims to gather data regarding my conception of history. I have read and asked any questions I have before agreeing to voluntarily participate in the study.

Background Information:
I understand that the purpose of this study is to illustrate and describe social studies teachers' conceptions of history and pedagogical orientations toward teaching history in K-12 classrooms.

Procedures:
I agree to be in this study and to do the following things:
I will allow the researcher to interview me once and tape record my responses to interview questions for approximately 60 minutes at a time and place convenient to me. I will also fill out a questionnaire aiming to elicit my orientation to teaching. If needed, I will answer the researcher's follow-up questions aimed at clarifying my explanations.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study & Benefits to Others:
No risks are anticipated in this study. No trouble or stress is anticipated during the interview. On the other hand, the participant can become more aware of his or her own conceptions of history and instructional practices. Numerous benefits are associated with the study. The results of the study will be given to the participants so that they can alter or modify their instructional practices by benefiting from the research findings. As a result of the study, teachers can become more reflective about their conceptions of history and the effects of their conceptions on students' learning in history and on students' developments in cognitive, social, psychological, and affective domains. Eliciting in-service teachers' views of the theoretical frameworks for teaching and learning can set the stage for educational scholars, social studies educators, and theorists to come up with more sophisticated, practical, and pragmatic instructional theories, thereby improving and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in schools. Ultimately, the gap between the ideal and real in accomplishing the goals of schooling in general and of social studies in particular may be reduced by reconciling theorists' and practitioners' points of view. Understanding teachers' conceptions of history (e.g., strength, weakness, misunderstanding, misconceptions, etc.) can also help bring about the development of pedagogically meaningful approaches to teacher education and realize the establishment of proper conditions needed to facilitate a sophisticated understanding of the nature of history on pre-service teachers' parts.

Confidentiality:
My identity will be protected. I and my school will be assigned a pseudonym. No information about me, or provided by me during the research, will be shared with others without my written permission except for the researcher's doctoral committee members. The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be kept in the researcher's locked file. The researcher and his advisors will have access to the tape recordings, which will be erased once the data is analyzed. In any sort of report, the researcher might publish, no information that will make it possible to identify my identity will be included.

Voluntary Nature of the Study
If I decide to participate, I am free to withdraw at any time without affecting my current or future relations with the University of Georgia and with the Turkish Ministry of Education (or with other cooperating institutions).
I can stop taking part at any time without giving reason and without penalty

Contact and Questions:
I understand that the researcher conducting this study is Kaya YILMAZ. I may ask any questions I have now. If I have questions later, I may contact him by phone: 706/542-4292 or his academic advisor Prof. Ronald E. Butchart by Phone: (706/542-6490) or email at butchart@uga.edu.

Statement of Consent:
I have read the above information. I asked questions and have received answers. I understand that I will receive a signed copy of this consent form for my records and consent to participate in the study.

_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Signature	Date

Telephone: _____
Email: _____

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Signature	Date

Please sign both copies, keep one and return the other to the researcher.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding the study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you can contact University of Georgia Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research Involving Human Subjects. Additional questions or problems regarding your rights as a research participant should be addressed to the IRB chairperson in the Human Subjects Office at the University of Georgia, 612 Boyd Graduate Studies Research Center, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411. Telephone: (706) 542-3199; E-Mail Address: IRB@uga.edu