

Chapter **4**

How Do We Teach Elementary Students to Think Like Historians?

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How Do We Teach Elementary Students to Think Like Historians?

C3 Disciplinary Focus U.S. History	C3 Inquiry Focus Evaluating sources and using evidence	Content Topic Elementary students thinking like historians
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1: Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions (D1.5.K-2). Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration the different opinions people have about how to answer the questions (D1.5.3-5).</p> <p>D2: Compare perspectives of people in the past to those of people in the present (D2.His.4.K-2). Explain why individuals and groups during the same historical period differed in their perspectives (D2.His.4.3-5). Explain how historical sources can be used to study the past (D2.His.10.K-2). Compare information provided by different historical sources about the past (D2.His.10.3-5).</p> <p>D3: Evaluate a source by distinguishing between fact and opinion (D3.2.K-2). Use distinctions among fact and opinion to determine the credibility of multiple sources (D3.2.3-5).</p> <p>D4: Construct explanations using correct sequence and relevant information (D4.2.K-2). Construct explanations using reasoning, correct sequence, examples, and details with relevant information and data (D4.2.3-5).</p>		
Grade Level K-5	Resources Resources cited throughout chapter and in Appendix	Time Required Approximately 30 minutes for each activity

Historical Thinking: Teaching Elementary Kids to Think Like Historians...

It's Not Just for History

In the early years of the United States, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Rush, and Noah Webster fashioned recommendations of what they thought education should resemble in the new nation (Dorn, 2012). Each proposal varied. One aspect they shared was the necessity to design an educational system to support the existence of the United States (Dorn, 2012). Nearly a century later, it was evident that education was essential to shaping the United States. Students need to be educated and the institutions across America are responsible for developing children into functioning contributors to society (Dorn, 2012). Curriculum, content, the collaboration amongst the students, and the resources the teacher uses should provide the components that support this educational system and the purpose of the system, which is to create functioning members of a democratic society. Boyle-Baise and Zevin (2014) remind us that public schools were intended to prepare democratic citizens who could attend to changes over time. For this to happen, educators need to teach social studies (National Council for Social Studies [NCSS], 2017). Yet, it seems that much of the United States has overlooked these original intentions of education and repeatedly marginalized social studies in the taught curriculum, particularly in the elementary grades (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Bolick et al., 2010; Heafner et al., 2007; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012; NCSS, 2017; Rock et al., 2006).

As presented by Webster in 1790, "Education, in a great measure, forms the moral characters of men, and morals are the basis of government" (p. 22). Teachers in the United States instruct on the values required of a democratic republic, with standards that reflect civics and government. Subsequently, equipping teachers with necessary tools and strategies to teach in an ever-changing culture is obligatory, so that they can arm students with the principles on which America was founded. Keeping this in mind, it is necessary to unite a formal social studies curriculum (specific state standards) and informal social studies curriculum, specifically historical thinking strategies (sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization), to meet content expectations and prepare students to be functioning future citizens.

This chapter intends to define historical thinking strategies in detail, as well as specific approaches for developing (or implementing) these into social studies classroom instructional

practices. Furthermore, the chapter will provide elementary educators with historical thinking activities and lessons to use in the elementary classroom. The chapter is designed in a broad fashion, using historical thinking skills in a variety of areas, rather than focusing on specific contexts. This is what teachers want to convey to students—the importance of applying historical thinking skills in any situation and not just the specific standard or era being taught. Therefore, the teachers will be meeting the original intentions of education by including social studies, as well as the skills and strategies needed to teach and learn social studies.

What is Historical Thinking?

History education is the study of the past, but the word originates from the Greek word “historia,” which is defined as inquiry, the act of seeking knowledge, or research (Joseph & Janda, 2004). Inquiring, seeking knowledge, and researching can be accomplished through using historical thinking skills. These skills stand at the heart of the questions historians seek to answer, the arguments they make, and the debates in which they engage. Several organizations have embraced and cultivated approaches in thinking like a historian. The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) focuses on four main areas of historical thinking: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization (Figure 1). Each section of SHEG’s historical thinking chart has several questions, skills students should be able to do, and prompts. It is not expected for students to address every detail listed that relates to the historical thinking skill for each lesson or activity. It is possible that the student will “evaluate the author’s word choice” for close reading and then use the prompt “I think the author chose the words to make me feel...” but perhaps not address other details that correlate with close reading.

Figure 1. Historical Thinking Chart

HISTORICAL THINKING CHART

Historical Reading Skills	Questions	Students should be able to . . .	Prompts
Sourcing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Who wrote this? What is the author's perspective? When was it written? Where was it written? Why was it written? Is it reliable? Why? Why not? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's position on the historical event Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing the document Hypothesize what the author will say before reading the document Evaluate the source's trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and purpose 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author probably believes . . . I think the audience is . . . Based on the source information, I think the author might . . . I do/don't trust this document because . . .
Contextualization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When and where was the document created? What was different then? What was the same? How might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand how context/background information influences the content of the document Recognize that documents are products of particular points in time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on the background information, I understand this document differently because . . . The author might have been influenced by _____ (historical context) . . . This document might not give me the whole picture because . . .
Corroboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What do other documents say? Do the documents agree? If not, why? What are other possible documents? What documents are most reliable? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish what is probable by comparing documents to each other Recognize disparities between accounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The author agrees/disagrees with . . . These documents all agree/disagree about . . . Another document to consider might be . . .
Close Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What claims does the author make? What evidence does the author use? What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document's audience? How does the document's language indicate the author's perspective? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify the author's claims about an event Evaluate the evidence and reasoning the author uses to support claims Evaluate author's word choice; understand that language is used deliberately 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I think the author chose these words in order to . . . The author is trying to convince me . . . The author claims . . . The evidence used to support the author's claims is . . .

STANFORD HISTORY EDUCATION GROUP

SHEG.STANFORD.EDU

Note From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/historical-thinking-chart>

These historical thinking behaviors include qualities of critical thinking. Brown (2000) presented research showing that elementary learners who employ and apply historical thinking skills, such as using primary sources, do achieve better in academics including language arts, science, and social studies. Tally and Goldenberg (2005) disclosed “these intellectual (and emotional) habits with sources and data were at the heart of how critical thinking is defined in every area of the sciences and humanities, and now, in the information-rich workplace as well” (pp. 1-2).

Research from Wineburg et al. (2011) indicates historical thinking includes precise actions such as:

- Identify an author's position on a historical event.
- Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing a document.
- Evaluate a source's believability/trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and author's purpose.
- Use background information to draw more meaning from a document.
- Infer historical context from documents.
- Recognize that documents reflect one moment in a changing past.
- Evaluate evidence/reasoning that the author uses to support claims.

- Understand that language is used deliberately.
- Establish truth by comparing documents to each other.
- Recognize disparities between two accounts.

Historians read in a certain way that engages them in the exact historical event and their thinking helps them to decipher the event. Historians do not read to collect information about dead people and reiterate the information on a multiple-choice test (Wineburg et al., 2011). Even when interpreting the past, historical thinking fosters the context to understand the past. To contextualize, students must remove their 21st-century perspectives and place themselves in the specific context of the period they are studying.

Historians have constructed skilled, instinctive methods of reading. These methods are broken down into the various historical thinking strategies. Historians are trained professionals who organically engage in synthesizing, analyzing, and interpreting (Nokes, 2011). It is unfortunate that most students do not use those skills when they read, because most elementary teachers have not been trained to instruct students in historical thinking skills. Nokes (2011) proposed that perhaps students do not engage in comparable skills due to the overuse of textbooks. Students simply trust textbooks because textbooks are presented as the main source of facts. Teachers need to be more cognizant of the sense of power these books traditionally represent. Although using textbooks in the classroom can prove to be useful, it is necessary to focus on the realities that textbooks commonly contain a single account of an event, which offers one perspective, one interpretation, and one bias. Teachers must provide students with multiple accounts of events, as well as teach students to question nonfiction readings (Nokes, 2011; Wineburg, 1991). Historical thinking that promotes corroboration can successfully integrate content from textbooks with primary and secondary sources.

Nokes (2011) claimed that even when students were provided with additional materials, they “do not spontaneously use historian’s heuristics” (p. 379). Since students do not always naturally question authority, educators must teach students to question and constructively argue to form their own interpretations, instead of consistently believing every word that they read (Nokes, 2011; Wineburg et al., 2011). It is equally important to teach children that history is interpretive and full of controversy as well as biases (Nokes, 2011). All these skills can be taught and then acquired by constructing and applying historical thinking skills.

Teaching students to think like a historian will assist them in all subject areas, but most importantly in their future college careers, professional careers, and lives (Breakstone et al., 2013; Maxwell, 2019). As students develop greater agency with content and skills, they prepare themselves for active participation in post-secondary education, as well as preparing themselves to become engaged contributors to society. These skills will teach them to problem solve, corroborate facts, not believe everything they read or hear, and to make sense of real-world situations (NCSS, 2017).

For this chapter, the focus will be on the following historical thinking strategies: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization. Ultimately, the skills students will use during historical thinking include “analyzing, evaluating, generating, associating, hypothesizing, clarifying, interpreting, determining, understanding, inferring, explaining, developing, deciding, reasoning, connecting, and generalizing” (Austin & Thompson, 2014).

Why Teach Historical Thinking Strategies?

For history education to be effective when teaching elementary students, it is essential for teachers to include not only content but also the skills students are expected to perform when addressing that specific content. Although the focus of history education is on the past, it is important that we think of the future, such as how to form thoughtfully engaged citizens, respond to employability needs, analyze and interpret information in the information age, and think critically to thrive in today’s world (Booth & Ludvigsson, 2017). Historical thinking skills address these needs.

For instance, according to Wineburg (2015), the Internet in today’s world has “obliterated authority.” Anyone can post anything they want on the web, create a website, or become a self-proclaimed author. With so much information readily available, we must teach students to think like historians, using historical thinking skills, to sift through the information for believability, to corroborate the information, and to recognize and reconcile disparities. Historians look for clues. Historians cultivate an understanding of history by investigating and interpreting primary sources (documents, artifacts, artwork, audio, maps, etc.).

Many students (especially intermediate through college) are inclined to view history as a series of facts and/or dates to be memorized (Wineburg, 1991, 2001). However, “historians have developed powerful ways of reading that allow them to see patterns, make sense of contradictions, and formulate reasoned interpretations when others get lost” (Wineburg et al., 2011, p. v). Thinking as a historian thinks will allow students to create their own arguments, based on historical evidence. These arguments may take shape as a debate, conversation, essay, or a variety of other forms. These same skills are expected in English language arts (ELA) and in science; and these skills prepare students for college, career, and their future (Zygouris-Coe, 2014.)

Students are expected to have an opinion and support that opinion with text evidence. Additionally, employing these historical thinking strategies encourages the students to question and not just simply believe the first thing they hear or read. It also encourages them to analyze sources, synthesize sources, corroborate sources, place historical events into context, and identify perspectives of the people involved. With all these skills in place, the students can engage in and begin building their own historical narratives (Barton and Levstik, 2003; VanSledright, 2010). The students may also feel empowered because they can create their own historical narratives and learn there is not always a right or wrong answer. Furthermore, the students learn that history is messy. Often, there are several primary

sources that contradict each other, or the reader does not take into consideration the historical context. This is when history gets messy. There are many unanswered questions throughout history for which historians do not have a straight answer. History is interpretive and controversial and contains many biases.

To address this and many other messy pieces of history, historical thinking strategies assist students in critically reading documents and aiding them to determine how to scrutinize and evaluate what they read, even when it is messy. Much like the scientific thinking process, historical thinking has principles and guidelines in place to guide one through the historical thinking process. Wineburg (2015) stated, “We begin by paying attention. Next, we ask questions.” As teachers prepare students to be contributors of society, students are expected to interpret text, explore the author’s perspective, construct inferences, and determine the author’s purpose.

Many states use the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) or an adaptation of the standards, which require students to “analyze multiple accounts of an event, noting similarities and differences in the points of view presented, assessing the warrant behind people’s ideas...and to integrate information from several texts” (Calkins et al., 2012, p. 9). Using historical thinking skills attends to the expectations placed upon students by CCSS as well as other state standards. Furthermore, using these skills will enable students to be able to make sense during complicated circumstances, recognize patterns in a variety of situations, and make coherent interpretations during literacy, with personal-life details, and finally with work-related details (Wineburg et al., 2011). Historical thinking strategies will afford students the skills necessary to navigate and decipher information exhibited in their world.

Most students do not intrinsically know how to think or read like a historian (i.e., use historical thinking strategies). Many teachers also lack training on historical thinking, which is why this chapter is crucial to teacher candidates. Students must be taught these skills (Nokes, 2011); therefore, it is necessary to provide teacher candidates with historical thinking education. Nokes (2011) explained that students do not question authority and view textbooks as the authority or the truth. VanSledright (2002) also explained that students rely on textbooks that generally reveal one perspective and view those events as what truly happened. It is the teacher’s responsibility to instruct students to question and locate evidence to support claims of history and not simply rely on one perspective or just the textbook. It is a process and, with practice, will become a valuable and necessary classroom routine.

There are several examples in the literature that support the need for this interpretive skill. For example, in the late 1990s, Wineburg pursued research on the ability of students to critically analyze text. His aim was to understand how people understood history, in other words, historical thinking (Wineburg, 2001). In his book *Historical Thinking and Other Unnatural Acts*, Wineburg (2001) expressed to his readers: “My claim in a nutshell is that

history holds the potential, only partly realized, of humanizing us in ways offered by few other areas in the school curriculum” (p. 5).

De La Paz’s (2005) study used academically diverse middle school students who were taught historical reasoning as well as argumentative writing strategies. The control group was not taught those same skills. After the instruction, students who were taught historical thinking skills created essays with more historical accuracy than the students in the control group. De La Paz (2005) also noted that students learned more about how historians use reasoning and why historians often have differing opinions.

Wineburg and Gottlieb (2011) determined historians have a method of embedding habits in their cognitive processes. Through use of these habits, historians can focus on the context and add connections to their background knowledge. Several other studies conducted at various academic levels of students from elementary to high school resulted in substantial outcomes in historical thinking and students’ ability to transfer those skills to other subjects and situations (Franquiz & Salinas, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Monte-Sano, 2012; Wineburg & Gottlieb, 2011).

For instance, Purdin’s (2014) study scrutinized the factors contributing to achievement in literacy and the influence of historical thinking on student literacy/reading achievement. The study examined fifth and eighth grade students’ annual standardized assessment scores, explicitly the reference/research and information text subgroups, focusing on the use of historical thinking strategies in their elementary and middle school classrooms. These strategies were implemented by teachers who were trained in historical thinking skills and strategies and transferred to students through analyzing primary and secondary source documents. Furthermore, the study compared the same fifth and eighth grade students’ state standardized scores from 2011 (students of a non-historical-thinking-trained teacher) to their scores from 2012 (students of a historical-thinking-trained teacher) to determine growth after being taught historical thinking skills. Results were positive in indicating historical thinking skills promote success in reading/literacy standardized assessments.

In a demanding and intricate world, where it is imperative for people to be problem-solvers and use critical thinking, having historical thinking skills can support managing each aspect of everyday life (Gottlieb & Wineburg, 2012; Maggioni et al., 2009; Monte-Sano, 2011; Reisman, 2012; VanSledright, 2004). With the proper scaffolding, applying, and practicing, supporters believe historical thinking skills can become automatic (Monte-Sano, 2012; Nokes, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Trout & Sambs, 2020; Wineburg et al., 2011; Wineburg & Gottlieb, 2011). One strategy or tool teachers could use to provide additional forms of scaffolding, which would support students’ memory for analyzing and synthesizing instead of recalling certain things, would be historical thinking skills bookmarks or historical thinking classroom posters (Nokes, 2011). De La Paz’s (2005) study on effects of historical reasoning documented the need for teachers’ scaffolding as crucial to developing students’ best reasoning. Students must have frequent opportunities to practice historical thinking skills, but the teacher must

eventually remove the scaffolding materials (or modeling) when they are no longer necessary (De La Paz, 2005; Nokes, 2011).

Elementary teacher candidates generally have fewer opportunities to learn how to teach social studies. Unlike middle and high school teacher candidates, who complete several college courses for a particular subject area (i.e., history, government), elementary teachers often complete only one college course on teaching social studies. Elementary teachers must recognize this and develop disciplinary approaches (such as historical thinking strategies) connected with disciplinary education (Wineburg et al., 2011). This chapter will assist in developing these critical approaches and foster confidence as well as a renewed interest in content.

Modeling, Modeling, Modeling... Historical Thinking Skills

The emphasis on modeling historical thinking strategies aligns with Vygotsky's theories which led to the term "scaffolding" (Martin & Wineburg, 2008; Nokes, 2011). Martin and Wineburg (2008) explain, "Teaching a way of thinking requires making thinking visible" (p. 317). Nokes (2011) applied Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) to his assertion that "engaging young people in historical thinking is developmentally appropriate" (p. 381) after proper teacher modeling, along with assistance for the specific learning at hand (scaffolding). Students as young as those in kindergarten possess the cognitive ability to engage in historical thinking skills (Nokes, 2011). When students as young as those in kindergarten received appropriate accommodating instruction, they were able to use historical thinking skills and think like a historian (Nokes, 2011). The creators of the *Historical Thinking Matters* website, Roy Rosenzweig and staff from George Mason University, along with Sam Wineburg and staff from Stanford University, reinforce this theory with their ideas that the most beneficial way to learn something is by observing it being modeled.

One way to provide modeling is the method referred to as a *think-aloud*. A think-aloud is a teaching strategy used to model what the teacher is thinking as they are reading. The teacher verbalizes their thoughts. Martin and Wineburg (2008) stated that think-alouds were what students need to repeatedly see prior to doing their own think-alouds, so that they can begin formulating their own historical interpretations, and thus thinking like a historian and reading like a historian.

After conducting several different studies on think-alouds, where historians were studied while they were in the act of historical thinking, Martin and Wineburg (2008) explained that the *Historical Thinking Matters* project group determined a need for additional commentary explaining the individual think-alouds. This is helpful for training teachers as well as providing scaffolding and guiding the students' understanding of specific historical reading strategies. To learn more about think-alouds, visit [Teacher Educator Lesson, Making Thinking Visible](#) on the *Historical Thinking Matters* project website.

Let Us Discuss the Importance of Discussion

Throughout this chapter, the reader will notice the words *discuss* or *discussions* frequently mentioned in several activities. This is not meant to be redundant, but instead to highlight the significance of discussions. It is important to mention that productive discussions are necessary in elementary classrooms (Boyle-Baise & Zevin, 2014). Boyle-Baise and Zevin affirmed that democratic interchange is significant and allows the students opportunities to speak civilly to one another, listen respectfully, respect others' perspectives, freely offer their own perspectives, reach a common ground, and eventually find common solutions. Furthermore, Benjamin Barber (1984) asserted that "at the heart of a strong democracy is talk" (p. 173). CCSS emphasize the practice of classroom discussions in the development to advance necessary literacy skills (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). Discussions centered around texts, such as primary sources, also align with inquiry instruction as outlined in the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for the Social Studies State Standards (NCSS, 2013). According to research, classroom discussions promote student engagement, student understanding, and problem solving in various subject areas (Murphy et al., 2009). Another example is a study conducted by Hess and McAvoy (2015) in which they found that students who practiced productive discussions on a regular basis were more likely to be active civic members of society by voting, following the news, or participating in political discourse. And that is what educators are trying to do—prepare students to become active civic members of society.

It Is Important to Note...

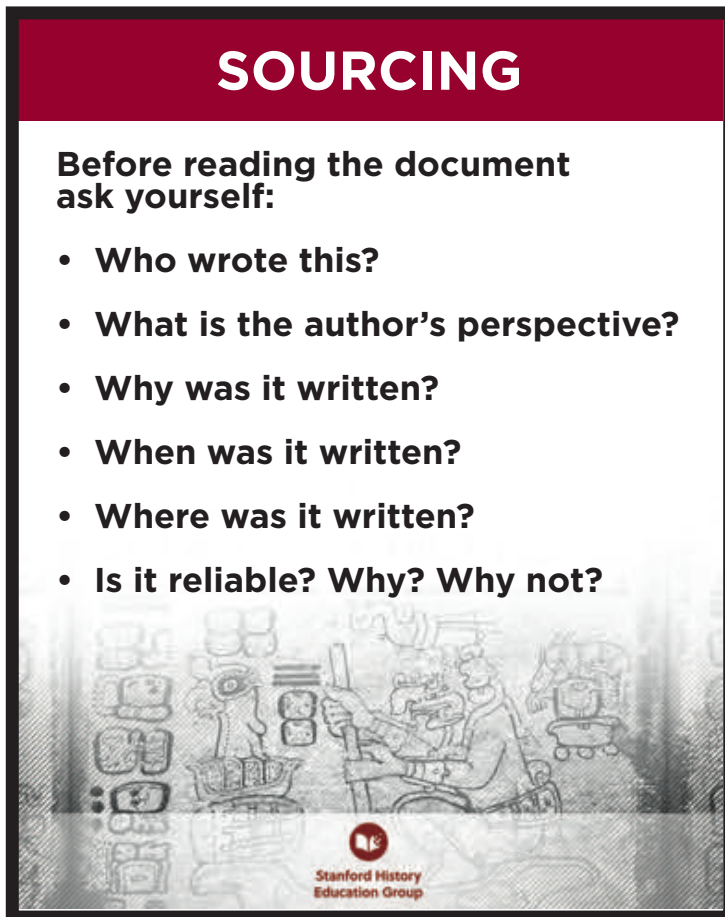
The following sections will provide insight into each of the four historical thinking skills (sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization) as well as short activities to allow the teacher candidate to have insight in unpacking the skill for instruction. Although it is not necessary to use the full [C3 Framework](#), each activity notes aspects of the C3 Framework.

Manipulating a variety of sources is necessary to build the students' skills needed to defend their opinions, such as discussing, expressing, and being persuasive about a variety of issues from history (Salinas et al., 2012). However, when first teaching these skills, students must acquire the skills to analyze one document (Wineburg et al., 2012) prior to following through with corroboration and using multiple documents. Therefore, the activities in this chapter are intended to be simple and focus on teaching each specific, discrete skill in isolation: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization. The intention is not to follow any specific order when introducing and practicing these discrete skills in the classroom, as they are not part of a unit or specific topic. After the students are proficient at sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization, the teacher should include a variety of sources

in lessons and inquiries that include questions that incrementally increase in depth and complexity, as well as focus on specific grade level content.

Historical Thinking Skill: Sourcing

Figure 2. Sourcing Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/sourcing-classroom-poster>

The skill of *sourcing* requires students to ponder who created a primary source, as well as the environment of its creation. Stanford History Education Group’s (SHEG) sourcing poster (Figure 2) reminds students, when reading a document, to ask: “Who wrote this (or who created this)?” “What is the author’s (or artist’s) perspective?” “Why was it written (created)?” “When was it written (created)?” “Where was it written (created)?” “Is this source reliable?” “Why?” “Why not?” A few points teachers may want students to consider are that sources may be incomplete or perhaps may be considered contradictory.

The following activity intends to be simple and to focus specifically on the skill of sourcing. After the students are proficient at sourcing, it is recommended that the teacher include a variety of sources into lessons and inquiries and use the C3 Framework as a structure to practice any and all historical thinking skills as well as focus on specific grade level content.

Sourcing Activity #1: *Trail of Tears*, Grades 3–5 (some parts K–2)

“Would this painting help a researcher understand the emotions the Cherokee Native Americans were feeling and the conditions the Cherokees experienced during the Trail of Tears? Why or why not?”

This activity is focused on teaching the historical thinking skill *sourcing*. However, it is necessary to share some historical context with the elementary students, as they may not have any knowledge of the Trail of Tears. The teacher should begin the lesson with a close read of [Chief Little John and the Trail of Tears](#).¹ The teacher should be sure to stop and present the questions listed in the passage so the students can discuss the questions with a partner or a team. For instance, the first questions mentioned in the passage are “What is something sad that you have had to do?” and “Did it make you cry?” These questions will offer the students a connection and therefore encourage engagement in the topic. The teacher should continue reading the passage onto page 2 and stop to allow for ample discussion time to respond to the remainder of the questions.

The next part of this activity presents the students with an opportunity to understand and experience sourcing, and includes using the 1942 [Trail of Tears painting](#) by Robert Lindneux titled *The Trail Of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838*. It is recommended that the teacher display the painting and the caption at the same time and have the students complete a teacher-guided analysis. The teacher should ask the following sourcing questions, allowing the students to discuss each question with a partner prior to moving on to the next one: “Who created this painting?” “Why do you think it was created?” “When was the painting created?” “When did the event portrayed in the painting actually happen?” (Answering this question may mean the teacher needs to return to the Chief Little John passage.) “Is this source reliable?” “Why, or why not?” Initially, the students may be consumed with the content of the image and not focus on the date (Breakstone et al., 2015). Allow them to grapple with possible responses but make sure to finally bring their attention to the dates. An anticipated student response could include “the artist was

¹The America’s Library website was originated and is maintained by the Library of Congress, the nation’s library. Their intentions are to provide engaging stories that would be entertaining, educational, and useful. The site is intended for young people, but these stories are for people of all ages.

not there when this event happened, so how would he know what to paint?” or something similar. It is possible for responses to take a different perspective. For instance, a student may respond with “although the author was not alive during the time displayed in the painting, he may have done some research to properly create the painting.” The correct response would include students recognizing the date of the event and the date the painting was completed, discovering that the painting would not be useful to a researcher trying to understand the emotions of the Cherokee Native Americans at the actual time of the event. However, this painting could be useful for a researcher to understand the artist’s interpretation of the event about 100 years after the event, in 1942. It could also be used to contextualize what was happening in 1942 and what context from 1942 provided the artist with a purpose for portraying the Native Americans the way he did.

This could be an opportune time to discuss with students the difference between a primary source and a secondary source. The *Trail of Tears* painting is most often considered a secondary source (but is also considered unreliable when it comes to portraying the emotions of the Native Americans in 1838.) However, in some specific cases, the *Trail of Tears* painting could be considered a primary source for depicting how a 1942 painter portrayed the Trail of Tears when it was painted in 1942. “In 1942, why did the painter paint Native Americans looking like they were content and not incredibly sad? What events were happening in 1942 that may have encouraged the way Lindneux painted the Trail of Tears painting?”² In 1942, the biggest mass exodus of Native Americans occurred since the Trail of Tears. This time, the exodus was a choice and opportunity for the Native Americans to be outside of the reservation world. This painting could also be considered a primary source if the person observing it were analyzing paintings.

Now have students take the skill of sourcing a step further and integrate the skill of contextualizing. Reread the [Chief Little John passage](#), briefly stopping to ask the students about their emotions. Then display the [painting](#) once again. Ask the students what emotions they notice in the painting. Emotions are a topic covered in primary elementary, and this part of the activity could be accomplished by K-5 students. Students may struggle with identifying emotions, so probe them to state an emotion and the evidence that makes them think that way. For example, they may say “content,” because the Native Americans look well-equipped and like they may be on a positive journey. They may say “happy,” because they notice some of the Native Americans, like the little boy holding the puppy or the baby on the woman's back, have a smile on their faces. Once again, the teacher should pose the questions “Is this source reliable?” “Why or why not?” If you started the activity at the emotion part, the teacher could review emotions and what they look like for primary, English Language Learners (ELL), or Exceptional Student Education (ESE) students. Finally, to conclude the lesson, the teacher

² For a deeper look into sourcing, the teacher could guide the students to delve deeper by asking “who is this artist? (White? Black? Indigenous?)” “What is the history of this painting? Was it commissioned by someone for a particular purpose?”

should ask the students “Would this painting help a researcher understand the emotions the Cherokee Native Americans were feeling and the conditions the Cherokees experienced during the Trail of Tears? Why or why not?” Again, this could be posed to primary, ELL, or ESE students by reminding them what sad looks like, as well as asking how would they feel if they had to move away from the place they called home. Based on the level of the students, this question can be answered verbally, in a sentence, in two sentences, or in a paragraph. Either way the question is answered, the teacher should give specific instructions to include evidence from the sources (painting or passage) to support their answer.

Through the activities mentioned in this chapter, the teacher is providing questions, because the focus of this chapter is for the teacher to model and teach what historical thinking is and what it looks like in action. However, it is important for students to come up with their own questions too. At the end of this activity, the teacher should ask the students what they wonder about: “Now that we have practiced sourcing and looked at the context of the topic, what do you wonder about?” Allow the students a minute or so to think about this and then ask: “What questions do you have about this topic? What sources might provide you with answers?” If further scaffolding is needed for ESE students, provide additional questions: “If you were asked to research this topic further, what questions might you research?”

For more advanced students or a more advanced studying of sourcing, the teacher could take this lesson a step further regarding sourcing. Some questions to investigate could be: “Who is the artist (not just his name)? Is he an indigenous person? A white person?” “What is the history of this painting?” “Was it commissioned by someone for a particular purpose?” Eventually, this skill will not exist in isolation from another skill.

For further inquiry, the American Indian Smithsonian Institute website has a wealth of information. Specifically, the [Cherokee Nation Case Study](#) offers guided questions and walks the students through several primary sources: treaty, Lindneux’s painting, quotation, map, image, and an object. The guided questions accompanying the painting/image could easily be adapted by the teacher paraphrasing the questions and could work for the primary elementary-level students. For instance, the initial question seen in the case study would not need paraphrasing for younger students. A kindergarten student could answer: “What story does this painting tell?” The teacher may need to guide the young students to stay on topic, meaning the students need to be sure their “story” is related to the painting. However, the next two questions may need some paraphrasing: “Select three people in the painting. Based on what you see, what might each be saying or thinking?” The teacher could elaborate, select a specific person from the painting, and ask “What do you think this person could be saying or thinking?” For example, point to the person on the upper right, wearing something red on their head and sitting next to the person with a white hat on their head. Ask the primary leveled students: “What might this person be thinking? Why do you think so?” Based on the painting, expect to hear that the person may be thinking

about how cold they are because they seem to have a blanket wrapped around them. For the next questions, the teacher would need to explain what a “forced march” is: “Imagine that you are walking in this forced march. What would you see? How would you feel? What might you hear?” A teacher could set a detailed scenario for younger students:

Imagine you must grab a few things from your home that you can carry all by yourself. You are being told you must leave your house forever and walk to a new house that is very far away. You will be walking for many days and there are no hotels to spend the night., etc.

Intermediate elementary-level students would be able to answer the questions as they are asked. However, to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities or speakers of other languages, using the teacher strategies mentioned above for primary students could work. The painting itself provides an accommodation that meets a variety of learners needs, as it is visual, without text.

Sourcing Additional Activities and Resources

Another useful resource to use for practicing the sourcing skill is the Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) website. Although the website includes lessons for middle and high school, some lessons may be adapted to accommodate elementary students. At the very least, the teacher could use the primary sources SHEG shares as well as the ideas presented based on each of the four historical thinking skills: sourcing, close reading, corroboration, and contextualization, along with the historical thinking chart (Figure 1) for teacher prompts. For instance, [The First Thanksgiving mini-lesson](#) is a sourcing mini-lesson using Library of Congress’s *The First Thanksgiving* painting (Figure 3). The teacher could share this painting with students in kindergarten through fifth grade and ask guiding historical thinking questions from Figure 1. The teacher could print out the image and cut it into four quadrants, handing out only one quadrant at a time for the students to practice historical thinking skills. The students could carefully observe each quadrant and then practice sourcing the image. In order to source the image, the students would need to have some background knowledge on what many Americans view as the first Thanksgiving. The students would also need to see the caption and title for this painting. *The First Thanksgiving 1621* is a reproduction of an oil painting of Pilgrims and Natives gathering to share meal; This painting was created between 1912 and 1915. The teacher should allow time for the students to determine that the painting was painted over 300 years after the event and allow them to have discussions about this. Some student conversations may include, “How could the artist know what to paint?” or “Why did the artist choose to paint this?” or “Why is it so nice...pretty colors, the people all seem to be well dressed?” Using this piece offers the students an opportunity to share their opinion, supported by evidence, as to if they think the source is reliable. SHEG offers sample student responses. SHEG also has numerous other lessons and assessments on all historical thinking skills.

Figure 3. *The First Thanksgiving, 1621*



Note. Ferris, J. L. G. (1912-1915). *The First Thanksgiving, 1621*. [Painting]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2001699850/>

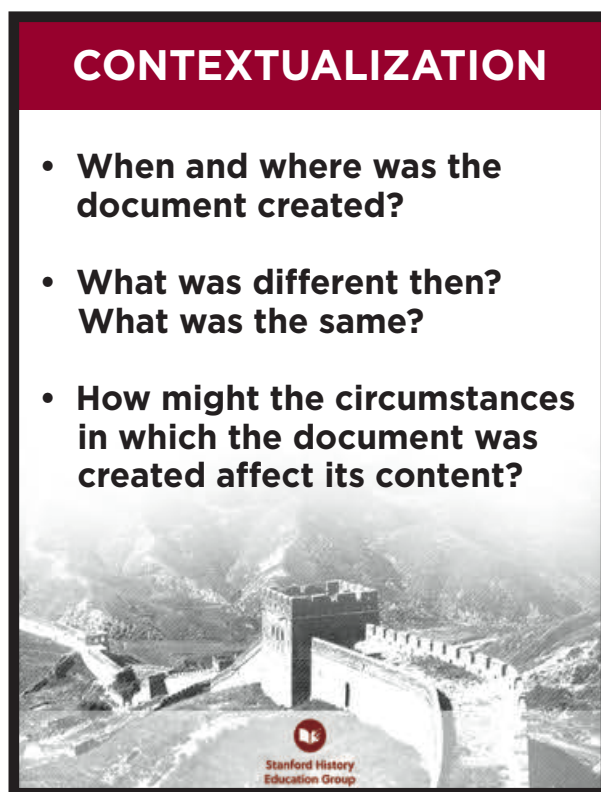
One more incredible (and free) resource for practicing the skill of sourcing is Kid Citizen. Kid Citizen is an online interactive program for students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The program offers a variety of episodes that explore Congress and promote civic engagement through the use of primary source photographs and personal connections. The episodes use primary sources to engage students in history, through interactive activities, which foster visual literacy and historical inquiry. The episodes also offer teacher guides, which include NCSS Standards, as well as correlations to the C3 Framework. Although the site and episodes do not explicitly state the four historical thinking strategies, they are implied. For instance, in the episode *Rosa Parks: A Proud Daughter*, the students are encouraged to act as history detectives and analyze a primary source. Throughout this interactive activity, the students are encouraged to use sourcing by asking “Why was it written?” and “When was it written?” as well as close reading strategies by asking “What claims does the author make?” and “How does this document make me feel?”

More specifically, one of their episodes, [Snap a Photo: Agent of Change](#), meets the needs for grades three through five, and focuses on sourcing.

Historical Thinking Skill: Contextualizing

Contextualization (Figure 4) is a historical thinking strategy that involves students in thinking about the time and place of where a document originated (or is being referred to) and to understand how the time and place influence the content of the primary source (Huijgen et al., 2017; Reisman & Wineburg, 2008; Wineburg & Reisman, 2015). Contextualization is really the heart of solid historical thinking. This is where students are making the deepest connections. According to the Historical Thinking Chart from the Stanford History Education Group, when reading a document, students should think “when and where was the document created; what was different then; what was the same; and how might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content?” (see Figure 1). This helps the student understand the document by providing a larger context and by not comparing it to other events. The purpose is to aid in clarifying why the topic is transpiring within the specified time period.

Figure 4. Contextualization Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.
<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/contextualization-classroom-poster>

The next activities will also be simple and specifically focused, but this time on the skill of contextualizing. After the students gain some competency in contextualizing, it is recommended that the teacher include a variety of primary and secondary sources, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework) to practice historical thinking skills, as well as focus on specific grade-level content.

Contextualizing Activity #1: *Waiting for the Signal*, Grades K–5

“Does one photo provide the whole picture?”

First and foremost, teachers need to model the strategy of contextualizing and be specific about verbally sharing what they are thinking. It is the same teaching strategy used when teaching students reading skills, and the teacher models thinking aloud. To teach contextualizing, a possible primary source to use for modeling thinking is *Waiting for The Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra* (Figure 5).

Figure 5. *Waiting for the Signal*



Note. Hine, L. W. (1908). *Waiting for the Signal*. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra. 5PM, Times Star Office. Location: Cincinnati, Ohio [Photograph]. Library of Congress <https://www.loc.gov/resource/nclc.03201/>

There are different ways a teacher could present this source, such as offering historical context first or observing the picture first.

For this activity example, the teacher should present only the photograph first, without any background information or caption. The caption should be hidden to give the students an opportunity to look at the events through the eyes of the people in the photograph. This will help build context for the students. The teacher will model thinking by sharing aloud what they see (making sure to stress that the teacher is only mentioning things they observe with their eyes and not to be confused with inferencing what they think is happening): “boys, lined up on a sidewalk, a few men, buildings, boys are holding newspapers, some have shoes on and some do not, many are wearing hats, photo appears old, black and white boys and men, etc.”

Then the teacher should mention what they are thinking:

Some boys may not have enough money for shoes; the boys know someone is taking a photo, because they are looking at the camera; a few of the men may not know their photo is being taken, because they are not looking at the camera; the boys will have to do something with the newspapers they are holding, etc.

Finally, the teacher should model wondering:

I wonder why the kids are all gathered on the sidewalk. I wonder why they are all holding newspapers. I wonder what the men are doing. Are they telling the boys what to do? I wonder where this photo was taken. etc.

At this point, the teacher should reveal the title of the photograph with details regarding the sourcing details, such as date and location, found on the Library of Congress website, and begin asking contextualization questions. The teacher should continue to model their thinking by answering the questions: “What else was going on at the time this photo was taken?” (Children were expected to work, and the working conditions were not acceptable.) “What was it like to be alive during this time?” (People were poor and had to do whatever it took to be able to buy food and pay their bills, including send their children to work.) “What was different back then?” (There were no child labor laws.) “What was the same back then?” (They had newspapers, and we still do.)

At this point, the teacher should reinforce the skill of contextualizing. It is necessary for the teacher to explain that child labor was an acceptable practice at the time this picture was taken. It was not illegal, and therefore, the photographer did not need to concern themselves with any repercussions from witnessing these children preparing for their daily jobs.

To conclude the lesson, have the students in all grade levels verbalize their response to one of the following prompts by discussing with their partner or their team: “From this document, I would guess that people at this time were feeling...” or “This document might not give me the whole picture because...” Then, for grades 1-5, have the students write or draw their answer to the compelling question: “Does one photo provide the whole picture?” For primary students, ESE students, or ELL students, the teacher may need to provide additional prompts, such as “What might be happening over to the left of the picture, past what we can see?” or “If you were the photographer, what might be happening behind you?” It is a good strategy to allow students to verbalize their responses and share them prior to writing. This is a good scaffolding tool for use with ESE students, ELL students, or any student struggling with what to write.

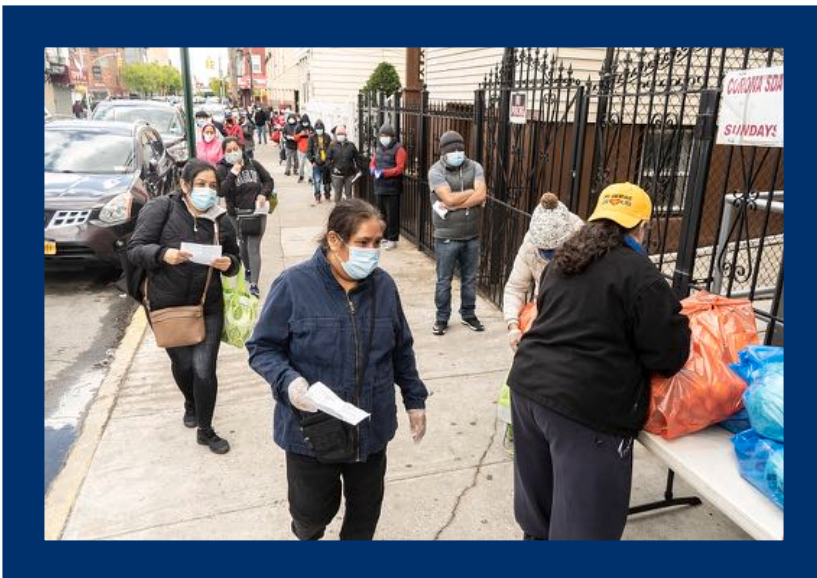
For further research, third, fourth, and fifth graders could peruse over 5,000 additional sources from the Library of Congress’s [National Child Labor Committee Collection](#) and practice completing the contextualization skill as well as questioning skills. The students could create questions they have and then complete the research to build context. For kindergarten, first graders, second graders, ESE learners, or ELL learners, the teacher could pull up a few additional sources for the students. Additionally, the teacher could share the [short passage about Grace Abbott](#) and how she used informed action to fight for children’s rights and against child labor. Also, National Archives has [teacher resources](#) available for further lessons on child labor.

As mentioned previously, SHEG offers many free resources, such as lesson plans, assessments that do not contain multiple choice, and primary source documents that

correlate with the lessons and assessments. A useful SHEG lesson that offers additional contextualizing skill practice is [Edison and the Kansas Housewife Assessment](#). This activity allows students to practice both contextualizing and sourcing by reading a letter from a housewife in Kansas to Thomas Edison. The website also offers a short video (less than 3 minutes) to prepare the teacher to teach this lesson. Using this lesson, the teacher should guide students through a contextualizing practice. The resource includes a section of additional facts which will provide background information that some elementary students may not know. The teacher should guide the students' discussion by asking one question at a time and allowing for partner discussions or small group discussions in which each student is responsible for contributing to the conversation. After plenty of conversation, have the students complete the activity by responding to "Which two of the four facts above help you determine whether Mrs. Lathrop was typical or atypical of American women in the 1920s?"

This contextualization activity will teach the students to think beyond the specific, given topic; and consider the bigger picture of events and conditions in which that specific topic occurred. The students will realize that it is easy to have tunnel vision, but it is important to keep contextualization in mind, or what else was going on at the specific time period. This activity will strengthen the students' ability to put things into context, have productive discussions with substantiated supporting evidence, and become better historical thinkers. At this point, students are becoming historical thinkers and developing democratic skills.

Figure 6. *Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens*



Note: Vergara, C. (2020, May 11). *Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and they are donated by the food bank* [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2020633003/>

Contextualizing Activity #2: COVID-19 Food Distribution photograph, Grades K-5

“Why might the people be standing in line for free food?”

Using the Teacher’s Guide to Analyzing Photographs & Prints (Figure 7), the teacher will guide the students through a verbal analysis of Figure 6. The teacher should share the photograph only, and not the title or the notes from the webpage which explain this photo was taken during the COVID-19 pandemic. The teacher should ask at least three questions under each of the three sections of Figure 8: observe (see), reflect (think), and question (wonder). As mentioned previously, the teacher must make it clear that “observe” means they can only mention items they see in the image, not what they think is happening in the image. For instance, they can see the people have on jackets and hats, but they cannot see that it is cold out. However, once the questions are coming from the “reflect” portion of the analysis tool, the students may then state that they think it is cold out.

After the teacher has guided the students through all three sections of the analysis tool, the teacher should pose the question: “What more do you want to know, what questions do you have, and how can you find out?” (This question is located at the bottom of the analysis tool.) Questioning is perhaps the most valuable aspect to historical thinking. Now that students have engaged in strategic thinking, they are able to develop greater agency over content. Allow the students time to discuss this question with a partner or team. Then the teacher should elicit some responses, which will be questions, from the whole group.

To differentiate for learners such as primary, Exceptional Student Education (ESE), or other language elementary learners, give students specific criteria to write a caption for the image. For kindergarten students, the teacher could dictate their response, the students could act out their response, the students could verbalize their response, or the students could draw their response. Depending on the level of the learner, the criteria could include the following: one sentence, must have a capital letter, must have end punctuation, must contain evidence from the photograph. For upper elementary or advanced/Gifted students, have them predict what will happen one hour after the scene shown in the image and “explain the reasoning behind your predictions.” (This is also located at the bottom of the analysis tool.) Again, be sure to include specific criteria. For upper elementary or advanced/Gifted learners, the criteria could include the following: write at least one paragraph, but no more than two; grammar, punctuation, and capitalization count; include details from the photograph; etc.

Finally, the teacher needs to share the title of the photo with the students. Allow them to discuss their captions or predictions with other students and discuss if their caption was correct or if their prediction could have happened. At this point, ask the students to discuss with their partner or team: “Given what we know about the COVID pandemic and what has

happened recently (contextualization), why might the people be standing in line for free food?” Follow this by a class discussion responding to the question posed. The teacher should accept any answer as long as the student can support it. The idea is that the students will have some contextual knowledge that some parents were out of jobs and businesses were shut down, causing families to have little or no income. However, it would be acceptable for them to answer, “They were standing in line for food because they were hungry.” The teacher could offer additional probing questions, such as “Why might they be hungry?”

To encourage informed action, the teacher could encourage the students to organize a donation drive to attend to the hungry people in their community, or the teacher could encourage students to create their own community project exemplifying informed action. The teacher should allow the students to brainstorm and create their own ideas. However, for students who need support, the teacher may need to guide the brainstorming with ideas such as: a peanut butter and jelly drive (plastic jars only), a non-perishable food drive, a Thanksgiving food drive (more specific foods), a canned food drive, etc. The teacher could also guide the students on how to research and advocate for a local food bank, learn about childhood hunger and programs in their community, or find out how to collaborate with a group, assess their needs, and move forward.

Figure 7. Teacher’s Guide Analyzing Photographs & Prints

TEACHER'S GUIDE
ANALYZING PHOTOGRAPHS & PRINTS

Guide students with the sample questions as they respond to the primary source. **Encourage them to go back and forth between the columns; there is no correct order.**

OBSERVE

REFLECT

QUESTION

Have students identify and note details.

Sample Questions:
Describe what you see. · What do you notice first?
· What people and objects are shown? · How are they arranged? · What is the physical setting?
· What, if any, words do you see? · What other details can you see?

Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the image.

Why do you think this image was made? · What's happening in the image? · When do you think it was made? · Who do you think was the audience for this image? · What tools were used to create this? · What can you learn from examining this image? · What's missing from this image? · If someone made this today, what would be different? · What would be the same?

Have students ask questions to lead to more observations and reflections.

What do you wonder about...
who? · what? · when? · where? · why? · how?

FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.

Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

A few follow-up activity ideas:

Beginning
Write a caption for the image.

Intermediate
Select an image. Predict what will happen one minute after the scene shown in the image. One hour after? Explain the reasoning behind your predictions.

Advanced
Have students expand or alter textbook or other printed explanations of history based on images they study.

For more tips on using primary sources, go to
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers>

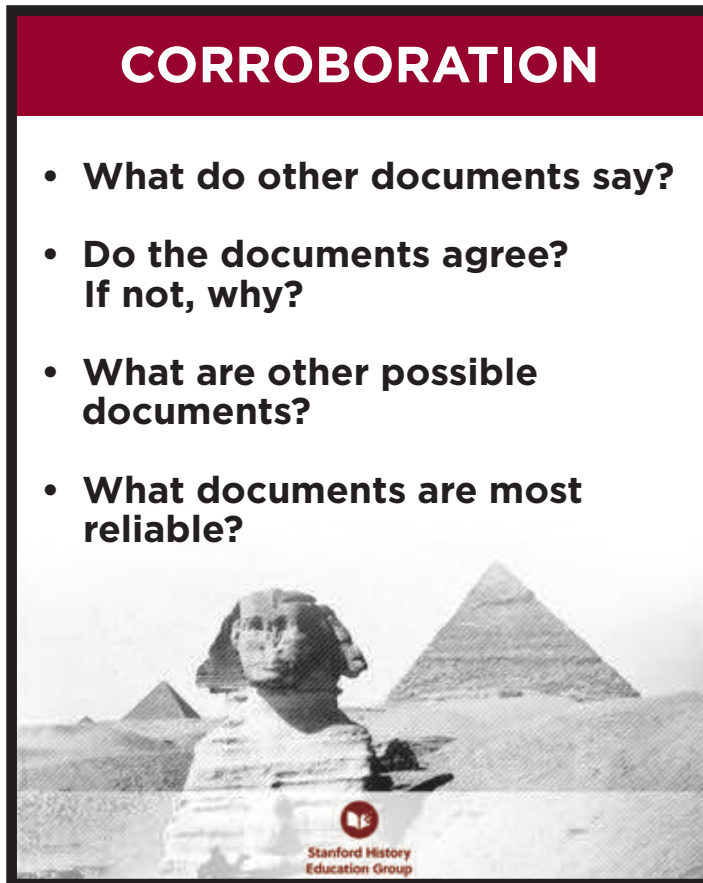
LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | loc.gov/teachers

Note. From Library of Congress.

<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Historical Thinking Skill: Corroboration

Figure 8. Corroboration Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.

<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/corroboration-classroom-poster>

The historical thinking strategy *corroboration* (Figure 8) is a skill that is needed by everyone. In today's information-rich society, with information available in seconds, it is crucial to teach students to corroborate this information and encourage them not to simply believe everything they read on the Internet. *Corroborating* is the historical thinking strategy of determining what is true by using other documents to corroborate, as well as being able to determine discrepancies between documents (Wineburg et al., 2011). This skill helps students create their own plausible narrative of the historical event. It is also an opportunity to explore different perspectives of the same event.

The next activities, again, are meant to be simple and specifically focused, but this time on the skill of corroboration. After the students gain some capability in corroboration, the

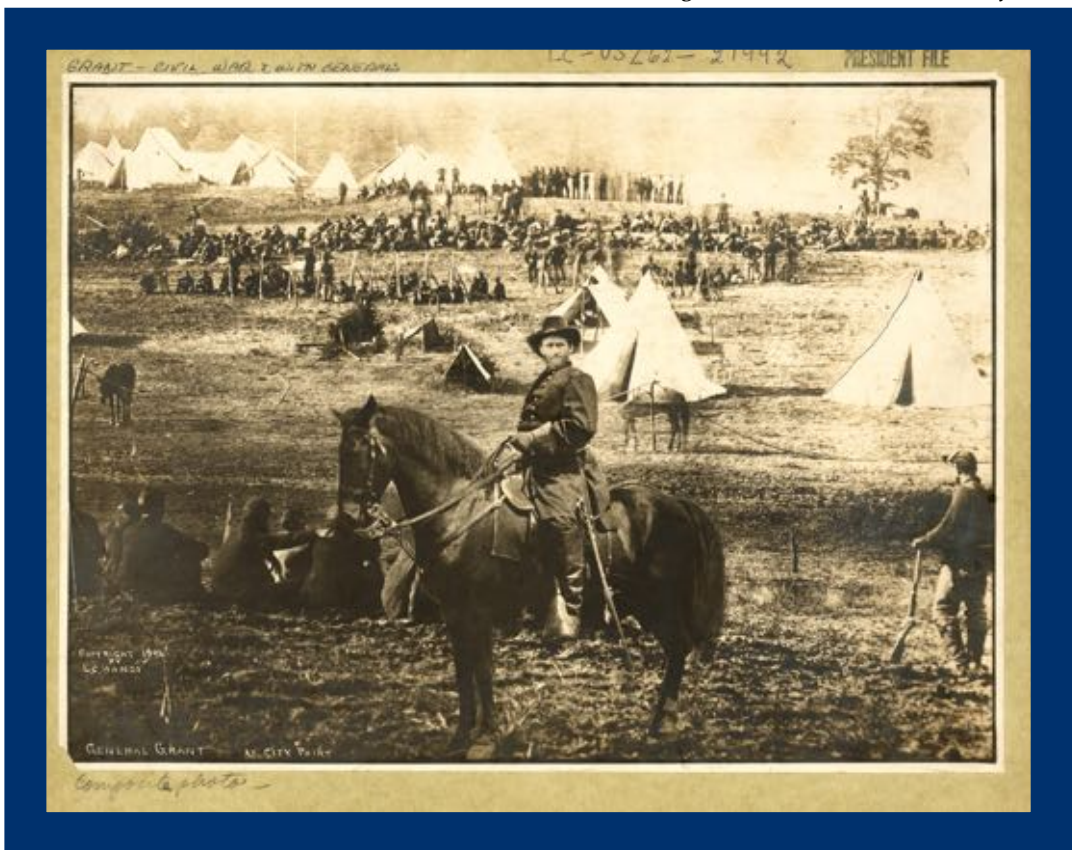
teacher should include a variety of primary and secondary sources, based on specific grade-level content, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework) to practice historical thinking skills.

Corroboration Activity #1: *General Grant at City Point*, Grades K-5

“Are all photographs to be trusted? Why or why not?”

Using the photo *General Grant at City Point* (Figure 9), have students (primary, intermediate, ESE, ELL) analyze the photo using the [Library of Congress’s primary source analysis tool](#) (Figure 10).

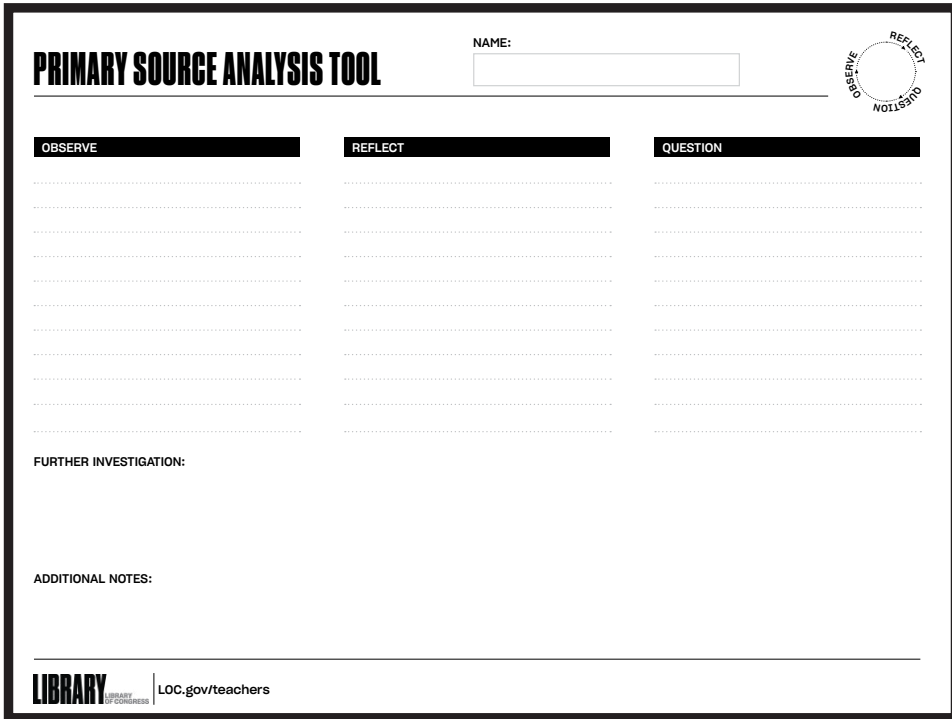
Figure 9. *General Grant at City Point*



Note. This photograph is a merging of several images and does not truly display General Grant at City Point. Portions of three photographs were used to create this one photo: (1) his head, from an image of Grant at Cold Harbor, Va. headquarters; (2) the horse and man’s body, from an image of Maj. Gen. Alexander McDowell McCook; and (3) the background, from an image of the Battle of Fisher’s Hill. Handy, L. C. (ca. 1902). *General Grant at City Point* [Composite Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2007681056/>

This analysis tool can be printed or downloaded and completed on a device. Once completed, it can be uploaded, emailed, or printed. Depending on the students' level, this could be completed as a whole group, in teams, with a partner, or independently.

Figure 10. Primary Source Analysis Tool



The form is titled "PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL" in large, bold, black letters at the top left. To the right of the title is a "NAME:" label followed by a rectangular input box. In the top right corner, there is a circular logo with the words "OBSERVE", "REFLECT", and "QUESTION" arranged around the perimeter. Below the title and name field, the form is divided into three vertical columns. The first column is headed "OBSERVE", the second "REFLECT", and the third "QUESTION". Each column contains several horizontal dotted lines for writing. Below these columns, there are two sections: "FURTHER INVESTIGATION:" and "ADDITIONAL NOTES:", each followed by a large blank space for writing. At the bottom left of the form, there is a logo for the "LIBRARY OF CONGRESS" and the text "LOC.gov/teachers".

Note. From Library of Congress.
<https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/>

Although this photo has been altered (in a nineteenth-century fashion), this is useful practice for analyzing documents. Based on the learners' needs in the classroom, the teacher can guide the students through the analysis process or allow them to work in small groups or with partners. Pairing students with different abilities together could be beneficial for students who need support or for learners of other languages. Because this activity is visual, primary grade levels can benefit from visual literacy in the sense that they are using visual evidence to draw conclusions. Allow for discussion among students and guide them as needed.

Figure 11. *Ulysses S. Grant's horses: Egypt, Cincinnati, and Jeff Davis*



Note. *Cold Harbor, Virginia. U.S. Grant's horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS.* (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2018670732/>

After this analysis, the teacher could have the students repeat the analysis process with the photo of Grant's three horses (Figure 11), or if time is an issue; the teacher can just share the photo. Have the students compare the horses in both photos (Figure 9, General Grant at City Point and Figure 11, Ulysses S. Grant's horses). Now, the intention is for the students to corroborate, or determine the consistencies and/or discrepancies, between the horse in the City Point photo and the three horses in Grant's horses' photo. The teacher may want to provide magnifying glasses for a closer look at the photos.

Finally, have the intermediate students do a close read of the article "[Solving a Civil War Photograph Mystery](#)." The teacher could also read this with the students and have them continue to use the term *corroborating* to demonstrate what the research assistant was achieving. The research assistant discovered that if you look very close at the photograph, small scratch marks are found around the horse's body. This is an example of nineteenth-century photoshopping. The research assistant discovered this by comparing, or corroborating, the City Point image to other primary sources, such as photographs and written sources. Depending on the level of the students, the teacher may need to define photoshopping in today's world.

The students should walk away with corroborating experience. Additionally, the students should realize the importance of corroboration and of not believing everything at face value. This activity should help them understand the importance of multiple sources to provide ample support for their claim and strengthen their conclusion/argument.

To wrap up this practice activity, the students should answer the following question through verbalizing their response, complete with supporting evidence: "Are all photographs

to be trusted? Why or why not?” Then the teacher should encourage the students to create their own questions on the topic. The teacher should ask “What questions do you have?” or “What do you wonder about regarding this activity’s topic?” The teacher should encourage students to create a list of sources they would research to determine the answers to their questions.

To take this activity a step further, intermediate students could determine how they could take what they learned from this activity and take informed actions. For instance, they could complete a project to share their new knowledge and encourage others to find supporting evidence prior to believing everything they hear or read. This would require sharing their project with others beyond their classmates. For instance, they could be required to share with one adult outside of school, share with another class, share on the school news, etc.

Corroboration Activity #2: Abraham Lincoln, Grades K-5

Another intriguing and engaging example of corroborating is shown with a famous photo of Abraham Lincoln, titled *Abraham Lincoln* (original photograph by A. H. Ritchie.) The print can be found on the Library of Congress website and is a composite (see [Figure 12](#)). The head of Abraham Lincoln is photoshopped onto John C. Calhoun’s body and background from a prior print by A. H. Ritchie, 1852 (see [Figure 13](#)).

This activity not only addresses the need for corroborating but is also a perfect way to get the students to wonder. The teacher should ask the students: “After learning about this nineteenth-century photoshopped photo, what do you wonder about?” As necessary (as scaffolding for any students, or ESE and ELL students), the teacher should guide them to wondering “Why do you think the photographer chose to photoshop President Lincoln onto Calhoun’s body?” Again, the teacher should emphasize the importance of corroboration, especially with so much fake news circulating in the world. The teacher should share with students what Lum (2020) explains about the photograph trickery in his essay “From Analog to Digital: A Consideration of Photographic Truth”:

A famous photo portrait of Abraham Lincoln has his head placed upon the photo of another politician, John C. Calhoun. The trickery is attributed to Thomas Hicks, although no one knows for certain—a portrait painter from that era who had painted Lincoln before and who was thought to have created this composite in the early to mid-1860s. Many historians believed that the photo was created after Lincoln’s assassination because there were hardly any heroic, presidential-looking portraits of Lincoln at that time. Calhoun’s image is a woodcut while the image of Lincoln is more detailed, because it was taken from Matthew Brady’s portrait of Lincoln, the same one later used for five-dollar bills. Lincoln’s head is actually flipped such that his famous facial mole appears on the wrong side of his

face. In the Calhoun image, the papers on the table say “strict constitution,” “free trade,” and “the sovereignty of the states.” In the Brady image, these words have been changed to read, “constitution,” “union,” and “proclamation of freedom.” Despite the oddness of this chimera, it continues to be widely cited as one of the most important Lincoln presidential images. What is revealed here is that a dignified, full-bodied image of Lincoln in presidential pose was needed when there was in fact an absence. When an image is needed, it does not matter the means. In this case it presents Lincoln in the manner everyone expects Lincoln to be presented. The image fulfills a collective desire. Or it reflects the power of the state to conjure a collective desire to be fulfilled. (p. 214)

To inspire students to seek out additional primary sources and encourage inquiry, prepare a list of kid-friendly, appropriately leveled, so-called facts currently circulating on the Internet. Either assign or allow students to choose one of these “facts.” Have the students conduct research to find at least three reliable sources to either support the fact or dispute or challenge the fact. Another option is to use the website [Fakeout](#). The teacher can select an

Figure 12. Abraham Lincoln

Figure 13. John C. Calhoun



Note. This print is a composite of Abraham Lincoln’s head, John C. Calhoun’s body, and the background of an 1852 print by A.H. Ritchie. Pate, W. (1865). *Abraham Lincoln* [Engraving]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003654314/>

Note. Ritchie, A. H., Hicks, T., & Brady, M. B. (ca. 1852). *John C. Calhoun/painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a daguerotype by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie, ca. 1852.* [Engraving]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/2003679757/>

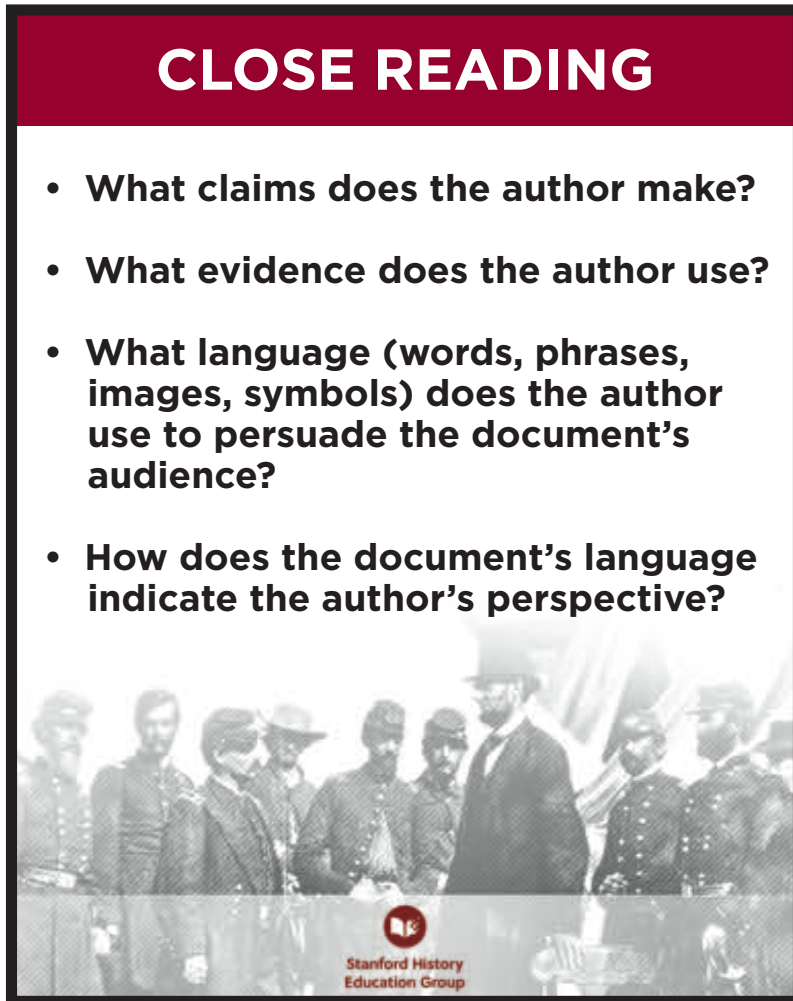
age group for age appropriateness. It is a game to determine which Internet posts are true or fake. The site also offers strategies in the form of short videos on how to verify the claims.

It is necessary for the teacher to share the difference between a reliable source and an unreliable source. For instance, Facebook is not necessarily reliable for research, but instead, if something is read on Facebook, it must be substantiated by additional sources. Another source frequently used by students is Wikipedia. For intermediate students, the teacher should recommend *bib-hopping*, or using the bibliographies on Wikipedia to go to the original sources to determine the accuracy and reliability of a fact. Ultimately, their resource will be the original sources, not Wikipedia. For instance, Wikipedia mentions the Civil War photo mystery in the article "[Photograph manipulation](#)." At the bottom of the website page, the bibliography lists [Library of Congress, "Solving a Civil War Photograph Mystery"](#) as one of the references. Now a researcher can corroborate what Wikipedia has stated, but instead use a reputable website as their source. A good way to explain this to students is to make the distinction of using the Internet for searching versus research. If a student wants to know the Super Bowl winner from 1992, conduct an online search.

To finish, the students could take informed action by creating a podcast, a poster, or a video recording which includes modeling an analysis of one of the sources used in the activities, concluding "fake news" or "Photoshopping," where appropriate, and pointing out the importance of corroboration. Finally, the students will share their informed action project with another class, their family, or on the school news.

Historical Thinking Skill: Close Reading

Figure 14. Close Reading Poster



Note. From Stanford History Education Group.
<https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/close-reading-classroom-poster>

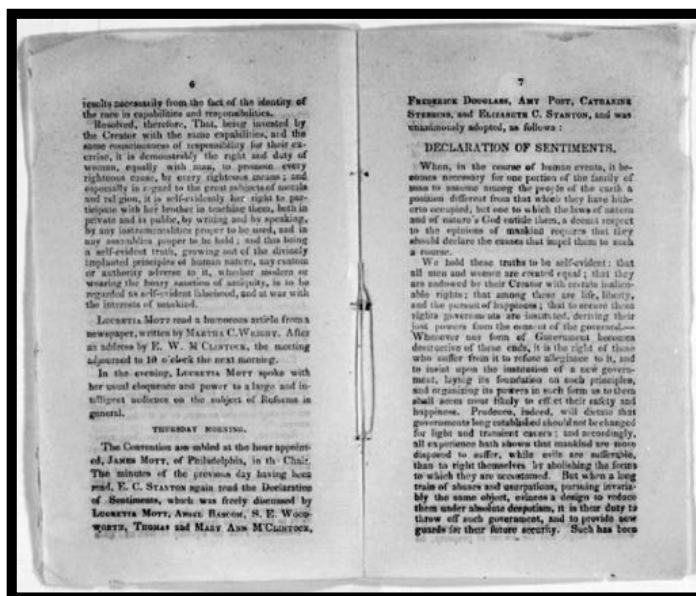
The historical thinking skill of *close reading* (Figure 14) forces the reader to take a close look at what the author is attempting to portray to the reader. Close reading is a historical thinking strategy that involves identifying the author's claims, evaluating evidence, and evaluating and dissecting the author's language. However, all these elements do not need to be addressed in every close reading lesson. This strategy is accomplished through purposeful rereading of text, focusing on what the author states, what the words mean, and what the structure of the text communicates to us (Fisher & Frey, 2012).

For instance, questions a teacher could ask include “What claims does the author make?” “What evidence does the author use?” “What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document’s audience?” and “How does the document’s language indicate the author’s perspective?” Close reading places the meaning in the text itself. The author’s intentions are not what readers should be probing, but the author’s words are the focus.

According to Shanahan (2013), a leading literacy scholar, close reading means understanding the meaning of the text with little or no outside information. Close reading includes reading and rereading, thinking about the words and structure used to write the text. Close reading generally involves a minimum of three readings of the same passage. For instance, the first read is a read for comprehension. When the student has read the passage once, they should be able to reiterate what they read or answer comprehension questions. The second read involves the reader taking a closer look at what the author is attempting to do with the words they selected, what types of literary devices were used, or how the writing was organized. The second reading does not always include rereading the entire article but could instead mean rereading specific parts.

For example, take the *Declaration of Sentiments* (Figure 15), alongside the *Declaration of Independence*. For elementary-level students, specifically intermediate, this document would need to have passages extracted, and then the teacher would need to provide students with a “translation” of those passages. More advanced elementary students may see the similarities without the teacher’s assistance.

Figure 15. *Declaration of Sentiments*



Note. Stanton, E. C. (1848). *Scrapbook on the Woman’s Rights Convention, prepared by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1848* [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. <https://www.loc.gov/item/mss412100152/>

The *Declaration of Sentiments* lists male oppression toward women as well as suggests possible solutions. It was signed by 32 men and 68 women during the first American women's rights convention that was also organized by women, held in Seneca Falls, New York, in July 1848. The *Declaration of Sentiments* eventually became the foundation for the 19th Amendment, in which women received the right to vote in 1920.

The authors of the *Declaration of Sentiments* used the *Declaration of Independence* as the backbone of their document. But why did they opt to use the same layout and many of the same words from the *Declaration of Independence* to create the *Declaration of Sentiments*? Of course, the authors' intentions were to parallel the two documents based on the struggles of the Founding Fathers and the struggles for women's rights. Using this literary maneuver provided a powerful declaration for women. This second reading could be comparing what pieces of the declarations were similar or the same and what was different. For a third reading, the reader would go deeper and determine what is meant by the words selected, what the authors' point was in writing this text, and what textual connections can be made.

The next activities are simple and specifically focused on the skill of close reading. After the students practice close reading, the teacher needs to continue offering historical thinking practice by including a variety of primary and secondary sources, based on specific grade-level content, using inquiry-based learning (such as the C3 Framework).

Close Reading Activity #1: *The Important Stuff*, Grades K-5

“Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?”

Use a copy of [The Important Stuff](#), which are notes written in the hand of Howard Ashman for Disney's *Beauty and the Beast*, ca. 1989. This piece may not meet specific content standards, other than the use of primary sources. However, the intention of this selection was to provide engagement to elementary students who can relate with this animated story. To begin the activity, have the students focus on the first section which ends with the word “period.” Guide the students through a close reading exercise. Have the students read it once (or for emerging readers, students who need support, ESE learners, or ELL learners, the teacher may need to read it to them) and discuss what they read (reiterate) with a shoulder partner. Keep in mind that it may be necessary for the teacher to read it due to the handwriting. Many students enjoy the challenge of deciphering the handwriting. Allow for plenty of discussion and put procedures in place so that the students will have respect for each other's thoughts and ideas (Boyle-Baise & Zevin, 2014). All students will benefit from this, and it will meet the needs of all learners through listening to other students' responses, as well as offering their own interpretations in a comfortable environment. Additionally, for students who need support, allow them to restate what they heard from another classmate if they cannot come up with their own response.

Next, have the students read (or have the teacher read, based on academic levels) the document a second time to closely inspect each word to determine why Ashman used certain words (see [Figure 1](#), SHEG’s chart, “evaluate author’s word choice; understand language is used deliberately”). For instance, “Why did he choose ‘handsome, brutal hunk’ to describe Gaston?” “Why did he write down two different names, ‘Gaston’ and ‘Gerard’?” “Why did he choose to use so many adjectives?” “Why did he decide to write a one-word sentence?” Reading documents multiple times is natural for historians (and maybe even some teachers). Students will struggle with understanding and appreciating the need to read a source more than one time. Teachers must remind students that the purpose for each close read varies and that they are using a different lens each time. In this case, they are not always unpacking vocabulary or main ideas as in traditional reading lessons but instead analyzing the document using historical thinking.

For the third read, have the students focus on “What was Ashman’s point in writing this piece?” Also, have the students discuss how this text corroborates with other primary sources. The teacher could guide students to seek additional primary sources, or for kindergarten through third grade, the teacher could supply the students with additional primary sources. Fourth- and fifth-grade students could determine the primary sources for themselves. However, as the teacher is teaching this skill, they will need to provide guidance and possibly even suggestions. For this activity, an easy option for an additional source is a copy of Disney’s *Beauty and the Beast* book. They can compare and contrast, or corroborate, the notes with the actual literature. Additionally, they could corroborate the notes with the video (clips) of Disney’s *Beauty and the Beast*. Assign students to have a discussion with their partner or team based on the question: “Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?” The students need to use specific evidence from Ashman’s notes, as well as a video clip or book used in class. Finally, have students create a social media post responding to the question: “Why did Ashman use the word choices he used?” Most intermediate students will know what a social media post is if it is referred to by a specific name: Instagram, Facebook, or Twitter. However, the teacher may need to give a brief explanation to primary students. Students may choose to draw a picture or use words for their post. For example, kindergarten students may draw a picture and caption using phonetic spelling or verbalizing their caption to the teacher. For intermediate grade levels, the teacher may offer a sentence starter, such as: “Did you ever wonder why Ashman used the word choices he did for *Beauty and the Beast*? He used _____ because...” In either case, the teacher should hang up the end products and have other classmates comment on their posts.

Once students have completed this activity, they will have experienced distinguishing author’s claims, assessing evidence, and evaluating and analyzing the author’s language. Close reading is accomplished through purposefully rereading text, concentrating on what the author specifically states, what the words indicate, and what the structure of the text

conveys to the reader (Fisher & Frey, 2012). With further similar activities, students will have a better understanding of close reading and reap the benefits of this specific skill.

Again, the teacher should note the importance of students questioning and prompt the students to create questions. The teacher could simply ask the students, “What questions do you have?” However, in the beginning stages of using historical thinking strategies, as well as questioning, the students may need additional prompting, such as “If you were given the opportunity, what questions would you ask Howard Ashman?” or “After completing this activity, what do you wonder about? As a sentence starter, please use ‘I wonder...’”

Close Reading Activity #2: *A Happy Day in Birmingham*, Grades K-5

“Why did the author, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., choose the words he chose in his speech ‘A Happy Day in Birmingham,’ May 10, 1963?”

As a Baptist minister and activist, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., became the most noticeable orator and leader in America’s Civil Rights Movement. For this next activity, the students will have an opportunity to listen to a short clip of Martin Luther King, Jr., giving a speech, *A Happy Day in Birmingham, May 10, 1963*. However, a transcription of the clip is provided to offer a visual of the specific words and phrases. To begin the activity, the teacher should share with the students that they will be focusing on the following question, as they listen to the clip: “Why did the author, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., choose the words he chose in his speech?” The teacher should play [the clip](#) from the American Archive of Public Broadcasting³ two or three times for the students, without any discussion or information. Then, the teacher should have the students read the transcript:

Without a doubt, the world will never forget the thousands of children and adults who gave up their own physical safety and freedom and went to jail to secure the safety and freedom of all men. I must say this.... (King, 1963)

The teacher should guide a discussion, asking each of the following questions, one at a time, and allowing for ample time for the students to discuss each question with a partner: “What claims does Dr. King make?” “What language (words, phrases, images) does Dr. King use to persuade the audience he is speaking to?” “Why did he use the words ‘all men?’” “Why did he use the word ‘never?’” “How does the document’s language indicate Dr. King’s perspective?” For kindergarten and first grade children, the teacher may want to break it down into simpler language, such as: “What is Dr. King telling us about?” and “What words do you think are most important?”

³ American Archive of Public Broadcasting is a collaboration between the Library of Congress and WGBH to preserve the most significant public television and radio programs of the past 60 years, including audio, film, and video history.

At this point, the teacher should share some background information with the students regarding the march to which Dr. King is referring. Remember that most children will be unfamiliar with the needed context. In the spring of 1963, children marched in Birmingham, Alabama, to show their civic action against segregation. These children were later arrested. *Let the Children March*, by Monica Clark-Robinson with art by Frank Morrison (2018), is a great children's book to provide additional historical context and close reading practice. Other books regarding Dr. King and his peaceful actions include the following: *We March*, by Shane W. Evans (2016); *As Fast As Words Could Fly*, by Pamela M. Tuck (2013); *Martin's Big Words: The Life of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.*, by Doreen Rappaport (2007); and Kadir Nelson's illustrated version of *I Have a Dream*, by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (2012).

It is also important to continue having the students practice questioning. It is their turn to create questions. For instance, provide them scaffolding on creating their own questions by asking them "After completing this activity, what questions do you have? What sources would help you to determine the answers to your questions?" If further prompting is needed for ESE or ELL students, ask them "If you could ask Dr. Martin Luther King a question or two, what would they be?"

Although this lesson was specifically focused on using the historical thinking skill of close reading, the content addresses civic skills to promote educated citizenry. The teacher could probe students to respond to: "How should conflicts about diversity (differences) be prevented or managed?" and "How can people work together to promote the values and principles of American democracy?" It may be necessary for the teacher to address the definition of the word "diversity." For primary or lower-level learners, the teacher could use this prompt instead: "How can we help people be nice to each other, even if they are different than each other?"

Addressing Bias

Instruction regarding bias (being partial to something or some idea) is critical to historical thinking in the classroom. A reader's bias has a way of influencing how reliable a source is and readers need to take this into account. Teachers need to recognize their own biases and make the best attempt not to show their biases when providing appropriate instruction. Although being unbiased is an impossibility, recognizing our own biases is possible and is a crucial element of critical thinking (Friesem, 2018.) Even elementary students come to school with various biases, such as biases on current events; or biases based on family values and traditions. It is necessary for the teacher to prepare the students to experience this and teach them to look at a variety of perspectives so they can process the sources without involving their personal biases. Teachers and students must recognize their biases, consider other perspectives, and conduct research to reach informed decisions. Teachers need to teach students to have an open mind and locate information that will support their responses

to assigned questions and inquiries. Often, the word “bias” is viewed as a derogatory term. However, for the purpose of teaching students to be historical thinkers, the word “bias” should be focused on perspective. As students are developing critical thinking, teachers should model open-mindedness and encourage them to embrace open-mindedness as well as intellectual humbleness (Scheibe & Rogow, 2012). Ultimately, teachers want to prepare students to be optimistic about making the world a better place, to become inquiring lifetime learners, and to understand how to communicate ethically and how to be active listeners (Sperry, 2010).

Conversely, bias should be recognized as giving primary and secondary sources value. Without bias, sources would be void of opinion, and primary sources with this type of bias are needed to help us understand history (Lang, 1993). Teachers should ask guiding questions such as “What is this source’s bias?” and “How does the bias add to our picture of the past?” Recognizing the different biases will help students to develop critical thinking skills. These learned skills will transfer over to other academic areas, as well as their personal lives.

Conclusion

Standardized testing has created a weakness for schools to provide adequate instruction in social studies (Heafner, 2020), especially at the elementary level. The marginalization at the elementary levels has affected the complexity of the subject and has decreased the students’ abilities to be problem solvers and critical thinkers (Heafner et al., 2007; Heafner, 2020; Heafner & Fitchett, 2012). Other scholars argue that social studies has deteriorated due to traditional instructional strategies, such as lecturing, use of textbooks, and teacher direction (Cuban, 1982; Thacker et al., 2017; Saye, 2013).

Teacher candidates who are learning what historical thinking is, how to use historical thinking strategies paired with primary sources, and how to teach historical thinking strategies using primary sources, will help to fill the gap created by this marginalization. It is essential for students in the elementary, middle, and high school classrooms to be equipped with the necessary skills, knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions to be actively engaged citizens in society (Golston, 2010; Herczog, 2010; NCSS, 2010; NCSS, 2013). When social studies is properly taught, students will become active members of a democratic society (Heafner, 2020). Historical thinking will ultimately prepare students for their future careers and their responsibilities as active citizens of the United States (Breakstone et al., 2013; Monte-Sano, 2011; Reisman, 2011; Reisman, 2012; Wineburg et al., 2011).

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Appendix

Annotated Resources

Resource	Source Citation and Link	Description
Abraham Lincoln	Pate, W. (1865). <i>Abraham Lincoln</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2003654314/	This is a print of Lincoln, and it is a composite. The head of Abraham Lincoln is superimposed on a John C. Calhoun's body and has the background of an earlier print by A. H. Ritchie from 1852.
American Indian Smithsonian Institute	https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360/	This website (NK360°) provides educators and students with new perspectives on Native American history and cultures. Most Americans have only been shown part of the story, generally from a single perspective through the lenses of media and textbooks. The website provides educational materials, virtual student curricula, and professional development for teachers that incorporate Native narratives, more comprehensive histories, and accurate information to inform teaching and learning about Native America. NK360° confronts popular assumptions about Native peoples and presents a view that includes not only the past but also the vivacity of Native peoples and cultures today.
America's Story from America's Library	http://www.americaslibrary.gov/index.html	America's Story from America's Library wants the readers to have fun with history while learning at the same time. Their intention is to put the story back in history and display some things that have never been heard or seen before. The site offers letters, diaries, records and tapes, films, sheet music, maps, prints, photographs, and digital materials. Much of what is seen on America's Library will be non-book items, and many of those materials are found only in the collections of the Library of Congress.

C3 Framework	https://www.socialstudies.org/standards/c3	The result of a three-year state-led collaborative effort, the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards was developed to serve two audiences: for states to upgrade their state social studies standards and for practitioners—local school districts, schools, teachers, and curriculum writers—to strengthen their social studies programs. Its objectives are to a) enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines; b) build critical thinking, problem solving, and participatory skills to become engaged citizens; and c) align academic programs to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies.
<i>Chief Little John and the Trail of Tears, October 3, 1790</i> (America’s Library)	http://www.americaslibrary.gov/jb/nation/jb_nation_tears_1.html	A short passage from America’s Library about Chief of the United Cherokee Nation, who repeatedly tried to resist the 1830 Indian Removal Act, but later ended up guiding his people to unfamiliar Oklahoma.
<i>Cold Harbor, Virginia. U. S. Grant’s horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS</i>	<i>Cold Harbor, Virginia. U.S. Grant’s horses: on left, EGYPT, center, CINCINNATI, right, JEFF DAVIS. (1864). [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2018670732/</i>	Photograph of Ulysses S. Grant’s three horses.
<i>Declaration of Sentiments</i>	Stanton, E. C. (1848). <i>Scrapbook on the Woman’s Rights Convention, prepared by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, 1848</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/mss412100152/	
<i>Edison and the Kansas Housewife Assessment</i> (SHEG lesson)	https://sheg.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/download-pdf/Edison%20and%20the%20Kansas%20Housewife%20Assessment_1.pdf	A specific lesson/assessment from the Stanford History Education Group for contextualizing skill practice.
Fakeout	https://newsliteracy.ca/fakeout/	Fakeout is a website to bring awareness to fake social media posts. The teacher can select an age group for age appropriateness. It is a game to determine what social media posts are true or fake. The site also offers strategies in the form of short videos on how to verify the claims.

<p><i>The First Thanksgiving</i> mini-lesson</p>	<p>https://sheg.stanford.edu/history-lessons/first-thanksgiving-mini-lessons</p>	<p>Stanford History Education Group mini-lesson using <i>The First Thanksgiving</i> painting from Library of Congress.</p>
<p><i>The First Thanksgiving</i> painting</p>	<p>Ferris, J. L. G. (1912-1915). <i>The First Thanksgiving, 1621</i>. [Painting]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2001699850/</p>	<p>The painting intended to portray what Thanksgiving looked like with the Pilgrims and Native Americans in the 1600s.</p>
<p><i>Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and it is donated by the food bank</i></p>	<p>Vergara, C. (2020, May 11). <i>Free Food distribution, Corona Seventh Day Adventist Church, 35-30 103rd St., Queens. A family of three gets enough food to last for three days. The bags include a chicken, meat, fruit, cereal and milk and it is donated by the food bank</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/2020633003/</p>	<p>Photograph from 2020 depicting people standing in line waiting for food donations.</p>
<p><i>General Grant at City Point</i></p>	<p>Handy, L. C. (ca. 1902). <i>General Grant at City Point</i> [Composite Photograph]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2007681056/</p>	<p>This photograph is a merging of several images and does not truly display General Grant at City Point. Three photographs were used to create this one photo. The Library of Congress has negatives or prints that show (1) Grant's head, from Cold Harbor, Va. headquarters; (2) the horse and man's body, from Maj. Gen. Alexander McDowell McCook; and (3) the background from the battle of Fisher's Hill, Va.</p>
<p><i>A Happy Day in Birmingham, May 10, 1963</i></p>	<p>https://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip-500-r785p02p?start=1239.73&end=1262.39</p>	<p>This is a 22-second clip of a speech given by Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., regarding children and adults giving up their safety to support the rights of all.</p>

<p><i>Historical Thinking Matters</i></p>	<p>http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/</p>	<p>Roy Rosenzweig and staff from George Mason University, along with Sam Wineburg and staff from Stanford University, reinforce that the most beneficial way to learn something is by observing it being modeled. <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> provides high school students with a framework that teaches them to read documents like historians. Using these “habits of mind,” they will be able to question historical sources and use them to shape reasoned conclusions about the past. Additionally, through use of this website and resources offered, students will become critical users of the vast historical archives on the web. <i>Historical Thinking Matters</i> equips students to navigate the uncharted waters of the World Wide Web. The site is the winner of the American Historical Association’s 2008 James Harvey Robinson Prize for an Outstanding Teaching Aid.</p>
<p><i>Important Stuff</i></p>	<p>Ashman, H. (1989). <i>Important Stuff</i> [Manuscript/Mixed Material]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/exhibits/music-and-animation/beauty-and-the-beast-1991.html</p>	<p>These are notes, written in the hand of Howard Ashman for Disney’s <i>Beauty and the Beast</i>, ca. 1989.</p>
<p><i>John C. Calhoun / painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a dage. by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie</i></p>	<p>Ritchie, A. H., Hicks, T., & Brady, M. B. (ca. 1852). <i>John C. Calhoun/painted by T. Hicks; likeness from a dage. by Brady; engraved by A.H. Ritchie, ca. 1852.</i> [Print]. Library of Congress. https://www.loc.gov/item/2003679757/</p>	<p>This is a painting of John C. Calhoun, by T. Hicks. Calhoun was a member of the House of Representatives (1811–17), Secretary of War (1817–25), Vice President (1825–32), Secretary of State (1844–45), and U. S. Senator (1832–43 and 1845–50).</p>
<p>Kid Citizen</p>	<p>https://www.kidcitizen.net/</p>	<p>Kid Citizen is an online interactive program for students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The program offers a variety of episodes that explore Congress and promote civic engagement through use of primary source photographs and personal connections. The episodes use primary sources to engage students in history, through interactive activities, which foster visual literacy and historical inquiry. The episodes also offer teacher guides, which include NCSS Standards, as well as correlations to the C3 Framework.</p>

<p><i>Let the Children March</i>, by Monica Clark-Robinson with art by Frank Morrison</p>	<p>Clark-Robinson, M. (2018) <i>Let the Children March</i> (F. Morrison, Illus.). Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.</p>	<p>A great children's book to provide additional historical context and close reading practice. In 1963, Birmingham, Alabama, African American children undertook to march for their civil rights after hearing Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., speak. They protested the laws that kept black people separate from white people. Facing terror, hatred, and peril, these children used their voices to make changes.</p>
<p><i>Making Thinking Visible</i> (Teacher Educator Lesson)</p>	<p>http://historicalthinkingmatters.org/ted/lessons/making/</p>	<p>This is a lesson for teacher candidates. Candidates are introduced to the nature of historical reading and thinking and the necessity of making these ways of thinking visible and explicit in their classrooms.</p>
<p>National Archives</p>	<p>https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/hine-photos</p>	<p>This section of the National Archives offers resources for further lessons on child labor.</p>
<p>National Child Labor Committee Collection</p>	<p>http://loc.gov/pictures/collection/nclc/</p>	<p>Working as an investigative photographer for the National Child Labor Committee (NCLC), Lewis Hine (1874-1940) documented working and living conditions of children in the United States between 1908 and 1924. The NCLC photos are useful for the study of labor, reform movements, children, working class families, education, public health, urban and rural housing conditions, industrial and agricultural sites, and other aspects of urban and rural life in America in the early twentieth century. The collection consists of more than 5,100 photographic prints.</p>
<p>Primary Source Analysis tool</p>	<p>https://www.loc.gov/teachers/primary-source-analysis-tool/</p>	<p>Students and teachers can use this simple tool to examine and analyze any kind of primary source and record their responses. Students can download and fill in this PDF, then save, print, e-mail, or upload it. Or, they can print it and fill it in by hand.</p>
<p><i>Reformer Grace Abbott Was Born</i> (America's Story from America's Library)</p>	<p>http://www.americaslibrary.gov/jb/gilded/jb_gilded_abbott_1.html</p>	<p>A short passage about how one woman used informed action to fight for children's rights and against child labor.</p>

<p>The Stanford History Education Group, Historical Thinking Chart</p>	<p>https://sheg.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/download-pdf/Historical%20Thinking%20Chart.pdf</p>	<p>The Stanford History Education Group (SHEG) is an award-winning research and development group that comprises Stanford faculty, staff, graduate students, post-docs, and visiting scholars. The site offers the Reading Like a Historian curriculum and the Beyond the Bubble assessments, as well as research publications and journal publications. SHEG’s current work focuses on how young people evaluate online content. SHEG has created a Civic Online Reasoning curriculum to help students develop the skills needed to navigate the current digital landscape.</p>
<p><i>Teacher’s Guide Analyzing Photographs & Prints</i></p>	<p>https://www.loc.gov/static/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/documents/Analyzing_Photos_and_Prints.pdf</p>	<p>This is a tool offered by Library of Congress to assist teachers, so they may guide students with possible questions as the students analyze primary source documents.</p>
<p><i>Trail of Tears painting</i></p>	<p>Lindneux, R. (1942). <i>The Trail of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838.</i> https://americanindian.si.edu/nk360/removal-six-nations/chokeke/image.cshtml</p>	<p>This oil on canvas painting intended to portray the removal of Native Americans in 1838 was painted in 1942 by Robert Lindneux titled <i>The Trail of Tears, 1838. The removal of the Cherokee Native Americans to the West in 1838.</i></p>
<p><i>Waiting for The Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra</i></p>	<p>Hine, L. W. (1908). <i>Waiting for the Signal. Newsboys, starting out with base-ball extra. 5PM, Times Star Office. Location: Cincinnati, Ohio</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress https://www.loc.gov/resource/nclc.03201/</p>	<p>Photograph of “newsboys,” created by Lewis Wickes Hine (1874–1940), photographer, August 1908. This is a photographic primary source depicting child labor.</p>