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CHAPTER 13

Teaching History and Literacy

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This chapter:

- Provides a rationale for history teachers to teach students the literacy of their discipline.
- Discusses what students need to know about history to read it well.
- Discusses research and practice regarding the teaching of disciplinary literacy during the study of history.
- Provides examples of instructional routines that will help students understand and think about history texts.

THE CASE FOR TEACHING LITERACY IN HISTORY CLASS

When we ask historians how much time they spend reading and writing, they say *all of the time*; and anyone who has studied history understands that making sense of the past requires intense reflection on the written word. Yet history teachers face a particularly knotty dilemma—they have students who, although they may know how to read, struggle with the history textbook and resist reading it ("Boring!"). The archaic language and unfamiliar text organization of historical documents may pose even greater challenges. Teachers may wonder, "Why haven't these students learned how to read in elementary school? And if they can't read, shouldn't the English teachers be teaching them?"

But reading literature isn't the same as reading history. Each discipline has its own way of communicating knowledge—a consequence of

the unique kinds of knowledge they create and the different standards they have for determining what is worth studying. English teachers usually won't know enough about history to be able to teach students what to understand and think about history; nor do they typically engage in such reading themselves. In addition, as students move through the grades, the texts they read become increasingly complex, abstract, and more specifically enmeshed within a disciplinary focus.

Students may start out in third or fourth grade reading science and social studies materials equally well. Subject-matter texts aren't that different initially, but by ninth grade, they certainly are. By then the purposes, language, page formatting, organizational structures, relationships of prose to graphics, role of the author in interpretation, degrees of precision, nature of critical response, and so on, differ markedly. The problem is compounded by the fact that the texts for older students usually address content of which students have little prior knowledge. The reading taught in the English class likely won't support the reading of increasingly complex history texts. It is no wonder, then, that history teachers often eschew the textbook in favor of lectures or videos or having the better students read the text aloud with interspersed teacher explanations. The committed teacher is going to make sure students get the historical information, even if they can't or won't *read* history themselves.

The major job, however, of the history teacher is not to tell students the information from the history books but to enable them to make sense of this information in a sophisticated and appropriate manner. Such reading is essential for college, even in fields other than history (students are often required to learn the history of their major fields). Making decisions about voting requires the kind of reading practiced by historians who consider evidence from multiple sources and opposing perspectives. Digging into the past helps one better understand and operate in the present. In the workplace, an individual who knows how the current situation came to be may have a better idea about how to change it. Yet digging into the past takes initiative and must be done without a teacher's support. Thus, by the time students get through high school, they should be on their way to being *independent* and sophisticated readers of history.

These days most states emphasize the idea that students need to be sophisticated *readers* of history. Reading and writing standards specific to history and social studies are now common in state educational requirements. For instance, in 2010, more than 40 states adopted the so-called Common Core State Standards, which included history reading standards for grades 6–12 (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). Over the decade, many states have either revised or replaced those standards, but they have usually preserved the place of history reading in the curriculum (e.g., Alaska, Indiana). Additionally, the National Council for the Social Studies (2013) has

issued model standards that likewise highlight these disciplinary literacy concepts, and these have been influential in the design of social studies standards in several states (e.g., New York, Ohio), whereas other states have come to these disciplinary literacy concepts on their own (e.g., California). These disciplinary literacy standards aim at fostering the ability to read history texts with understanding, the analysis of multiple primary and secondary sources, and the weighing of the quality of historical evidence and use it to support arguments.

To help students learn to read history, we call for an instructional focus on the discipline of history itself. We argue that, although most history teachers do not know how to teach reading, they do possess a great deal of knowledge as to what it takes to read history. History teachers can support students' reading not by teaching general reading comprehension strategies but by imparting the kinds of thinking needed to interpret the past.

WHAT DO STUDENTS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT HISTORY TO READ IT WELL?

We thought deeply about what students needed to know about history to read history well during a Carnegie-funded study of expert readers in history, chemistry, and mathematics (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008; Shanahan, Shanahan, & Misischia, 2011). We asked historians to think aloud about their reading processes as they read. To help interpret these responses, we drew on Wineburg's seminal study (1991) in which he compared the reading of historians and high school students, and we reviewed the work about history processes (e.g., Lee, 2005). As part of Project READi, an Institute of Education Sciences (IES)-funded Reading for Understanding grant, Cynthia Shanahan and her colleagues have further refined our understanding of what it means to understand history.

Wineburg (1991) found that historians engaged in processes that helped them think about the ideas, whereas high school students merely tried to remember facts. Wineburg identified three processes that historians employed that were not evident among students: (1) They *sourced*—they thought about where information came from, who the author was, and when it was written; (2) they *contextualized*—they looked at when the writing was produced and thought about the historical contexts under which it was written; and (3) they *corroborated*—they noted the agreements and disagreements across texts, ascribing confidence to corroborated information.

The historians in our study engaged in these processes as well but revealed additional ones. For example, a historian, while reading documents expressing different perspectives on the question "Was Lincoln the greatest president?" said:

> "I don't know him very well, but [the author] is part of a right-wing group of Southern conservatives who is a secessionist. I'm not sure that the best model for thinking about Lincoln as a president is one that comes from a racist. So, I have my critical eyes up a little bit, so it's a bit of a stretch to be friendly to, so I wanted to make sure to read it fairly."

The historian was sourcing, but also was self-critical of his own potentially biased perspective.

Historians also may try to determine which perspectives may have been left out. The historians we worked with strongly recommended that history teachers help their students think about whose voices are not being heard in the historical record. Are women's, Native Americans', or Vietnamese perspectives being omitted? Why?

Historians evaluate a text's coherence, also. Are there gaps in the story or in the logic? Are events out of chronological order? What claims is the author making about the information, and what evidence does the author present to back up those claims? Are they consistent or contradictory? Often students are asked to read narrative history, and they tend to view such text as a series of ill-connected stories. Historians see these collections of narratives as stories assembled and told in a specific way aimed at supporting an argument, and they know how to make connections among the events to unearth the argument.

Historians study change over time and use frameworks to guide that study. Perhaps they are interested in the political ramifications of an event, or its social, economic, artistic, religious, or technical causes and consequences, or maybe they are interested in the interplay of several of those frameworks. For example, consider historical accounts of the Little Rock Nine, the group of African American high school students who spent a year in what had been an all-White school in Arkansas until Governor Faubus used a loophole in the state law to close the school. The integration of Central High School was affected by politics (e.g., Eisenhower used his presidential powers to send in federal troops; some say Faubus's resistance was to protect his own political power, and not because he was racist) and legality (e.g., *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas,* was the impetus for integration, and Faubus used states' rights as a legal argument for resistance). However, these events were affected by social (e.g., the civil rights movement, the Ku Klux Klan) and even technical (e.g., advent of televised reporting) influences, too. By thinking in terms of frameworks, historians can sharpen their analysis of change over time.

Historians also classify systems such as governments into categories, such as feudalism or monarchy; they think thematically (exploring "processes of migration," "expansion and retraction of rights," or "changes in economic systems"), and they interpret the relationships among events. Just because a series of events is chronological does not mean the relationship is causative; or, if an author tells about events in a particular sequence, that

does not mean that the events occurred in that order. Time sequences may reveal causation, but they also may simply be due to coincidence or chance.

Historians have varying theories of history. Some historians operate from the belief that history is a story of progress; others think that it is a documentation of social decline. Some believe history is fueled by the great men (and women) that lead it; others believe it is fueled by the hopes and desires of the masses and that the so-called "great men" respond to the movements, like corks on the water. Note what one historian told us about an author's theoretical stance:

> "My response is first of all I'm always kind of very suspicious and weary of the kind of 'great man in history' approach, so I'm looking kind of carefully at how the author is embedding this argument. In other words, are they trying to undermine that great man in history, are they addressing the problem and dealing with the problem, or are they letting the problem just kind of fester without addressing it?"

All such considerations about history are based on a set of assumptions about historical accounts. The nature of historical inquiry leads historians to these beliefs. Unlike scientists, who rely on systematic descriptions of observed phenomena and experimental evidence, historians must rely on the study of primary (documents and artifacts) and secondary (e.g., the works of other historians) sources that already exist and that must be found through inexact search processes. Whereas experiments may allow scientists to predict with a degree of certainty what will happen in the future, historians can make no such predictions. Scientists can determine probability; historians can only hope to determine *plausibility*, given evidence that is incomplete, often contradictory, possibly biased, and almost always inconclusive. Because of that, historians are always aware that historical accounts consist of different interpretations or approximations of the past—not of the truth—and they know that one's interpretation of history is always contestable; much of history is argument. Events are not significant unless they are claimed to be so, and this claim may be flawed or based on incomplete evidence. Historians understand that each interpreter of an event has a point of view and a historical context from which to study the past (e.g., during the first half of the 20th century, historians were particularly unkind to the "Radical Republicans" who worked to end slavery in the United States, but since the civil rights movement, they have been viewed more sympathetically). Given these limitations, historians recognize the need to be critical in determining the trustworthiness of any particular story of history.

The big idea here is that historians see *everything* in history as argument—with a series of claims about the past and evidence for these claims—even if history is written as a story. Read, for example, the following excerpt from a history textbook:

> Their [bus boycotters'] victory would inspire a new mass movement to ensure civil rights for African Americans. A series of local struggles to dismantle segregation—in the schools of Little Rock, in the department stores of Atlanta, in the lunch counters of Greensboro, in the streets of Birmingham—would coalesce into a broad-based national movement at the center of American politics. By 1963, the massive March on Washington would win the endorsement of President John F. Kennedy, and his successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, would push through the landmark Civil Rights Act and Voting Rights Act. (Farragher, Buhle, Czitrom, & Armitage, 2009, p. 1009)

This text follows a chronological account of the Montgomery bus boycott. That the historians chose this particularly well-known event as *the* event inspiring a new mass movement is their interpretation—a claim they make presumably on the basis of evidence. Was it the very first nationally televised action by those seeking integration? Did they base the claim on the interpretations of other accounts? Historians would ask those questions rather than simply accept the claims.

The problem is that most historical accounts that students read in class are from textbooks that tend to report history as a grand narrative. History in such books is told as an unfolding chronological story, with implicit rather than explicit claims, and usually without explicit evidence. To muddy the water, history texts report many widely accepted facts. World War II ended in 1945. Columbus sailed in 1492. To students, such historical accounts appear to be factual, cut-and-dried accounts of the past, not meriting deep thought. People's motivations, the relationship of one event to another, or whether the event was causative or coincidental are all potentially controversial interpretations, but this possibility is hidden from students if they are not taught to pay attention to them.

Although students accept the truth of what is presented in a history class, historians use these insights about historical processes and the nature of evidence and argument to guide their reading. They approach a text seeking clues to the source and context even before beginning to read the text itself. When they do read the text, they seek clues that will help unmask an author's perspective or bias, the nature of the argument or claim, and the quality of the evidence. Historians continue to evaluate these things as they read, and based on their judgments of a text's trustworthiness, they determine their own stance toward the information. We argue that helping students to read like historians will lead to higher levels of engagement and, ultimately, a better understanding and use of history.

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS IN THE READING AND WRITING OF HISTORY

Functional linguists have studied the differences among texts in different subject areas, including history (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008). They find that sentences in history texts are unique because of their heavy emphasis

on intention. History sentences are often about historical actors, their intentions, motivations, and goals, and the tactics they use to accomplish or attain these. Such sentences would be out of place in a science text, where the writing aims to suppress ideas of intention. Atoms do not choose to move; they are acted upon or implicated in natural processes. In history, the sentences that describe the actors' goals and tactics also include information about time and place. Consider the following sentence: "One year after the Little Rock Nine integrated Central High School, Governor Faubus shut down further attempts to integrate by abruptly closing the Little Rock, Arkansas, public schools." In this sentence, time is construed as one year after; place is construed as Little Rock, Arkansas; and the actor is Governor Faubus. The goal that he acts toward is "to shut down further attempts to integrate," and the manner in which this is done is "by abruptly closing the Little Rock, Arkansas public schools."

Fang and Schleppegrell suggest that teaching students how to read history sentences can increase their basic understanding of history by keeping them focused on the historical purpose of such syntactic constructions. They also note that, whereas science text is filled with vocabulary that is technical in nature (e.g., *mitochondria, eutrophication, osmosis*), the challenge for history readers is not so much grasping the technical terms, which are often borrowed from economics or other social sciences, but making sense of general academic vocabulary, which can be quite daunting. Note the following excerpt from a high school history textbook: "Dr. King's prophetic speech catapulted him into leadership of the Montgomery bus boycott—but he had not started the movement. When Rosa Parks was arrested, local activists with deep roots in the black protest tradition galvanized the community with the idea of a boycott" (Farragher et al., 2009, p. 1008). Students may have difficulty with *prophetic, catapulted, activists,* and *galvanized,* none of which would be considered discipline-specific or technical. In addition, given that history is an argument, vocabulary in historical accounts often carries ideological baggage (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2018)—it matters whether one writes of *affirmative action* or *reverse discrimination; protesters* or *agitators; the Civil War* or the *War between the States*. Part of reading history is interpreting the perspectives evident in the choices of words, not just the meanings of the words.

We asked historians what difficulties they expected students to confront in reading history. They noted that historical documents could be challenging because language has changed over the years. If students are reading old documents, they may be confused by the unfamiliar vocabulary and writing style. Note the following excerpt by Ensign Jeremy Lister, a British officer who writes an account of the night of Paul Revere's ride:

> I immediately offered myself a Volunteer in the room of Hamilton and was [ac]cepted of when I immediately returned to my lodgings to equip myself for a march, and met the Company on their way through the town in order

> to embark in boats to cross the bay above Charlestown, when we was just embarking, Lt. Col. Smith wish'd me to return to town again and not go into danger for others, particularly Hamilton whose illness was suppos'd by everybody to be feign'd which 'twas clearly proved to be the case afterwards, but wishing much to go, for the Honor of the Reg't thinking it would be rather a disgrace for the Company to March on an Expedition, more especially it being the first, without its compliment of Officers, therefore my offer was [ac]cepted. (National Park Service, n.d.)

Even though the document is written in a rather informal style, the conventions of spelling, capitalization, sentence endings, and phrasing are not familiar or modern.

Also, documents may be written in "legalese," or in some other arcane style. Note the language of the Thirteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction."

The meanings of vocabulary words can change, too, over time, or words may be dropped from common usage. Students may not know what the word *gilded* means, as it is not used much anymore. They are often appalled when reading a document from the first half of the 1900s to come across what is now seen as a pejorative term, *Negro,* and they make assumptions about the users of such terms. They lack what Lee (2005) refers to as "historical empathy," or the ability to interpret text in light of the time in which it was written (most likely because they lack background knowledge). This lack of empathy may appear in judgments about other social conventions, too. For example, students analyzed a photograph from the 1880s of a family. Because no one was smiling, students inferred that they were angry about the Native Americans nearby, not understanding that the dour looks were due to the long exposure times required to make such photographs.

Such interpretive challenges can and should be the focus of instruction. It is incumbent upon those who teach history to read texts before having students read them, to note areas of potential difficulty, and to have ways ready to help students overcome these difficulties if they do, indeed, occur.

RESEARCH AND PRACTICE OF HISTORY LITERACY

Research regarding the teaching of reading and writing in history is closely aligned with that on the reading and writing of multiple texts. This research can be referred to in relation to both topics because, as the historians told us, reading more than one text and reading different genres is essential to history. With one text, there is no way to determine whether another perspective may have led to a different interpretation. Also, historians use

primary source documents and artifacts to guide their interpretations, not relying merely on secondary texts written by other historians.

The historians we studied were so adamant that more than one text be used that they suggested that, if nothing else were available, at least another textbook should be introduced for the purpose of comparison. If students *never* encounter contradictory interpretations of an event, they will *never* understand what it is to be engaged in historical inquiry. At the heart of that inquiry is the idea that history is a complicated story and that the "truth" about the past can never be fully known. The past can only be understood as an interpretation of the competing narratives of individuals who come from different perspectives.

To summarize the research on teaching history literacy, there is growing evidence that students as early as fourth grade can be taught to read as historians do and that such reading increases students' understanding of history and the depth of their engagements in reading and leads to higher levels of reading comprehension and better writing of historical arguments (De La Paz & Felton, 2010; Hynd-Shanahan, Holschuh, & Hubbard, 2004; Monte-Sano, 2011; Monte-Sano & De La Paz, 2012; VanSledright, 2002a, 2002b; Wolfe & Goldman, 2005). For example, one study found that developmental community college students, when asked to engage in sourcing, contextualization, and corroboration while reading history, wrote significantly better essay test answers—more detail, better use of evidence, better organization—than students who were taught general reading strategies (Leahy, 2010). In another study, Reisman (2012) simply had teachers insert lessons on reading historical documents and writing about history into their existing units. Over the course of the study, she found that teaching these led students to perform better on measures of historical thinking. Furthermore, these students transferred the thinking strategies they learned to the study of current issues, and they even did better on tests of factual knowledge and general reading comprehension.

The field of history teaching has gone further down the path of disciplinary literacy than other fields, perhaps because historians have been so articulate about what it means to read in their field. There are a number of resources available for teachers in this area, many of them online, and we have provided an extensive sample of those sources in Table 13.1. These sites provide primary source documents, text sets, instructional routines, lesson plans, video clips, and other support materials that should support document-centered history teaching.

In addition, research in this area has been burgeoning, though this is not the place for a thorough review of that work. For example, an IES research project, Project READi, examined the development of students' ability to understand and write arguments in history in grades 6–12. This project started from the premise that the nature of argumentation differs across disciplines and that it would be possible to teach students how to

TABLE 13.1. Free Online Sources for Disciplinary Literacy in History in Grades 6–12

These resources provide primary documents, text sets, lesson plans, and other resources for document-centered social studies instruction.

Anneberg Learner
www.learner.org/series/reading-writing-in-the-disciplines/reading-and-analyzing-texts/reading-like-a-historian

Case Maker
https://mycasemaker.org

Digital Public Library of America
https://dp.la

Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History
www.gilderlehrman.org

Historical Scene Investigation
https://hsi.wm.edu

Historical Thinking Project
https://historicalthinking.ca

Library of Congress
www.loc.gov

Living New Deal
https://livingnewdeal.org

National Archives
https://learninglab.si.edu

National Geographic Education
www.nationalgeographic.org/education

National World War II Museum
www.nationalww2museum.org

PBS History Detectives
www.pbs.org/opb/historydetectives/educators

Smithsonian History Explorer
https://historyexplorer.si.edu

Smithsonian Learning Lab
https://learninglab.si.edu

Stanford History Education Group
https://sheg.stanford.edu

Teaching American History
https://teachingamericanhistory.org

(continued)

TABLE 13.1. *(continued)*

Teaching Channel *https://learn.teachingchannel.com/video/reading-like-a-historian-curriculum*
Teaching History *https://teachinghistory.org*
Teaching Tolerance *www.tolerance.org*
United States Census Bureau *www.census.gov/schools*
Voices of Democracy *https://voicesofdemocracy.umd.edu*
Women in World History *http://chnm.gmu.edu/wwh/modules.php*
World History Sources *http://chnm.gmu.edu/worldhistorysources/index.html*
Zoom In! *http://zoomin.edc.org*

present evidence and make warrants (linkages between evidence and claims) appropriate to history. This project resulted in a number of useful frameworks for supporting instructional practice in this area (Goldman, 2018; Goldman et al., 2016). Studies have shown that it is possible to successfully teach upper elementary grade students, even lower ability readers and those with disabilities, to use disciplinary appropriate strategies to improve their history reading and writing (De La Paz et al., 2017; Wissinger, De La Paz, & Jackson, 2021). Similar results have been demonstrated with ninth graders (Learned, 2018). Unfortunately, although studies are championing the results of such work, other research shows that such approaches are not yet being used much in schools (Paul, 2018).

HOW SHOULD WE TEACH THE LITERACY OF HISTORY?

Change Students' Ideas about What History Is

The biggest challenge in teaching students to read history is their abiding distaste for it. Students resist such reading because they find it boring or because the texts are challenging and don't seem worth the effort. Teachers need to disrupt these students' conceptions of history as being no more than a tedious compendium of past names, dates, and events. We need to change students' beliefs about what it means to read history before trying to teach them historians' reading and writing routines. Teachers can achieve this by

providing students with contradictory texts, perhaps two texts showing differing perspectives (a British account of Paul Revere's ride and an American version) or differing uses of evidence (primary vs. secondary sources, one source vs. several). Focusing attention on such differences makes a point: Accounts of the past are often based on incomplete and contradictory evidence. A teacher can help students *come to their own conclusions* and can reveal to them that history is more complicated and less straightforward than their history textbooks or the historical movies make it seem.

There are other ways to begin the process of reading like a historian. In Project READi, one unit taught by history teachers started with photographs that students analyzed in relation to a question, "What caused the conflict between the Native Americans and the settlers in the Black Hills?" The photographs included some contextual information, such as their dates, so they could be placed in chronological order. Students made inferences that they would later confirm or disconfirm and asked questions that they would later answer through their reading. Reinforced in this lesson were several ideas about history reading: Chronology is important, but it is not the same as causation; historians make hypotheses about the past based on the evidence they have; historians use artifacts such as photographs and texts to construct their interpretations; and understanding history is a process of inquiry into the past. We learned from that initial lesson, however, that even when using photographs, students lacked sufficient background knowledge to allow much contextualization. In subsequent lessons, we provided a short anchor text that set the stage for the question, and that seemed adequate to improve subsequent inferences. The big idea here is to help students see what history really is.

Teach Students the Processes Historians Use

As students dig into primary and secondary texts and artifacts, teach them to engage in the following strategies:

Sourcing

Have students find out about the author and think about what perspective that author may have. Include a discussion about whose perspectives are missing.

Contextualization

Support students' ability to contextualize by asking them to notice the date; if they don't know anything about that time period, help them find out about what was going on then. Guide them in making inferences about why an author wrote as he or she did. One strategy that combines sourcing and

a kind of contextualization is called SOAPStone (Source, Occasion, Audience, Purpose, Subject, and Tone). In this activity, students have to think about the author's stance, but also about when it was written (the Occasion), whom it was written to (Audience), why it was written (Purpose), and what the writing was about (Subject). As students read, they confirm or disconfirm their hypotheses about an author's perspective based on what the author says and the way he or she says it (Tone).

Corroboration

Especially when using multiple texts, students should be engaged in comparison and contrast—looking for corroborated evidence and evidence that is unique or contradicted. Students can make comparison–contrast charts to keep track of this kind of information.

Historical Frameworks

Students can be tasked to look for political, economic, social, or legal tactics. Then they can be asked to reason about the interplay of these frameworks to answer questions such as: What tactics did Governor Faubus use to keep Central High School from being integrated? What tactics did civil rights activists use during the 1950s? How did these change in the 1960s? One way to help students to reason using historical frameworks is a graphic organizer called a pattern organizer (see Figure 13.1). This organizer provides a visual way to display information using the frameworks.

Evaluations of Coherence

Help students notice when parts of a chronology are missing or out of order, or when the reasoning doesn't match the evidence. In a middle-grade classroom, we watched a teacher who was teaching students to engage in history discussions. He assigned roles so that one student looked into the source of the material, another considered the context, and so on. As they read texts about Custer's Last Stand from different perspectives, they noticed that the textbook version had presented the events out of chronological order, making it seem as if one event had led to another, when that could not have happened. The students were outraged and wrote the publisher about what they had discovered.

Argumentation

Expose students to claims and evidence in different genres. A teacher had students watch a PBS documentary on the Freedom Riders. They watched it for a short while and wrote down the claims and evidence they heard.

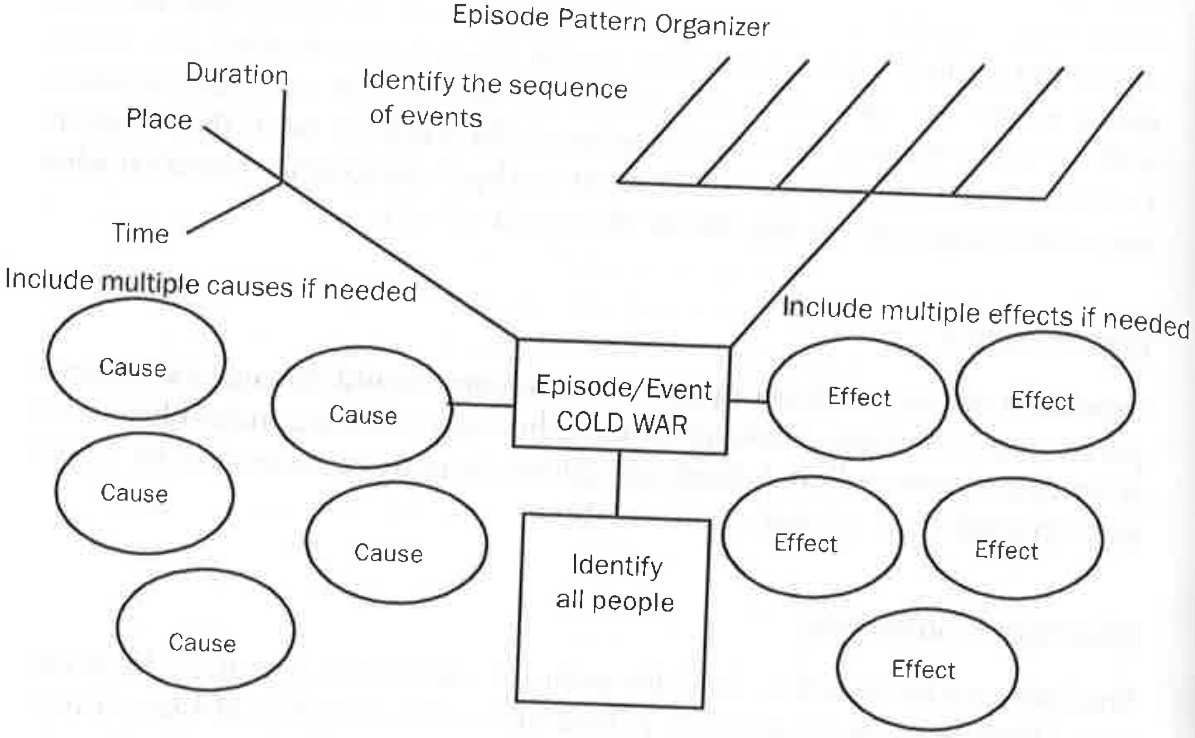

FIGURE 13.1. Pattern organizer.

Then they compared notes with partners, watching a few minutes more. This exercise was more interesting than taking notes on names and dates and provided insights about how documentaries pose arguments. Later, in discussions about the documentarian's decisions, the students exhibited sophisticated ways of thinking. Textbook narratives are usually full of claims without sufficient evidence, whereas popular history books usually cite sources of evidence in some way. Explorations of these traditions of interpretation can spark high-level conversation.

Also, if students are reading to answer a historical question, having a multiple text comparison–contrast chart can provide fodder for writing their own essays. Ask students to put the guiding questions on top and list the names of the different texts down the side. As students read the texts, they enter whatever evidence they found to answer the guiding question. When the students are done reading, they make their own claims based on their thinking about the trustworthiness of the source and its presentation of evidence. The chart, then, becomes a large part of the planning support for student essay writing.

Arcane Vocabulary and Structure

Teachers should create a climate for reading that honors struggle and problem solving. To read like historians, students must really dig into a text,

understanding it at word and sentence levels as well as conceptually. In a sense, students are reading like detectives, looking for clues to an author's perspective, claims, evidence, and tone, and placing the text within a larger group of texts to get a more in-depth and complicated view of the past. Students must learn to do this independently, but initially they will need support. The challenge for teachers is to support them when they have difficulty *without telling them what the text means*. If students struggle with a key vocabulary term, lead them to try to get to the meaning themselves before telling them. Ask questions to lead students to higher levels of thinking. A high school history teacher admitted that this was the hardest thing for her to do. Like most history teachers, she *loved* her subject matter and got so excited about it that she wanted to tell them all about her insights before they had a chance to have any of their own.

Relationships among Events

As mentioned, events can be in chronological order without having a cause–effect relationship. Some events have multiple causes, and some events have multiple effects. Some are simply coincidental. These relationships are the interpretations of historians, and students acting as historians can make inferences about them. Another graphic organizer we use with narrative history is our History Events Chart (see Figure 13.2), in which students summarize each of the historical events reported in the narrative and explain the connections between the events. Thus, fifth graders, while reading a chapter on the American Revolution, had to summarize five sections of the chapter: the fall of Fort Ticonderoga; the Battle of Bunker Hill; the Second Continental Congress; Washington taking command; and the British leaving Boston. As students examined the evidence, they started to discern an argument in the series of "stories." They decided the author was making an unstated claim about the importance of unification in a war (a sophisticated reading for a group of 11-year-olds).

CONCLUSION

The fundamental idea of disciplinary literacy is that texts are not read or written in the same ways and that each discipline has its own rules of evidence and ways of using language. The only way students are likely to learn to be literate in these specialized disciplinary ways is through a kind of apprenticeship that brings them into participation in the discipline rather than as just an observer or a consumer. If students are to be sophisticated readers of history, they need to understand what historians are trying to do, and they need to be introduced to the nature of vocabulary in history or the ways sentences work or how narratives serve as implicit arguments or why we need to think about authors as we read. Research shows that engaging

Event	What happened?	Who?	When?	Where?	Why important?
Connection:					
Event	**What happened?**	**Who?**	**When?**	**Where?**	**Why important?**
Connection:					
Event	**What happened?**	**Who?**	**When?**	**Where?**	**Why important?**
Author's argument:					

FIGURE 13.2. History events chart.

students in reading history in the ways that historians do is beneficial both for history learning and for civic engagement.

DISCUSSION AND ACTIVITIES

1. In what kind of a discussion of the processes of history would you engage students? What historical analysis processes would you involve them in, and then what questions would you ask to get them to think about the nature of history and historical writing?
2. Develop a text set for use in a history unit. Be sure to include both primary and secondary documents and documents that reveal different perspectives.
3. Try out the history events chart yourself. Identify a narrative history chapter, such as in your students' textbook, and then summarize each event and try to analyze the relations among these events to uncover the author's usually unstated arguments or claims. Pay attention to any insights that you develop about this process and how you would take advantage of those during lessons.

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CHAPTER 14

Teaching Literary Literacy

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This chapter offers:

- An overview of empirical work informing disciplinary literacy with literature.
- Examples of literary literacy teaching and learning from one secondary English classroom.
- Conclusions and instructional implications.
- Points for discussion and suggested activities.

Disciplinary literacy is the social and problem-based work with texts that enables forms of critique and knowledge production used within academic and professional fields (Moje, 2015). Proponents argue that disciplinary literacy should be routinely taught in K–12 classrooms, as opposed to solely focusing on content learning and comprehension, in the service of supporting students' epistemic, literate, and linguistic dexterity and agency (e.g., Lee & Spratley, 2010).

Disciplinary literacy in English may include multiple scholarly disciplines, including composition and rhetoric, linguistics, and theater arts. In this chapter, we focus on disciplinary literacy as it relates to literary works (i.e., literature) because of its prominence in the secondary English classroom and because of its primacy in the empirical knowledge base of literacy education. We call this *literary literacy*, which we understand as the holistic practice of generating interpretive and critical knowledge with literary works in community with others.

The phrase "literary literacy" may sound redundant. What would the teaching of literature be if not the teaching of literacy? Yet literacy educators understand that "literacy" is not a single, static set of skills or strategies