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**Children Learning From Children of the Past:
A Study of Fifth Graders'
Development of Empathy With Historical Characters**

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Development of Empathy with Historical Characters**

by

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Dissertation

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Dedication

Dedicated to my cousin,

Kirk Mitchell,

to my children,

Allison and Ben

and

to my Mother,

Pamela Woods Loomis

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Children Learning from Children of the Past :
A Study of Fifth Graders’
Development of Empathy with Historical Characters

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Empathy with historical characters provides a gateway into the development of historical thinking in children. When young students look into the lives of other people, especially children who lived long ago, they are motivated to investigate facts that are relevant to understanding the context of the times and can begin to perceive aspects of the events from a historical perspective.

A research study with fifth grade elementary students was conducted to determine how these students could develop historical thinking skills using both primary and secondary sources. The students engaged in a background study of the first French colony in the state of Texas, Fort Saint Louis, which existed from 1685 until 1689. The researcher and students focused on the lives of four French children who lived with Karankawa natives after the demise of the adult members of the settlement. Using information about the history of the French settlement, as well as literature that describes

the experiences of other children who had lived with Native Americans, the group engaged in discussions about the saga of the Talon children. With this knowledge, the students prepared a script and produced the setting for a drama to share the story of the French colony with the student body. Tape recordings of the group discussions as well as interviews with the individual participants before and after the study comprise the data for analysis of the development of empathy.

While the information is almost the same as in the textbook, students are more motivated to learn facts about an historical era when they are engaged in lessons that encourage active involvement. By participating in historical simulations, discussing the lives of children who lived with Native Americans and helping with the creation of a drama, the students were able to advance their historical thinking skills and to develop empathy with the historical characters.

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Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

My sense is that the future is this wonderfully unfolding pageant, informed completely by our own awareness of the past. You can't possibly know where you're going if you don't know where you've been.

Ken Burns, 1997

History education in the United States has departed from the goal of teaching merely the stories that depict our country's heritage to an emphasis on historical thinking skills. Rather than employ history primarily as a "fundamental tool for socializing the large numbers of immigrants then pouring into the country" (Brophy and VanSledright, 1997), the new purpose of pre-collegiate history education is to give students perspectives on their own life experiences so that they can see themselves not only as a part of the past, but also as a window to the future (Hoge, 1988). The emphasis in history instruction has moved from the "what"--dates and facts-- to the "how"--which is historical thinking skills (Davis, Jr., and Yeager, 2001). Intrinsic to this theory, and the topic of this dissertation, is the concept of perspective taking, or empathy, with historical characters.

Empathy is essential to the understanding of history (Ashby and Lee, 1987; Barton, 1997; Davis, Jr., Foster and Yeager, 2001; Downey, 1995; Knight, 1989; Levstik and Barton, 1997; Seixas, 1996; Shemilt, 1987; Wineburg, 2001). It is also important in getting along with others in daily life, and in learning to understand what is strange and different in another person whether they share the same home, classroom, community or planet. For school-aged children to understand history, they need to develop an ability to see the world through the eyes of its participants and to understand that there are multiple perspectives on the past. The core concept of this project is an investigation of the theme of empathy with historical characters.

Statement of the Problem

The overall problem to be addressed is the need for curriculum and instruction that will call attention to the deeper components of historical understanding, such as empathy, while continuing to satisfy the required standards. New curriculum standards have highlighted the need for effective instruction in social studies, and there has been a corresponding increase in attention to social studies education (Nash, 1996).

Achievement tests have been revised to include more social studies questions. The additional content calls for a stronger focus on the role of instruction in history education. Research studies highlighting new methods for teaching history should be utilized in the future in designing curriculum, instructional strategies, and methods of educational assessment. Each of these components must match students' understanding with their ways of learning history. The drive to reinforce the importance of history in the social studies curriculum has been supported by the National Council for History in the Schools (Nash, 1996). These guidelines state that students need to interpret, analyze, and evaluate the data and to develop empathy for people who lived in the past (Nash, 1996).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of my study is to investigate the development of empathy with historical characters in a small group of fifth grade students by documenting their contributions to discussions and analyzing their input. Results from this study could be used to help provide a framework for elementary social studies researchers and practitioners for the development of children's historical thinking skills, specifically the development of empathy. I will show how the role of instruction influences the progress of these skills with activities designed to promote feelings of empathy.

Rationale

The rationale for highlighting empathy is that empathy plays an important role in the definition of historical thinking concepts. My study serves to solidify what other researchers have found in similar studies with different age groups. However, this study is significant because no studies of fifth grade students that specifically address the development of empathy have been published. The lessons and activities that were used in the study were designed to facilitate empathetic responses and to promote empathetic knowledge, meaning that certain responses that reveal historical comprehension are inherent to an environment that facilitates empathy.

The student population of this study was unique because the participants were self selected and had made a long-term commitment to the project with parental support. Therefore, it differed from classroom studies in which the students are required to participate for a grade. In this small group the students had elected to join the History Club as an after-school activity. As a result, they were motivated by preference rather than requirements. Examples of the motivating factors include interest in the historical figures that lived at Fort Saint Louis, especially the Talon children, a desire to participate in the production of a play and curiosity about the native tribe, the Karankawa. The students had prior knowledge of me as a teacher/researcher due to the pilot study that was conducted on the same campus in the previous semester. Furthermore, I am quite familiar with this particular historical topic.

The format of the sessions differed from a regular classroom setting in that the size of the group, the frequency, and the duration of the meetings, biweekly sessions sixty to ninety minutes long, allowed for intensive interactions. Each session featured extended

conversations that were informal, open-ended, and relevant to the topic. Connections that were made among the students and observed by the teacher augmented the data analysis. Also, other teaching duties or classroom management issues did not distract me nor was I limited by the schedule. Sessions could go over the allotted time without penalty since the students merely returned to their after-school care providers on the school campus.

This paper describes what one teacher/researcher experienced with a small group of self-selected history students. Subsequent studies could look at students who were not comparably motivated. It is reasonable to assume that similar findings might be possible with another fifth grade group if they were given activities that encouraged the development of historical empathy. History educators need to know more about what motivates students to learn history, which activities work best for the development of empathy, and how to implement effective curriculum. Ultimately, the findings from the study are relevant to teachers, researchers, practioners, and curriculum developers.

Research Questions:

The research questions that guided this study were:

- What is the role that empathy appears to play in the development of historical thinking with this group of fifth grade students?
- How do children learn empathy?
- How can educators influence the formation of empathy?

Research Question One:

What is the role that empathy appears to play in the development of historical thinking with this group of fifth grade students?

In this research project the participants were given an opportunity to learn about the first French settlers and their children in the state of Texas. In their study of Fort Saint Louis, the lost colony of La Salle, the theme of empathy evolved from the students' fascination with the lives of the Talon children. Their tragic fate became the central focus in our efforts to explore the history of the French colony as well as the archaeology of the site of their settlement at Fort Saint Louis. Thus, the development of empathy was vital to the fifth grade students' development of historical thinking.

Throughout the pilot study and again with the dissertation study, the students returned to the topic of the Talon children and asked questions about how they lived and what they experienced in the colony and during their time with the Karankawas. Their connection to, or empathy with, these historical figures became the premise of our efforts and was effectively utilized to encompass many aspects of the historical investigation.

Through an investigation of these characters and of the lives they led, we began to understand how the existence of these individuals affected the outcome of French occupation in the southeastern United States. We focused on what is known about the Talon children and then studied primary source accounts written by other European children who had lived with Native Americans. Then the students created their own version of the story about the French colonists who occupied Fort Saint Louis near the end of the Seventeenth Century. The students spent several weeks writing a script, making costumes and props for the set, and rehearsing to perform in front of the entire student body at school (Appendix M).

Research Question Two:

How do children learn empathy?

This research project focused on the role of instruction in the development of perspective taking and empathy as fundamental components of historical thinking skills with activities that utilize historical simulations. These opportunities to take on the roles of people from the past provide “tools to foster empathy and understanding of the people and times being studied” (Brophy and VanSledright, 1997). To move beyond “lists of lifeless dates and the details of military movements,” students and teachers must forfeit instruction dominated by textbooks (Ravitch, 1985). The development of empathy with historical characters helps enable students to project imaginatively into a historical situation and to encourage them to use their “mind’s eye” to bring intuitive observation and judgment into play (Portal, 1987).

As the teacher/researcher, I examined the discourse and inquiry that was generated by a small group of students as they explored the history of an early French colony in what is now the state of Texas. The pupils participated in an elective project in which historical and archeological methods of research were used in order to learn more about an archeological site that includes artifacts from both North American Native and European cultures. The history club employed the mute artifacts as well as the detailed primary documents that illuminate the brief history of the first French colony in Texas (Davis, 2000; Foster, 1998; Muhlstein, 1994; Weddle, 2001). By delving into the story of five siblings whose life experiences straddled three cultures in the latter part of the Seventeenth Century, the students enlarged their frame of reference for how people lived in other times.

Research Question Three:

How can educators influence the formation of empathy?

Educators are central to the goal of helping children develop historical concepts. Teachers who have developed their own historical thinking skills are more likely to be able to pass on these abilities to their students. When a teacher is able to successfully model his/her own passion for learning history, the students are better able to learn that history can be exciting and worthy of further investigation. The teacher must be a learning leader and impart an attitude of interest and even concern for the fate of the historical characters to be studied. Additionally, the teacher is responsible for creating a learning community in which all students are valued and encouraged to participate. Pupils who participate in a learning environment that values the subject of history and promotes historical methods of research will be better able to develop an understanding of rudimentary historical concepts.

Different methods of teaching history will produce different learning outcomes, which must be considered when teaching history (Levstik and Barton, 1997). If a teacher approaches a history lesson by using didactic instruction, the students will learn how to memorize dates, names, and facts about events, but they will be less likely to retain the information after the final exam. On the other hand, when students are allowed to engage in authentic, hands-on learning experiences, the subject of history becomes more meaningful to them. Consequently, students “develop better insight into the past, better historical reasoning abilities and more positive attitudes toward the subject” (Hoge, 1988). The teacher’s role is vital to the process.

Definition of Terms

Historical Thinking

A method for learning history in which the students assemble, examine, interpret and analyze primary source documents and materials in order to create their own historical narratives to describe an historical event or person (Wineburg, 2001).

Empathy

Empathy (especially empathy with historical characters) is the ability to imagine the thoughts and feeling of other people from their own perspectives. (Levstik and Barton, 2004) It means entertaining complex ideas and seeing how they shape views of historical circumstances and goals, even when such ideas and goals may be very different from (and perhaps opposed to) our own (Ashby and Lee, 1987). The two components of empathy are empathy in the realm of a psychological affinity and empathy as a form of historical perspective taking (Davis, Jr., Foster and Yeager, 2001).

Perspective Taking

Perspective taking is described as the “ability to describe the past on its own terms, through the eyes and experiences of those who were there” (NCHS, 1996). It is an attempt to understand a character’s frame of reference without assuming that one can identify with his or her feelings (Pate and Klages, 1999). Many researchers use *empathy* and *perspective taking* interchangeably. However, in this study, the terms perspective taking will be understood as one of two components of empathy.

Primary Sources

Primary sources are original items or documents that have historical significance. They may be artifacts, documents, or personal papers. Primary sources provide information about the historical era from which they originated. They can be personal items (such as belongings, diaries, letters and photos) or public items such as birth certificates, wills, deeds, and proclamations (Davidson and Lytle, 2000).

Secondary Sources

Secondary sources are reports on primary sources and may also serve an interpretive function. Examples of secondary sources are textbooks, history books, encyclopedias, newspapers and periodicals, documentaries (Field, 2004).

Artifacts

An artifact is any item that has been modified by humans. Artifacts provide cultural information about the people who owned them as well as insight into their level of technology. Archeologists and historians utilize artifacts in their study of how people lived in the past (Black, 2000).

Organization of the Study

Chapter One, the introduction to the dissertation, provides a description of the study. The objectives and rationale are presented as well as the purpose of the research study. An overview of the final product is explained in a broad perspective along with inferences about the findings and implications.

Chapter Two encompasses a general review of the literature in both chronological and comprehensive categories with an emphasis on studies of empathy. Social studies education is examined from an historical viewpoint in order to understand how teaching methods have changed over time. Reports on some of the most recent research findings from the field demonstrate the need for reform in the area of history instruction.

Numerous researchers depict how history is created, taught, and learned. However, most germane to this study is educational research that focuses on the concept of developing empathy with historical characters found in trade books. The challenge of assimilating relevant new information into the preexisting social studies curriculum goes beyond the task of the revision of facts and delves into the methodology of teaching historical concepts and finding ways to integrate empathy into the curriculum and methodology.

Chapter Three is devoted to the explanation of the methodology of the research study. The design and methodology of this research are based in the qualitative tradition of case study research as it is applied to education (Merriam, 1998).

Students learned how the primary sources, secondary sources, and the new data (artifacts) from the Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project site all combined to offer

information about the ill-fated colonists of the Seventeenth Century. By providing information to the students and designing activities to promote their historical awareness, I was able to collect data that reveals the development of perspective taking and empathy with historical characters.

The primary source of data for this study is from transcripts of the audiotapes, which were collected at the history club meetings. The lessons and activities were followed by discussions in which students shared their thoughts about events in the lives of the people that we studied. Tapes of these sessions, which represent approximately fifteen minutes of each meeting, were transcribed and retained in notebooks and were analyzed at the conclusion of the project.

Individual interviews with the students comprise another component of the project. I tape recorded sessions at the beginning of the term and then again after the study was complete to augment the findings from the group discussions. The pretest and posttest are included in the appendices (Appendix B).

Data analysis is the focus of Chapter Four. After the discussions were transcribed, the written records were analyzed; I revisited the specific research questions that guided the inquiry. I looked for emergent themes, consistent types of questions and comments, frequency of input by the individual students, inquiry and inferences. Analysis was an ongoing process as I looked for consistent patterns of commentary in the data (Lindfors, 1998; Patton, 2002).

Identification of the patterns, comparisons, trends, and inconsistencies were noted. Additional inquiry and potential new issues were examined as the findings from the data revealed trends that influenced the final conclusions. Regular appraisal of the

information as well as my own critiques of the process and analysis resulted in new questions to investigate from the data.

Chapter Five examines the reflective aspect of the study and looks ahead into the possibilities for future research. Findings from the research project were examined for validity and corroboration from the review of related studies in the literature. Each question was carefully considered in light of the data and how the data was interpreted. Reflection on the findings leads into thoughts on implications for instruction and suggestions for future research on children's development of historical thinking skills.

The emphasis of the entire project is on the development of empathy with historical characters for the purpose of improving history education, a vital component of the social studies curriculum. The overarching theme of social studies is to contribute to the creation of effective citizens in a democratic society (Nash, 1996). The development of historical thinking skills contributes to that objective. When properly taught, history can be transformed to a favorite subject. The goal of this project is to explore new possibilities in the teaching of archeology and history to augment the body of knowledge available to researchers in history education.

The appendix include additional information about the project, such as the individual interviews, copies of the activity worksheets, a calendar of the meetings, a transcript of highlights from the thirty-five club sessions, a biographical sketch of the Talon family members, personal timelines created by the students, the initial letter to parents, the script, and the playbill (Appendices A-O).

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Historical thinking goes against the grain of how we ordinarily think, one of the reasons why it is much easier to learn names, dates, and stories than it is to understand the past.

Sam Wineburg, 1997

This chapter provides a review of the literature that has been most significant to my investigation of children's historical thinking and the development of empathy. To begin, I look at social studies and history education in general, and then empathy, in particular. This includes an overview of several significant research studies and a brief summary of the literature pertaining to the historical topic that was utilized for this study.

The Importance of History in the Elementary Curriculum

For many years pundits have lamented the younger generation's lack of historical knowledge. It is believed that ignorance of history will lead to the repetition of humanity's past mistakes. In the United States these concerns are at the center of the debate about the content, what is taught, and the pedagogy, how it is taught (Wineburg, 2001). Several questions have arisen such as: Which events, people and issues are appropriate and essential for our history curriculum? Why bother with teaching social studies or history? Elementary classroom teachers who specialize in social studies are scarce and athletic coaches are often assigned to teach history at the secondary level: Why should we change the system?

The importance of history cannot be overstated. First, a primary goal of our American educational system is to produce good citizens, people who see themselves as a part of the democratic whole and acknowledge their individual importance to the system.

The handbook for the National Center for History in the Schools, *National Standards for History* (Nash, 1996) states: “Knowledge of history is the precondition of political intelligence” (p.1).

An in-depth comprehension of the past paves the way for understanding current events and for thinking about the future. One of the tenets of citizenship lies in voting; likewise, an understanding of history is an essential component of an individual’s potential for being politically astute (Gagnon, 1988). Thus, an understanding of history and of the society in which we live contributes to one’s ability to participate effectively in the democratic process of government and, hopefully, to one’s motivation to play a part, to voice an educated opinion and to vote (Ravitch, 1995; Barton and Levstik, 2004).

Next, the development of historical understanding on an individual level contributes to one’s identity as an integral part of a greater story, the human saga. By successfully connecting to the past, students may be able to see themselves as a part of the larger scope and to relate to their own significance in the grand scheme of things. Locating one’s own life and family on a timeline serves to provide a link with one’s own place in the stream of time (Black, 2000).

Finally, an understanding of the social studies and history enlarges the experience of students and thus expands their ability to consider multiple perspectives and causations in historical studies. This ability, which is integral to historical interpretation, is at the heart of all historical inquiry. The study of empathy evolves as an extension of the concept of historical interpretation and serves to embellish the goal of historical understanding in children (Davis, Jr., 2001). Empathy is an important heuristic that cultivates the imaginative aspects of history (Portal, 1987).

Social Studies Education

An investigation into the condition of social studies education reveals three major components that have impacted curriculum and instruction in the past several decades. First, the field of education in general has experienced a significant change in learning theory, from behaviorist to constructivist instructional methods. Next, a concurrent revolution in academic history departments shifted the focus of history from an emphasis on the elite to an interest in social history. Finally, and more recently, the increase of social studies content on standardized tests led to a revision of the curriculum standards on state and national levels (Barton and Levstik, 1997, 2001, 2004; Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Davis, Jr., 2001; National Center for History in the Schools, 1998; Parker, 2001).

As a result of these changes, the emphasis in history education has shifted from an emphasis on rote memorization of “dates and facts” to the development of historical thinking skills. Innovative research is required to address the instructional concerns that accompany these philosophical changes. In an overview of the standards that relate to historical thinking, empathy emerges as an important component of historical comprehension. Standard 2, Section E states: “Appreciate historical perspectives by developing empathy with historical characters” (Nash, 1996).

Constructivist teachings of social studies and history have transformed many elementary school classrooms into learner-centered environments. Understood as a distinctive learning theory, constructivism focuses on humane, empirical learning experiences. Constructivism is associated with cognitive psychology because it focuses on learners’ ability to mentally construct meaning of their own environment and to create

their own learning (Schallert, 2001). As a teaching practice it is associated with different degrees of non-directed learning (Stahl, 1994).

Increasingly, the history teacher's instruction relies on materials above and beyond the textbook. Many of these supplemental resources used for history or social studies have an ideological mission. They are endorsed by organizations that question traditional methods of teaching that emphasized "presidents and kings" and offer, instead, progressive social history curriculum and supplemental resources. The goal is to combat intolerance, expand students' knowledge of other cultures, offer multiple perspectives on commonly studied historical phenomena, and to promote critical thinking (Bigelow, 1998; Loewen, 1995; Symcox, 2002; Zinn, 1999). A critical need has arisen to give attention to the deeper components of historical understanding such as empathy while maintaining the required standards. A lack of historical thinking will result in students' superficial involvement in history (Wineburg, 2001).

Influence of the National Standards

Historical thinking, perceived to involve a higher order of thinking than the mere acquisition of knowledge, has received a spate of interest. History learning at the elementary school level reflects changes in emphasis and in methods utilized. The move towards standards in history occurred first as a result of the Bradley Commission Report in 1989 (Gagnon, 1989), and then appeared on the national voluntary standards in 1994. The Basic Standard in 1996 and the National Standards followed these for United States History (Nash, 1996).

One of the factors that influenced these changes was a shift in the public schools towards national standards for instruction. The public policy initiative, Goals America

2000, set in motion a drive to establish national standards that would guide history instruction (Nash, 1996; and website: <http://www.ed.gov/G2K/index.html>).

. This three-year effort by the National History Standards Project resulted in a detailed plan for teaching historical thinking skills and essential content understandings in grades K-12. The National History Standards are curriculum guides that help teachers to focus the vast amount of historical knowledge into appropriate segments for teaching (NCHS, 1998).

These guidelines are reflected in the revised standards, which are implemented on a national level. The changes wrought by the standards movement were also affected by a corresponding growth in the field of research in history education (Lee and Ashby, 2001; Barton, 1997; Barton and Levstik, 2004; Davis, Jr., 2001; Downey, 1995; Knight, 1989; Portal, 1987; Seixas, 1996; Shemilt, 1987; Wineburg, 2001) The standards call for students to be able to think like historians. This places students at the center of the learning process, helping students to develop their own rationale for studying history, an important step in the process of developing historical meaning (VanSledright and Brophy, 1997).

The national curriculum is now in place in schools, posing challenging questions for those involved in implementing its requirements. Teachers need to understand its implications for learning in different areas of the curriculum. History needs to be taught within the conceptual framework of critical thinking and active learning (Black, 2000).

New curriculum standards in social studies and history have also highlighted the need for effective instruction in history and there has been a corresponding increase in attention to social studies education (Nash, 1996). State and local changes include an expansion of the social studies and history content on standardized tests in Texas,

currently known as the TAKS test (the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills). Texas public school teachers and teacher educators have had to adapt to these changes (Morrow, 2004).

The *National Standards for United States History* (Nash, 1996) provides a comprehensive inventory of the characteristics of historical understanding and divides them as follows:

1. Chronological thinking
2. Historical comprehension
3. Historical analysis and interpretation
4. Historic research capability
5. Historical issues analysis and decision-making

The third standard, historical analysis and interpretation, is the most detailed category. The range of specifications varies from creating questions for historical inquiry to explaining historical causes and discerning between fact and fiction. Inherent to this category is the capability to consider multiple perspectives, or empathy. From this approach history teachers would examine fewer periods in history but cover the topics in considerable depth. Teaching history in this way requires innovative teaching that emphasizes true historical understanding in students (Barton, 1996; Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Davis, Jr., 2001; Field, 2001; Levstik, 1997; Wineburg, 2001).

Achievement tests have been revised to include more social studies questions. The additional content calls for a stronger focus on the role of instruction in history education. Research studies that provide new methods for teaching in history will be utilized in the

future for curriculum design, instructional strategies, and educational assessment. All of these must match student understandings with their ways of learning history.

History Education

History may be one of the most important and exciting disciplines in the school curriculum, yet educational researchers have frequently revealed that history is often considered to be a dry subject, merely the study of “dates and facts” (American Historical Association, 1893; Bell and McCollum, 1917; Goodlad, 1984; Loewen, 1995; Levstik and Barton, 1997; Rugg, 1941; Wineburg, 2001). An informal survey of my own children and their friends reinforced these findings on a local level. When they were asked to name their favorite subject in school, none of them chose history. Even my own daughter, whose childhood was characterized by multiple trips to historic sites and living history museums, prefers algebra (Geneser, 1999).

History educators, recognizing the general lack of student interest in the subject of history, advocate changes in the traditional approach to teaching history. They have transformed the instructional methods from the monotonous textbook-worksheet-quiz routine to a topically focused, non-survey approach that employs a variety of instructional methods and materials (Hoge, 1996). Profuse critical assessments along with disgruntled observations about history teaching and learning (or lack thereof) in the American system have been abundant in the educational research literature for many years (Bell and McCollum, 1917; Rugg, 1941; Salmon, 1902). A thorough study of the literature reveals several key components of the traditional--and, perhaps, outdated--aspects of the teaching of history. These components are the prevalence of textbooks, the didactic style of the teacher’s instructional methods, and a classroom environment

marked by general passivity of the students. Improvements in the teaching of history would therefore challenge these practices and provide alternatives.

Moving Beyond Textbooks

Textbooks have traditionally played a dominant role in the history classroom (Barton and Levstik, 1997, 2004). In this context, instructional time is spent reading aloud from the text, answering questions from the book, and discussing the content of the pages. In classrooms where textbooks predominate, the corresponding assessment will also be limited to instruments, tests that measure rote memorization tasks but lack insight into the students' conceptual development (Barton and Levstik, 2004). Often the textbook content lacks vigor (Nash, 1996). Nevertheless, textbooks continue to represent the main source of information about history in most classrooms (Ravitch, 1995).

Traditional history classes have relied heavily on textbooks for a supply of “dates and facts” which students are expected to memorize. Social studies education has also been primarily teacher centered, with lectures, textbooks and worksheets serving as the means for transmission of information (Barton and Levstik, 1997) These lists and tasks minimize the importance and motivation that history can bring and have resulted in a lack of enthusiasm for the subject (Barton, 1997; Black, 2000; VanSledright, 2002).

The attention given to “dates and facts” in traditional classrooms promotes an emphasis on the quantitative materials rather than qualitative issues. Textbooks often present information in a quantitative format, yet history is a qualitative subject. For example, the need for breadth--going from prehistory to the American Revolution by May--is often sacrificed for depth, such as delving into the diaries of colonists and

comparing perspectives on a single event in time (Barton and Levstik, 1997, 2001, 2004; Black, 2000).

Superficial coverage in history textbooks of numerous events thwarts the development of historical judgment and perspective. When historical characters are represented in the same manner as a list of events to memorize, they lack distinct personality and become flat, one-dimensional people. Additionally, textbooks usually represent history as a “closed story” (Wineburg, 2001) by portraying the beginning, middle, and end as though it is the final word on the topic without leaving room for alternative viewpoints. We are actually in the middle of the story, still grappling with the human condition (Black, 2000; Barton and Levstik, 2004).

Traditional history instruction in the United States has been characterized by the notion of a unified society, despite the prevalence of cultural diversity. Therefore, many people from the past were marginalized or excluded altogether (Levstik and Barton, 2001). One aspect of the unique heritage of our country is the fact that it is composed of people from almost all of the cultures of the world (Jarolimek, 1977) and each group of people contributes to the historical content of the country. Numerous factors influence a child’s development of historical understanding such as their ethnic, racial, gender, family and class affiliations (VanSledright, 1997).

School district policies that require the curriculum to be based on the textbooks that are distributed to all students, based on the principles of equal opportunity, ensure that this practice will continue in the years to come (Parker, 2001). However, this practice limits students to superficial involvement with the historical evidence. Textbooks are secondary sources, which are removed from the authenticity of primary sources. Despite

improvements to the format of textbooks in recent years, the consensus about the content generally remains the same: that history is tedious, irrelevant and boring (Paxton, 1997).

Teachers as Facilitators

As early as 1902, the teacher's role was recognized as essential to effective social studies learning. Professor Lucy Maynard Salmon was an early advocate of the reform of teaching practices in the social studies. She stressed the importance of teacher preparation in the subjects of history and geography. Salmon's pioneering views on teaching practices in history continue to influence the way that teacher educators prepare preservice teachers. She acknowledged the value of hands-on learning and encouraged the use of slides, photos, and narratives in the history classroom to teach about historical events as well as the realities of daily life in the past (Bohan, 2004; Salmon, 1902). Subsequent studies have built upon Salmon's assertions and serve to elaborate on her significant contributions.

In contrast to the didactic model, a child-centered history classroom focuses on the activities of the learner rather than the demonstrative behavior of the teacher (Lindquist, 1995). Instead of a classroom setting where the teacher does most or all of the talking (Goodlad, 1984), an optimal learning environment will encourage students to engage in active learning and construct their own knowledge in the process. Students need to be immersed in the entire process of history not just the recall of facts. In teaching history, teachers should put students "back in the picture" to promote engagement and participation (Paxton, 1997).

Teachers play a vital role in the development of historical concepts. Those who provide relevance to the topic and connect current historic events to the past may inspire

students to learn history. When the teacher takes an active role in encouraging historical thinking, students are able to form more complex concepts. Students can thus begin to understand issues in the present by studying the past (Barton and Levstik, 2004).

A teacher's ability to construct historical knowledge impacts the students' ability to do the same (Yeager and Davis, Jr., 1995). Teachers often pass on their own experience when they endeavor to teach history, which underscores the importance of training preservice teachers to be effective educators. The teacher's task, then, is to nurture student's interest for the examination of history with activities similar to those that professional historians practice (Wineburg, 1991).

Competent history teachers are also reflective practioners, individuals who are able to look inward at their own historical thinking in order to reach outward to get in touch with their students. Successful history teachers actively involve their students in doing history (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991).

Students as Active Learners

Different methods of teaching history produce different history learning outcomes. For example, children taught with a traditional textbook-worksheet-quiz routine learn more names and dates compared to those taught in a topically focused, non-survey approach that employs a variety of instructional materials. However, students in the non-traditional approach develop better insight into the past, better historical reasoning abilities, and more positive attitudes toward the subject (Booth, 1980).

History uses inquiry and investigation, and historians use many types of evidence to help them interpret the past. The general approach to history teaching should therefore be through inquiry and investigation (Bloch, 1953; Collingwood, 1946; Davidson and

Lytle, 2000; Davis, 1998; Davis, Jr., Foster and Yeager, 2001; Kyvig and Marty, 2000). Using primary sources can stimulate children's curiosity about the way of life of people living in the past, develop children's understanding of their own and others' inheritance; and enable them to consider the ways in which the past influences the present (Black, 2000). Pupils who are taught in this method will begin to value the importance of context and how it influences the way that people live (Field, 2001).

Downey and Levstik (1991) conclude that history instruction should (1) begin in the early grades, (2) focus on in-depth, sustained study of significant material rather than shallow coverage, and (3) make use of age-appropriate learning strategies. Early research based conclusions posited the delayed (late adolescence) development of formal historical thinking ability. However, new studies, stimulated by new theories and improved research methodologies, suggest that this ability arises earlier than indicated previously (Levstik and Pappas, 1987).

Research in History Education

Educational research in history education draws upon scholarship from the disciplines of psychology, history, and education. This study draws upon the works of the progressive educator John Dewey (1900/1966; 1913/1975), the pioneer psychologists Lev Vygotsky (1934/1997), and Jean Piaget (1954/1981) as well as educators in the field of history education such as Barton (1996); Davis, Jr., Yeager and Foster (2001); Downey (1995); Knight (1989); Levstik and Barton (1997); Seixas (1996); Shemilt (1987) and Wineburg (2001).

Two of the essential elements of historical thinking--explanation and understanding--rely on perspective taking and empathy. The role of empathy has been thoroughly examined within the context of social development but many questions remain concerning the role of empathy in history education. Any study that explores the concept of empathy will thus encompass the two separate disciplines.

First, developing empathy--or learning to take another's perspective--is essential to the process of learning history (Downey, 1995). Next, a study of empathy involves psychology since it is a prosocial skill that is critical to the development of social responsibility. The ability to imagine oneself walking in someone else's shoes requires both thinking and feeling. The thinking aspect may be described as perspective taking while the feeling characteristic would be regarded as empathy. Both of these elements are woven into the process of developing historical understanding. Indeed, empathy as the ability to identify with a historical character is at the core of all history education (Black, 2000; Barton and Levstik, 2004; Davis, Jr., Yeager and Foster 2001; Shemilt, 1987; Wineburg, 2001).

Educational researchers relate the current understandings of children's learning in history to Dewey's writings where he emphasizes that both the child and the subject matter must figure equally in conceptions of curriculum (Dewey, 1934). Knight (1989) adds that the discussion about empathy in history needs to shift from the curriculum to the child and to an improved understanding of children's thinking in history. He suggests a focus on developing a practical sense of children's "differentiated understanding of the past" based on empirical studies of "what children think and do when they try to understand others not known to them through a reciprocal relationship" (Knight, 1989).

Knight further asserts that students learn through interaction with more knowledgeable members of a community. From this kind of milieu we find scaffolding, the development of discussion and collaboration in which ideas will build upon each other (Vygotsky, 1978).

History studies have also been linked to the child development work by Jean Piaget. In an expanding communities approach, the social studies curriculum is studied in gradual stages throughout the elementary years. Students begin by learning about themselves and their families and expand into the neighborhood, the community, the state, the nation, and—finally--the world (Brophy and VanSledright, 1997).

Conceptual Frameworks in History Education

Educational researchers emphasize the importance of conceptual frameworks in history curriculum. Conceptual frameworks across the curriculum were the focus of a major study by the National Research Council in 1999 that was titled *How People Learn: Brain, Mind, Experience and School*. The report stated that the mind uses experience to “develop coherent structures of information” (Bransford, Brown and Cocking, 2000). These structures, which are stored in one’s memory, form the basis of understanding, thinking and problem solving. Wineburg’s studies of historical thinking compared the thinking of experts to the thinking of novices in order to discover what characteristics of their thought processes distinguish them as more effective in thinking and problem solving. They found that expert knowledge “is not simply a list of facts and formulas that are relevant to their domain; instead, their knowledge is organized around core concepts or ‘big ideas’ that guide their thinking” (Bransford, Brown and Cocking, 2000).

A conceptual framework for history education involves the juxtaposition of both the social science and the humanities and may draw upon many other disciplines. However, the overarching theme of social studies is citizenship education (Nash, 1996).

Research in Historical Thinking

The goal of the teaching of history and the development of historical thinking is to enable students to “build knowledge of their heritage and cultures of people around the world; develop an understanding of continuity, change, and chronology; and gain insights into their own lives and contemporary events” (Hoge, 1996). Historical understanding, or the ability to engage in historical thinking, requires that the student develop the expertise needed to formulate relevant questions and to assemble evidence in support of their answers (Lowenthal, 1985). Although there is no complete agreement on the definition of historical thinking, researchers generally agree that it is an attempt to go beyond the view of history as memorization and the recall of historical events and see it rather as a range of activities and thought processes (VanSledright, 2000).

The topic of historical thinking is relatively new in its application to pre-collegiate students. A quest for information on the academic area that focuses specifically on research in history education reveals that much of the scholarly efforts to explore this concept have been conducted in the past two decades (Barton and Levstik, 2004; Black, 2000; Brophy and VanSledright, 2000; Davis, Jr., 2000; Wineburg, 2001).

Various studies have examined the elements of successful history instruction. In a study conducted by Wineburg and Wilson (1991) investigating the role of instruction in history education, eleven teachers were selected. Each one filled out a questionnaire, was observed in the classroom, and was then interviewed by the researchers. Two of the

eleven teachers were especially noted for their excellent historical thinking skills. These teachers were also able to share their interest in the subject by implementing methods that made history relevant to their students. These lessons included a variety of activities such as simulations, dramas, narratives, and debates. By imparting their own historical understandings, they succeeded in creating environments that were optimal for their students (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991).

The researchers observed that the teachers were as concerned with student achievement as they were with their own historical understandings, characteristics that combined to facilitate effective history learning. They concluded that curriculum is mediated by the teacher's understanding of the subject. Expert teachers will exhibit a deep knowledge of the structure and epistemology of their discipline (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991). Clearly the teacher's expertise is vital to effective history education.

Shifting to a focus on the position of the learner, Levstik and Pappas (1987) conducted a study that looked at historical understandings of multiage students. In this project, students in three grade levels were given the opportunity to hear a story, *Thunder at Gettysburg*, and then retell the account to another person. In the next phase of the inquiry, the students answered questions about the historical content of the story. Findings from this study of second, fourth, and sixth graders illuminated a high level of interest in the subject of history. Although the students had difficulty with the definition of history and were prone to link history to chronology, they were able to deal with history as an abstraction. The researchers were encouraged by the enthusiasm that the students expressed for the topic and the potential implications for future research (Levstik and Pappas, 1987).

Eighth graders' reconstructions of colonial American history were the focus of a later study by Van Sledright (2002). In this study, six students were interviewed before and after a unit of study to investigate whether they had significantly increased their historical knowledge and understanding of colonization. Findings from this effort were dismal: the students' historical understandings were vague in the preunit meetings and the postunit interviews revealed only a modest improvement. The results showed that the students acquired an assortment of facts but that their ability to understand the context and recreate events in a narrative structure was inadequate. Interpretations of these findings convinced Van Sledright of the importance of placing students in the center of the learning process. By giving the learners an active role, they could construct their own meanings from the available evidence. When students were given the opportunity to be historical detectives by personally investigating their own inquiries, they were able to connect to the historical era (Van Sledright, 2002).

Three principal techniques were used to investigate students' historical understanding in Barton's (1996) study of fourth and fifth graders. First, he interviewed the participants. Next, he observed their classrooms and, finally, he analyzed their writing samples. From this data, Barton found three consistent patterns. He discovered that students perceived historical change as logical, part of a rational development towards the present. He determined that linear thinking prevails: students see history as a sequence of progress towards an "improved way of life" (Barton, 1996). Furthermore, students diminished the complexity of history. They simplified the spatial and chronological aspects and were only able to recall a minimal amount of people and events (Barton, 1996).

Barton's ideas about the best methods of instruction for history education at the elementary level have been reinforced by his work with elementary teachers and students in the past decade. In his university classes and conference lectures, he advocates that history educators need to provide their students with primary sources such as artifacts, documents, and visual images so that they can begin to understand historical context. Barton believes that students need to participate in authentic activities in order to develop meaningful questions. Barton seeks to demonstrate how integrated social studies curriculum will address the context of society rather than present information as isolated facts to memorize (Barton, 1996, 1997, 2001).

Research Studies on Historical Empathy and Perspective Taking

Moving from an overview of historical thinking research to a closer look at the concept of empathy with historical characters, the emphasis on historical thinking skills remains constant. The significance of empathy as a historical concept has evolved from the claim by history educators and researchers that empathy with historical characters requires a thorough contextual knowledge of the content area. Thus, empathy expands the depth of historical understanding. To empathize with someone is to understand what he is feeling or, more properly, to understand what you would feel like if you were in his situation. It is an extension of self-concept, but it is far more complex. It requires an awareness that others think of themselves in ways that are both similar to and different from the way one thinks about oneself, and that they also have emotions they associate with those thoughts and images (Ashby and Lee, 1987; Barton and Levstik, 2004; Black, 2000; Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Field, 2001; Shemilt, 1987; VanSledright, 2002; Yeager and Davis, Jr., 2001).

Researchers in history education are working to establish a picture of students' ideas about the past in terms of their values and beliefs in the role of the development of historical concepts (Lee and Ashby, 2001). The objective of history educators is to help students develop the skills of historical thinking. One way to move beyond the presentist outlook and into a historical perspective is to delve into historical empathy (Davis, Jr., 2000)

Numerous studies have been conducted on the development of empathy and perspective taking in the context of children's social and cognitive development; however, fewer research studies have been conducted to discover how these same capacities are developed in the history classroom (Van Sledright, 2002). Although British educators have long debated the definitions and purposes of empathy and perspective taking as national curriculum goals, less attention has been given to the topic in the United States. Some of the research from Great Britain was motivated by a controversial national movement in education to add historical thinking skills to the curriculum (Ashby and Lee, 1987; Knight, 1989; Portal, 1987). American teachers have been motivated in a similar way by the National Standards Movement in the United States. More recently, educational scholars have narrowed their research focus in historical thinking to the concept of empathy as an essential component of historical understanding (Brophy, 1999; Cox, 2000; Davis, Jr. and Yeager, 2001; Downey, 1995; Levstik, 1995).

Perspective taking is a variation on the theme of empathy and the terms are often used interchangeably. Downey (1995) prefers the concept and elaborates on perspective taking as more rational and intellectual than empathy. Levstik (2001) adds to the

definition by stating that perspective taking is the ability to recognize some of the socio-cultural and political forces that shape human behavior, now and in the past (Levstik, 2001). In a review of the research, both empathy and perspective taking are used in the quest for insight into young students' development with historical concepts.

In a research study conducted by Ashby and Lee (1987), elementary students were given opportunities to display empathy with an array of materials. The researcher did not try to teach empathy explicitly, but rather, to observe pupils who were actively engaged in learning history and could display their own level of empathy independently. They found that the students who were able to demonstrate progress in their development of empathy also showed growth in their historical thinking skills. From these findings, Ashby and Lee concluded that empathy is central to learning history. Additionally, they asserted that the lessons learned in history--thinking strategically, asking questions and constructing a story from the evidence--are critical thinking skills that are useful in other contexts.

Perspective taking abilities among fifth grade students were the focus of another significant inquiry by Downey (1995). Participants in this study were asked to compose narratives about the roles of individuals who were involved in historical events. In this case, the focus was on the history of Early America, the era between the French and Indian War and the Declaration of Independence. This assignment was given after a lengthy involvement with primary and secondary resources as well as class discussion of the topics. Although the students did not have a specific model for the task, they constructed historical explanations and considered the causal relationships in their written

work. Their achievements reflect the value of adequate preparation with appropriate instructional methods and materials (Downey, 1995).

In a similar vein, Downey (1995) investigated the concept of perspective taking in a study that looked at students immersed in a fifth grade unit on American Indians and Spanish colonization in the Southwest. After contact with the information and materials, two writing tasks were assigned to the students. In the first one, the pupils were asked to recreate a day in the life of an American Indian, written from the perspective of an individual that authentically describes his era. In the second assignment, students were expected to compose a letter to a loved one in Spain from the perspective of a Spanish colonist in the New World. The project was a success in that the fifth graders were able to complete the writing assignments satisfactorily. Several of the students demonstrated their perspective with creditable accounts and could make reasoned arguments about the colonists' situations. Findings from this study suggest that effective history instruction can help students engage in historical thinking. Downey asserts that history teaching should focus on the differences between the past and the present rather than continuities for the sake of helping children develop empathy with historical characters (Downey, 1995).

A recent publication edited by Davis, Jr., Yeager and Foster (2001) has contributed significantly to the field of history education in the debate over empathy and perspective taking. *Historical Empathy and Perspective Taking in the Social Studies* includes contributions from many researchers who offer insights based on recent findings as well as implications for instruction. In this collection, the concepts of both empathy and perspective taking are explored in relation to history instruction. Although each

writer seems to prefer one term to the other, the general idea of the text is the claim that historical understanding will move forward with the effective application of instruction using identification with historical characters. Despite some differences among the perceived definitions and purposes, all of the writers concur on the value of using empathy or perspective taking to augment history instruction (Davis, Jr., 2001).

Another contribution to the text is Field's (2001) literature review of 12 volumes of the journal *Social Studies & the Young Learner*, which provides insight into the role of perspective taking. She found that the teachers who contributed to the literature emphasized the importance of perspective taking in a variety of forms. These include the personal, cultural, chronological, civic/community, and historical perspectives. The teachers recognized that pupils need experience in perspective taking (p. 129-130) and expressed support for the method with a range of activities. They seemed to intuitively understand the need for perspective taking in the social studies classroom (Field, 2001).

Empathy with historical characters was used as a topic for two dissertation studies, at the elementary and secondary levels (Klages, 1999; Pate, 1999). In these studies, which examined the empathy approach to historical thinking through the use of primary source documents, historical units were taught using primary sources. The fifth graders (Pate, 1999) read personal letters from the Civil War era and the twelfth graders (Klages, 1999) conducted oral histories using the Great Depression as their topic.

Both studies relied on think-aloud interviews with the researchers as an important source of data for evaluating the students' development of empathy with historical. They concluded that the students were motivated and challenged by the use of primary sources. Their findings concur with those of Levstik and Pappas (1987), which show that students'

interest level increases when they use primary source documents as educational tools. In a subsequent article for a scholarly journal (AATC), Shana Pate and Carol Klages promote the empathy approach to teaching historical thinking skills (Pate and Klages, 1999).

Conclusion of History Education Studies

Students of history bring with them their own ideas about the past. These notions about history are drawn from their memories and understandings of family stories, photographs, books, television, and movies. Since these ideas will be based on their background of identity and experience, interpretation of historical events differs according to the individual perspective (Ashby and Lee, 2001). Making sense of the past fluctuates according to one's cultural experiences--especially in our nation, with its diversity of historical narratives to draw upon (Levstik, 2004). This open-ended aspect of history is why it also so provisional.

The ability to ask meaningful questions is the essential skill base of historians. It is a problem solving activity and the quest for information asks not only what happened but also how people felt about it. Therein lies the purpose of empathy or perspective taking. Historians must be able to ask questions, construct persuasive answers, and communicate these ideas in their transmission of historical knowledge. Empathy with historical characters facilitates inquiry (Davis, Jr., 1999).

Implications of these studies address not only what is taught in history but also how it is taught to elementary aged pupils. Research findings reveal the need to create curriculum and training that encourages the development of historical thinking skills.

Supplemental Curricular Resources

Archeology as a Component of the History Curriculum

Properly taught, archeology can be an important and integral part of the social studies curriculum. Archeology is a branch of study that encompasses the same themes as history and also includes the scientific elements of excavation and preservation. Archeology is a study about people--people who lived in the past, people whose daily lives were very different from ours, yet people who had the same basic needs that human beings have had throughout time. Learning about archeology fosters a sense of responsibility and stewardship of the cultural heritage of people. It is an integrative and interdisciplinary field that will intrigue students as it serves to address their educational needs (Black, 2000; Moe, 1996)

Archeology relies on both the physical and social sciences to solve the problems of excavation and to speculate about the lifeways of the people who came before us. This integration of subjects promotes holistic thinking about the topic. Additionally, effective methods for teaching archeology such as scientific theory, cooperative learning, and problem solving employ strategies that are important building blocks for the development of critical thinking skills (Black, 2000).

Artifacts serve as messengers from the past, providing insight into the material culture of another time. Students of archeology discover the similarities of needs and diversity of forms by investigating these items. Speculating about the behavior of other cultures based on observations of their material remains helps students to contemplated their own behaviors and how they are affected by our current material culture. Comparisons among cultures can be examined (Black, 2000, Davis, 2000).

The categories of material cultures include structures, furnishings, personal artifacts, tools and equipment, communication artifacts, and containers. Information about a past culture can be derived from a study of the artifacts and the context, their role in the individual's life, their relationship to each other, and their placement in the site. Reconstructing past communities enables students to consider how other cultures solved, or tried to solve, problems that we still face today (Black, 2000).

Narrative

Teachers can greatly enhance history instruction with literature, both fiction and non-fiction. This is a classic notion, which has been at the curricular core of social studies learning throughout the history of public education. Early American narratives provide students with role models for citizenship and diligence (Nelson and Nelson, 1999).

Empathy with historical characters helps move students into a more historical frame of mind. The method of using narrative to delve into the historical account of an episode from the past is one way to facilitate the development of empathy. The goal of the history educator is to help students enter the lives of the historical characters with some degree of insight into their emotional and psychological lives. Through the lens of this personal perspective students are more amenable to retaining information regarding the context and chronology of the era to be studied. By simulating or identifying with the feelings of an individual who lived long ago, the students are able to appreciate the daily situations and challenges of characters that had previously seemed foreign and disconnected from their own lives. Properly taught, the lessons of historical empathy can work magic on the experience of a history class. Students are able to recognize that the characters are real people with wants and needs similar to their own.

The use of narrative in history instruction provides an opportunity to blend skills from several content areas and to promote higher level thinking skills. Students who are engaged in the drama of a historical narrative can absorb the scope and sequence of the story as it develops without consciously attempting to memorize the data. The result is seen in explanations about the story that demonstrate an understanding of the connections among aspects of the events and characters (Barton and Levstik, 2004).

Trade books

From the many choices of books about the lives of European children who had lived with Native Americans, I chose four titles: *Indian Captive*, (Lenski, 1941); *The Boy Captives* (Smith, 1927); *Captured By the Indians, 15 Firsthand Accounts*, (Drimmer, 1961); and *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives* (Derounian-Stodola, 1998). The books were read to the students for ten weeks. *Indian Captive* was chosen because I remembered it as one of the most magical books from my own childhood and this impression held true many years later. *The Boy Captives* was chosen because it is a local publication and depicts the experience of two brothers who lived with Indians in Texas. *Captured By the Indians, 15 Firsthand Accounts* was studied for the sake of comparison of the details of life among Native Americans and also because the authentic language was in contrast to the *Indian Captive* text. *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives* was chosen to provide another example of the captivity genre and changes that have occurred in the English language over time.

Indian Captive. Mary Jemison was only twelve years old when warriors from the Seneca tribe of Indians in forever altered her destiny. She was taken from her family in 1758 and forced to adapt to the challenges of a new culture and way of life. She became

known as the “White Woman of the Genesee.” At the age of eighty she told her story to a friend and the subsequent book was published in 1824 (Lenski, 1941).

Lois Lenski wrote the story of Mary Jemison in 1940-1941. Ms. Lenski, an award-winning author, reconstructed the true story of a European girl who lived most of her life (1758-1833) with the Seneca tribe in Pennsylvania. Lenski’s version of the story was awarded the Newberry Honor award in 1946 (Lenski, 1969). She provided a realistic description of what it may have been like to live among Native Americans (Lenski, 1941, 1969).

The Boy Captives. The next book, *The Boy Captives*, is the narrative of an elderly man who shared his experience with Indians in Texas (Smith, 1927). Captured at the age of eight in 1871, Clinton L. Smith and his brother Jeff were adopted into the Comanche tribe of the Southwest and lived among them for six years until they were reunited with their biological families. His account, which relates the ramblings of an old man telling his story to younger relatives, is difficult to understand. He does, however, provide graphic details of the hardships of his early life among the Indians.

Captured by the Indians: 15 Firsthand Accounts. Excerpts from the text *Captured By the Indians, 15 Firsthand Accounts* was another interesting book that I read to the group (Drimmer, 1961). The text provided interesting stories as well as a sample of the English language that was used in the latter part of the Eighteenth Century. The language was difficult to understand and this aspect provided me with an opportunity to teach the students that language is another way that human culture changes over time (Drimmer, 1961).

Women's Indian Captivity Narratives. This text provided the most challenging dialogue of all of the books that I read aloud to the students. Although I chose it to offer another example of the captivity genre to the listening audience, it emerged as our best example of the changes in language over time. The range of syntax and vocabulary of the English language fascinated the students.

Role-Playing

Instruction that utilizes role-playing can enhance the study of history because of its emphasis on historical characters and because it adds a playful dimension. Role-playing employs the integration of several cognitive skills: memory, imagination, and emotion (Rosenberg, 1987). Combining several tasks in a lesson draws upon the multiple intelligences inherent in a diverse classroom (Gardner, 1983) and breathes life into the experience of a history class.

The use of role-playing is an effective way to facilitate the development of empathy with historical characters. Empathy calls for a special kind of learning that goes beyond merely reading a textbook in that it requires imagination. Activities that challenge the imagination helps stimulate interest in the topic and invite further inquiry. Students who participate in lessons with dramatization may develop a sensitivity for their character that requires a keen memory and attention to detail about the particulars of that person's life and times. They must be able to focus on the attributes of their character and re-create his or her feelings. These are skills that require discipline and concentration. Also, when the situation calls for several characters, students must work as a team, which enhances cooperative learning (Gardner, 1983).

Literature Review of the Historical Topic

The Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project

Thirty miles south of Victoria and four miles inland from the coast of Matagorda Bay in South Texas, a team of archeologists from the Texas Historical Commission worked diligently from 1996 to 2002 to excavate an important archeological site. Discovery of this historical site made headlines around the world and sparked new interest in the history of the French colonists who lived there from 1685 to 1689 (Davis, 1999).

Named Fort Saint Louis, it was an early European settlement that was founded over three hundred years ago by the French explorer, Rene Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle. This site has been the home of many groups of people for hundreds, perhaps thousands, of years. Its location on a bluff high above Garcitas Creek is ideal due to its elevation and the availability of food, water, and building materials. Prior to the European settlers, Native Americans appreciated the amenities of this tract. Thus, despite storms, mosquitoes and rattlesnakes, humans have inhabited this location for centuries (Bruseth and Davis, 2000; Weddle, 2001).

The archeological crew worked long hours in the heat and humidity in search of artifacts that would provide information about the lives of the three cultures—Native American, French and Spanish—that have all occupied the bluff overlooking Garcitas Creek at different times in the past (Davis, 1999). Although the site was believed to be the “lost colony of La Salle” for decades, the landowners were reluctant to grant permission for the excavation until 1996 when members of the Texas Historical Commission were allowed to proceed with the Fort Saint Louis Archeology Project.

The Karankawa People

The Karankawa people who lived near the Texas Gulf Coast were early occupants of the site. They spoke a language similar to a Caribbean dialect and occupied the South Texas region for at least several hundred years prior to the arrival of Europeans. They may have come to Texas by boat in prehistoric times. Survivors of a difficult climate, they traveled in sets of thirty to forty extended family groups with small fox-like dogs. In fact, their name means “dog lover” (Ricklis, 1996).

Stories about the Karankawa are legendary in sources that tell about the history of Texas. The Spanish accused the Karankawa of cannibalism, a charge that has been corroborated by several sources, including a recent insight by Herman Smith, formerly of the Corpus Christi Museum (Cartwright, 1998). La Salle’s men called them the “weepers” for their propensity to shed mutual tears as a part of their greeting. Ritual weeping has also been observed in other Native American tribes. The journal of Henri Joutel contains numerous references to the customs and sign language of the natives. La Salle’s expedition relied heavily on the Karankawa for foraging for food and for navigating the difficult terrain (Foster, 1998). Artifacts that have been identified as having Karankawa origin were scattered throughout the Fort Saint Louis site (Davis, 2000).

The French Settlement

The story of the French in Texas begins with the adventures of La Salle, a saga that began fourteen years before he landed on Texas soil. Rene Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, set out to explore the territory of Canada, the Great Lakes, and the Midwest regions in 1671 (Muhlstein, 1994).

Spain and France were at war, and La Salle developed a plan based on this circumstance and knowledge he had from his previous investigations of the Mississippi River, which he explored in 1682 from a northern route, from the mouth of the Illinois River to the Gulf of Mexico. When La Salle and his crew reached the mouth of the Mississippi, they claimed the entire region for France and Louis XIV. This territorial proclamation was to become the key component of the Louisiana Treaty in the early Eighteenth Century (Foster, 1998; Muhlstein, 1994; Weddle, 2001).

La Salle's plan was to establish a colony sixty leagues up the Mississippi, a prime location to strike Spanish occupation in Mexico and hinder Spain's shipping while obtaining a foothold in the fur trade and limiting English expansion (Weddle, 2001). He returned to France to solicit funds to start a permanent settlement on the south side of the Mississippi near the Gulf of Mexico (Weddle, 2001).

In early April of 1684, the wish of La Salle was granted. He was called on by King Louis XIV to control "as much of the country as will be newly subject to our domination in North America" (Weddle, 1991). He gathered together his captains and an assortment of around 300 passengers, which included 100 soldiers and departed for the New World in August of 1684 with a fleet of four ships: *L'Aimable*, *La Belle*, *Le Joly*, and *Saint-François*. Thus he embarked on his journey, with his crew, four boats, and high hopes (Weddle, 2001).

The journey was eventful. A child was born at sea and the infant, Robert Talon, was named for his godfather, La Salle. Then, Spanish pirates seized the *Saint Francois* in

September. The three remaining ships resumed their journey (Joutel/Foster, 1998; Muhlstein, 1994; Parkman, 1999; Weddle, 2001).

Unfortunately, the ships did not reach the mouth of the Mississippi. According to historian Robert S. Weddle, the reason for La Salle's misadventure was his reliance upon his use of inadequate maps and the astrolabe, a primitive navigational tool which gave inaccurate readings. Or, perhaps, La Salle intended to invade Spanish territory in the New World (Weddle, 1999).

In early 1685 La Salle and his crew landed on the Texas Gulf Coast. La Salle and the crew had missed their original target by approximately 300 miles. Soon thereafter, the *L'Aimable* ran aground losing valuable supplies such as food, medicine and trade goods. Then, another ship, *Le Joly*, returned to France with a group of mutineers who abandoned Fort Saint Louis (Weddle, 1991). The people who remained are remembered as the inhabitants of the first French colony in the state of Texas.

The Story of the Talon children

Deserted on an unknown shore and forced to assimilate into the culture of an unfamiliar people, four French children were molded by their situation in the late Seventeenth Century, enabling them to later play a role in shaping the New World. These young colonists, the Talon children, were part of the first French colony in Texas, Fort Saint Louis, that was strongly influential in triggering additional infiltration of Europeans into the New World. As the lone survivors of this colony, the Talon children were challenged by many difficult circumstances, including being captured by natives and later apprehended and put to use as slaves by the Spanish. Despite the many obstacles they encountered, the children later managed to use their experiences to their advantage, and

they harnessed newfound skills, aiding further colonization of what would become America (Chipman, 1992; Foster, 1998; Muhlstein, 1994; Weddle, 1987; 1991, 1999, 2001).

The story of the Talon siblings began in Canada where their father, Pierre, an immigrant from France, met La Salle. Talon's carpentry skills were solicited for the construction of buildings in the French settlement. Pierre and his wife and five children traveled from Canada back to France while their leader made arrangements for the voyage. It was, at that point in time, the most expensive expedition in history (Govenar, 1998). King Louis XIV provided funds for salaries, sailing vessels and supplies for survival. La Salle provided the trade goods. Pierre and his wife, Marie, believed that they were embarking on a venture of prosperity and hope. Their sixth child, Robert, was born en route to the New World (Weddle, 2001).

Life in the colony of Fort St Louis was dangerous, uncomfortable, and scary for the French colonists who lived there. The explorer, La Salle, had extracted from the lower echelons of society a motley crew to serve as his "guinea pigs" for this colony in the New World. Rivalry with Spain for domination of the New World was a major factor (Weddle, 1991). It was a race to stake claims, and the boats with soon-to-be colonists were racehorses under the guidance of La Salle, as the jockey and the King of France as the horse owner, overseeing the whole arrangement (Geneser, 2003).

Out of the four ships with which La Salle began his journey; the thirty-six gun ship *L' Joly*, the barque *La Belle*, the ketch *Saint-Francois*, and the store ship, *L'Aimable*, all were lost. The *Saint Francois* was seized by Spanish pirates midway through the long journey across the Atlantic. The next vessel to be lost by the expedition was the

L'Aimable, which was wrecked in Cavallo Pass, upon trying to enter Matagorda Bay as La Salle had ordered. According to the first-hand account of Henri Joutel, the ship was salvaged, where much of the cargo and various components of the vessel (in particular, the main mast) were extracted and taken onto land (Foster, 1998). After that, the ship's crew went back to France with Beaujeu on the *Le Joly*, along with some of the disillusioned colonists (Weddle, 2001).

A temporary fort was eventually built on the eastern end of Matagorda Island; however, only 180 colonists remained by that time (Weddle, 2001). A winter storm overtook *La Belle* and marked the beginning of the end for the settlement. Unfortunate mishaps continued to plague the colonists; many more met their demise during the building of the permanent settlement (Weddle, 2001).

The natives of the Matagorda area began as allies but were soon to become a continual hindrance to the colony's progress. They frequently captured or attacked colonists and sometimes killed them. Initially, La Salle was very tolerant of them and presented them with gifts on a regular basis. He was intrigued with their ways, as they were of the French, yet many of the colonists felt uneasy about the close proximity of the natives.

La Salle spoke several of the native languages, yet did not understand the language of the tribe he first encountered in the bay area, which may have been the Clamcoeh, later called Karankawa (Joutel/Foster, 2001). This lack of communication undoubtedly led to much of the conflict between the peoples.

The deaths of the colonists were attributed to many other reasons besides killings by the natives. These included overwork, getting lost in the wilderness, drowning,

hunting accidents, malnutrition, and, eventually, smallpox. There were other, more obscure sources of death as well. As stated by Joutel, “I also learned that another man had perished, having been dragged underwater by a crocodile while crossing a river” (Foster, 1998). Journals written by Joutel and other members of the settlement report daily tragedies: fatal illnesses, accidents, and missing people. The Talon family suffered two losses during this time: father Pierre never returned from a hunting trip and sister Margaret perished from smallpox.

Life for the colonists took a drastic turn when Karankawa natives from the area raided the colony in 1689. By this time, only about 25 people remained, or fewer than ten percent of those who had composed the original settlement (Foster, 1998, Weddle, 2001). La Salle’s inability to sustain the colony and failure to follow through on his commitment to the group resulted in a loss of faith and morale as well as unmet needs. The colonists were terribly weakened by smallpox, and many of their stronger members had already died or departed. On that fateful day in the spring of 1689, all of the French colonists were killed except for the Talon children and another youth whom the tribe’s women saved. The other child, an orphan known as Eustache Breman, has dwindled in the records of history, yet the Talon children reappeared again (Muhlstein, 1994).

Reasons for the natives’ attack were suggested in an account of one of the Talon children, Jean-Baptiste. He claimed that La Salle had instigated the conflict with the natives early on when he stole some of their canoes and, much later, the natives attacked the unsuspecting colonists after hearing of La Salle’s death and the disrupted state of the colony (Weddle, 2001).

Witnessing the massacre was a horrific event for the Talon children, Jean-Baptiste, Lucien, Robert, and Marie-Madeleine. Jean-Baptiste, who was ten at the time of the attack, told how he and his siblings were witnesses to their mother's murder (Weddle, 2001). The native women, however, rescued the youths and carried them away on their backs. They proceeded to raise them as their own, even marking the children with tattoos representative of their tribe (Weddle, 2001).

The assimilation process by the Talon children into the natives' tribe was so thorough that Robert, the youngest sibling, relinquished the French language (Weddle, 2001). Being young may have eased the transition for the Talons, yet the affection that the native women granted them was also crucial in the children's adaptation into the new life. Pierre Talon, the eldest son, had been sent by La Salle to live with the Cenís, (or Hasainai) natives prior to the massacre, so he had to adjust to this dramatically different life earlier than his other siblings.

In the next chapter of their journey, the Talon children had to adjust to yet another dramatic upheaval. Eighteen months after the massacre, in 1690, the Spanish explorer, General Alonso de Leon, found the young Talons. Although he promised to return them to the French king, he postponed this transaction until after the children worked as servants for the Spanish viceroy in Mexico. Later the boys were called to duty in the Spanish military (Weddle, 1987).

De Leon's capture of the children began with Pierre Talon, who was fourteen at the time, and had escaped with a man, Pierre Meunier, from their home with the Hasainai to flee the Spanish who were bearing down upon them (Weddle, 2001). After their capture, the two French prisoners were ordered to serve the Spanish by interpreting the

Hasainai (or Cenis) natives' language. Later, in 1691, Leon's men found Marie-Madeleine, Jean Baptiste, Lucien, and Robert Talon living with the Karankawas in the lower portion of the coast of Matagorda Bay. At this point in time, Marie-Madeleine was sixteen, and the boys were eleven, eight, and five years old, respectively. They had been living with the natives for over a year. By rescuing the French children, De Leon was carrying out the orders put forth by Viceroy Conde de Galve. Also in 1691, Domingo Teran, another explorer, removed Pierre Talon and Eustache Breman from a group of Karankawas (Weddle, 1987).

The five children were joyfully reunited with each other. This act by the Spanish was arguably not a "rescue." According to historian William C. Foster,

"Although the Karankawa left the children indelibly marked with tattoos on their faces and bodies and with the memory of the massacre of their mother...the children also took from their captors the memory of being tenderly loved" (Weddle, 1987).

The Talon children were taken to Mexico City and placed in the home of the Spanish viceroy, Conde de Galve. There they worked as lowly servants doing mundane tasks for their new master until the Spanish viceroy decided to retire. Marie-Madeleine and Robert went along with him back to Spain. The three eldest boys were sent to Veracruz for the purpose of serving in the Armada de Barlovento (Weddle, 2001). They were stationed for about one year on the Spanish vessel, *Santo de Christo Maracaibo*, until a French ship conquered it (Weddle, 2001). The boys inquired about being taken to Spain, most likely due to a desire to reunite with their other siblings, but they were turned down. Instead, they joined the French naval service, except for Lucien, who was considered too young for duty. He was subsequently put to work as a servant.

The adventure did not end for the Talon children. Although they were able to go back to France, once their expertise in Native American languages was discovered, they were solicited to return to the New World to serve as guides. Pierre and Robert later guided St. Denis on an expedition retracing the route linking French territory with New Spain, and interpreted in both the Hasinai and Spanish languages (Weddle, 2001).

Contributions made by the Talon children and their role in the history of Texas--and for that matter--early America, are of great significance. According to Weddle (2001), Jean-Baptiste Talon gave the only first-hand account of the Fort Saint Louis massacre. He also gave a description of the ways of the Karankawas, which is valued by anthropologists since the tribe is now extinct. The last remaining survivor of the Karankawa died in the early Nineteenth Century. Pierre told the story of La Salle's death, revealing some of the mysteries surrounding it, and gave information regarding the lives of the Hasinai Indians. Pierre reported that the natives, with whom he lived in the New World, always treated him well. He had no bitter feelings towards them. He did, however, resent La Salle for separating him from his family (Weddle, 1987).

If the Talon children played an influential role in such a major segment of Texas history, why is it that they were given so little historical recognition? Robert Weddle presumed that it was because the Talon children were of a lower class, and therefore not as "important" in the minds of many past historians (Weddle, 2001).

This is consistent with the way history has been written in the past. Much of history has traditionally focused on the study of rulers and the higher classes. However, reformists advocate shifting the focus more to an emphasis on social history so that the lives of the lower class are acknowledged for their own significant contributions. Future

textbooks written about Texas history as well as other new publications in the historical genre will undoubtedly give these contributors their rightful place in the records.

Another factor of this historical issue that we should take into account is the fact that little or no material evidence pertaining to Fort St. Louis had been found until recently. However, since the discovery in 1995 and excavation of *La Belle* in 1996-1997, and then the subsequent inland excavation of Fort Saint Louis near Matagorda Bay (which began in 1996), there has been more interest among historians in this segment of Texas history.

The fate of La Salle's expedition and his established colony were both tragic. Two weeks after he set sail in hopes of finding the Mississippi, the war between Spain and France had ended, thus defying one of his motives to use Fort Saint Louis as a base from which France could attack Mexico. Every effort that he did make seemed for naught, as various misfortunes plagued the colony. However, La Salle left behind an interesting legacy: the Talon children, whose influence on the New World is significant in the curriculum of history. It is in our best interests to delve into the lives of the Talon children, because, although they seemed to be insignificant historical figures to traditional historians, they were actually key players in the French colonization of the New World. Through an investigation of these characters and their experiences, we can come to better understand how the lives of these individuals affected the total outcome of French occupation in the southeastern United States (Chipman, 1992; Foster, 1998; Muhlstein, 1994; Weddle, 1987, 1991, 1999, 2001).

Biographical Sketch of the Entire Talon Family

The Talons are noteworthy due to their ultimate role in the history of Fort Saint Louis. The father, Lucien Talon, was a native of Beauvais, Normandy, France. A carpenter by trade, he originally met La Salle in Canada. He later joined La Salle's expedition to the New World as a soldier and brought his family along to help establish a colony for New France. It is believed that he died on a hunting expedition. He was lost in the woods in Texas in 1688, leaving behind his wife, Isabelle, and their six children. Mme. Talon was originally from St. Mery Parish, Paris, France. She accompanied her husband on board La Salle's fleet and gave birth to her sixth child, Robert, while at sea. Isabelle Planteau Talon also died on the shores of the New World, as a victim of the Karankawa raid in January 1688.

The two eldest children born to the Talons were daughters. Marie-Elizabeth Talon, who is known in some historical accounts as Margaret, was born in Quebec on September 10, 1672. She died in Texas at Fort Saint Louis in 1686 of smallpox. She was only 13 years old. The second daughter of Lucien and Isabelle was Marie-Madeleine, who was also born while her parents were still in Quebec, on November 3, 1673. She was fourteen months younger than her sister. Her role was crucial to the survival of the Talon children after the Karankawa captured the children. She nurtured her younger brothers to such an extent that the youngest, Robert was reputed to communicate only with her at the time of his transfer to the Spanish viceroy. Although their transfer to the Spanish was represented as a rescue, the children were expected to work as servants in the home of Viceroy Gaspar de la Cerda Sandoval Silva y Mendoza, Conde de Galve in Mexico. Madeleine and Robert accompanied the viceroy when he returned to Spain.

Madeleine traveled first to France, and then Canada, where she married Pierre Simon in 1719.

Pierre Talon was the third child and eldest son of the Talons. He was born in Quebec, Canada on March 3, 1676. At the age of eleven he was sent by La Salle to live with the Hasinai tribe in East Texas for the purpose of learning their language. As fate would have it, he was a witness to the murder of La Salle. Although he was later reunited with his siblings, he never saw his parents again. Four years later, Alonso de Leon arranged for Pierre to join his siblings as servants to the Spanish viceroy. Pierre and his brother, Lucien, were drafted into the Spanish army in 1696.

Jean-Baptiste Talon was also born in Quebec, on May 26, 1679. Less is known about the particulars of his life although he apparently lived a parallel life with his siblings. He joined an expedition back to the New World as a young adult. He died in Louisiana.

Born in Quebec in 1682 (exact date unknown), Lucien accompanied his siblings in their adventures with the Karankawa and, later, the Spanish. He, too, returned to the New World as a translator and a guide with the French explorer, St. Denis.

Robert, born at sea in 1684, was named for La Salle, his godfather. In the records concerning their interment with the Spanish and Karankawa, Robert was noted for his attachment to his sister with whom he apparently shared a special language. He later moved to Louisiana where he married Jeanne Preau in 1718. Together they had eight children (Tyler, et. al., 1996)

The story of the Talon family was crucial to the implementation of this research study. A summary of the biographical outline of their lives from *The New Handbook of Texas* (Tyler, et. al., 1996) is included in the appendix (Appendix K).

Summary of Literature Review

The concept of empathy in the context of history education has gained momentum in recent years as a topic of research in history education. Recent studies in both the United States and Great Britain have brought attention to the idea of empathy with historical characters as an essential element of history teaching and learning (Ashby and Lee, 2001; Barton, 1997; Davis, 2001; Downey, 1995; Knight, 1989; Barton and Levstik, 1997; Portal, 1987; Seixas, 1996; Shemilt, 1987; Wineburg, 2001). Empathy is vital to the development of historical thinking skills. Empathy has earned recognition as a tool for learning history and is included in the National Standards on both sides of the Atlantic.

A review of the literature for this study with fifth grade students included a look at social studies education, research findings in history education in general, a specific inquiry into the research on empathy, supplemental curricular resources, the literature pertaining to the history of Fort Saint Louis, and a review of the narrative component of our history club project.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Exploring significant themes and questions is the basic activity of history.
Evans, 1988

This chapter is devoted to the description of the methodology of the research study. The study was designed to investigate the development of historical empathy in a small group of fifth grade students as they learned about a specific episode in Texas history. The design and methodology of this research are based in the qualitative tradition of case study research as it is applied to education. Qualitative case study methodology was chosen because its components are in alignment with the goals of the study, the research questions, and the findings.

The first part of this chapter provides a description of the community, school district, elementary campus, fifth grade class, and the individuals who were research participants in the study. The next segment, the methodology component, consists of an explanation of the research design, procedures, data analysis and collection. Pseudonyms are used in place of the actual names for all of the people and places.

Research Site

Woods County

The regional site for this study was Woods Elementary School in Woods County, a small public school located in an urban school district in one of the older cities of Texas. The county was one of the original settlements of the state and dates back to the early Nineteenth Century. It is large county with a dense, eclectic population. The area experienced unprecedented growth during the late 1980s due to the technology boom in the region, when its population increased dramatically. However, due to its location in the inner city, the school was relatively unaffected by the vast suburban sprawl. The school

district is racially diverse. At the time of the study it was comprised of a population that was approximately 16% African American, 3% Asian, 48% Hispanic, .5% Native American, and 34% Anglo. (District website, 2002)

The computer technology industry is a strong force in the category of business and industry in the region. Additionally, many people work at state jobs, city jobs, and for the local community college and state university. The average per capita income for the city was \$31, 849 in the year 2002 (U.S. Department. of Commerce, 2002)

Woods Elementary School

The research study was conducted in an urban school that serves a diverse population in both socio-economic and ethnic categories. This facility is unique for several reasons. First, it is the oldest public school in the state and thus serves a historic function in the city. Public officials frequently utilize its central location and prominent status for the purpose of public appearances to promote educational agendas. Thus, members of the student body often appear in photographs in the pages of the local newspaper or appear on the evening news, temporarily famous by virtue of their association with the school.

Next, this school is smaller than the average elementary school campus and this small size lends itself to a tight-knit community of parents, students, and alumni. School spirit is very strong. Finally, it is a “transfer only” school, which means that every child who attends the facility had to apply for a transfer from another campus in the district. This element of choice creates a student body that is similar to a private school population in that parents must make an extra effort to apply for a position for their child. Students who misbehave risk losing their place if their transfer is revoked as a punishment and they will be asked to return to their neighborhood school. However, this

is an infrequent occurrence. The rate of attrition is actually quite low, due to the fact that even when students move their residence, they can retain their position in this particular school.

Due to its location in the historic downtown office district, the student body does not represent a traditional neighborhood population. However, its proximity to the center of the city makes it an ideal location for parents who work in downtown offices. This condition has been in effect since 1973 so it has been established as a distinctive setting for many years. The school, known for this purpose of this paper as Woods Elementary, has accommodated a diverse population for three decades, which predates official segregation efforts in the city. Woods was granted an award for academic recognition in the 2001-2002 school year.

At the time of the study, the school had 236 students registered in Kindergarten through sixth grade. The majority of the students were Hispanic (96), followed in number by African American (87), and Anglo students (52). One student on the campus was Asian. This population is similar to the district demographics. (Phone calls to district office and school office, 2002).

Woods School was chosen as a site for the pilot study and the subsequent dissertation study for a variety of reasons. First, the diverse population provided an interesting set of students. Next, its close proximity to the university where the researcher was a graduate student was expedient. Furthermore, I believed that the school faculty would be supportive of my efforts. Finally, the administrator, Mr. Craig, has a reputation for his progressive outlook and enthusiasm for innovative educational programs.

Fifth Grade Social Studies at Woods Elementary

The social studies program for the fifth grade at Woods Elementary, the site of this study, focuses on the United States and the diversity of the American population. The histories of the ethnic, racial, and religious groups that comprise American culture are studied as well as an overview of the meaning of history and the ways that historians construct meaning from the past. The social studies scope and sequence includes geography, history, economics, and culture. History topics include exploration, colonization, revolution, the Constitution, the Civil War, reconstruction, immigration, and expansion. Issues of diversity and multiculturalism are woven into each unit. Current events are discussed and linked to the historical topics. Connections to people from the past and the relevance of the study of history to modern life are emphasized (Brown, 2002).

Students at the fifth grade level in Woods School were assigned individual and group projects in their regular social studies classroom throughout the year that helped them learn more about the United States and its regional differences. In one task, the students were each assigned to a state and expected to report on its history, geography, culture, and climate. The end products were elaborately constructed displays that utilized the students' considerable artistic talents as well as information they provided in the accompanying descriptive reports.

Implementation of the social studies curriculum on the campus level follows the guidelines set by the district and the state. Nationally, the history of one's state is typically taught in fourth grade with an emphasis on the local and state narratives. It is

followed by American history in the fifth grade with an emphasis on the founders of the United States of America (Nash, 1996, Texas Education Agency, 1999).

Routine of the Sessions

The students checked into the classroom shortly after the 2:45 afternoon dismissal from school. They placed their belongings by the entry and then proceeded to pick out a choice of snack before going to sit at the desks in the middle of the room and visit with each other. Once everybody arrived, we began the activity for the day. Each session varied according to the planned activity and the location of the session.

Research Participants

The learning experience of a small group of elementary aged students was the focus of this investigation. The participants were all self selected, having chosen to join an after school history club which met on their campus. Many of the children had been enrolled in the same school since Kindergarten so there were close relationships among the members of the club. The topic was also familiar to the students because they were present when the researcher conducted a pilot study on the same campus during the fall of 2001. Several students were enrolled in the after-school child care program so the option of participating in the history club was an appealing alternative to their regular routine. Other children had to make special arrangements to take part in these extracurricular activities. The group met two days per week for sixteen weeks in the spring semester of 2002.

The students ranged in age from nine to eleven years. The group ethnicity was diverse, representing the African American, Hispanic, Anglo, and biracial student population. An equal number of boys and girls were represented in the study. These eight

children were selected to participate after an informal meeting with parents in which the students and parents agreed upon a commitment of reliable attendance.

Description of Individual Participants

Carol

Carol was a ten-year-old girl at the time of the study. As the eldest child in her home, she was a natural leader of the group and her enthusiasm for the project contributed favorably to the learning environment. She was a high achiever in school and participated in several extra curricular activities besides the history club, including a writing project and a local volleyball team. Carol's name was consistently listed on the honor roll and she scored well on the standardized achievement tests.

Participation in the study was a voluntary effort, yet Carol was devoted to helping me achieve my research goals. Carol's fifth grade teacher characterized her as a student who would go the "extra mile" in projects, and this observation held true for me as well.

Carol's primary interest in the project was the fate of the Talon children. She speculated at length about their situation and how they coped with the events in their lives as colonists at the doomed Fort Saint Louis and then, later, as members of the Karankawa tribe. Her curiosity invigorated many discussions about the lives of the children we studied as well as the general conditions of life in the seventeenth century.

Carol's parents are educators. Her dad, a teacher and coach, is descended from one of the original African American families in the region. Their family property is part of an original tract that was granted to the freed slaves in Texas after the Civil War. Carol's mother is Hispanic. Currently, she stays at home with Carol's younger siblings.

Brad

Brad was nine years old at the time of his participation in the History Club. Brad was a high achiever in all areas, and had aspirations to be accepted into the district's magnet program. (He later succeeded.) Brad's school performance was exemplary and he scored well on standardized tests. Brad was ambitious and diligent when he was on task, but he also had a tendency to disrupt the planned activities with playful behavior. Although his humor was clever, at times it was inappropriate. However, his presence was an asset to the group due to his in-depth questioning about the project. Brad joined the history club in order to learn more about methods of archeological excavation and his curiosity served as a catalyst to enhance the level of learning for everyone.

Brad is a curious and inventive child. He wanted to know how things worked-- then and now-- and how things are put together. He built model airplanes, Legos, and miniature forts at home and was interested in the set design for our play at school. He was concerned about authenticity when we dealt with simulated artifacts and again when we created props for the play.

Brad was an only child. His parents were divorced and both have remarried. Brad's father is Anglo and works as a technician for a repair company. Brad's mom is Hispanic and has a clerical job with the city.

Joshua

Joshua joined the history club to learn more about the ships that transported the colonists and to spend more time with his classmates. At age eleven, he was older than the other students due to his retention in Kindergarten. He was a capable student with good grades and attendance records. His grade level test scores were average.

Joshua was committed to the “dates and facts” of the historical content that we covered and had an impressive recall of some of the obscure aspects of our topic. This ability was quite useful to the flow of the study. Historical thinking skills were not as relevant to him as knowing and memorizing the facts. Learning by rote was important to him and his perspective was valued and utilized.

Outside of school, Joshua was active in soccer and the martial arts. He was an avid player of video and computer games and was immersed in pop culture. He has one older brother. His family is Hispanic.

Alonso

Alonso was an enthusiastic member of the history club. He greeted each new topic and activity with exclamations of delight. He was very appreciative of all of the extra frills of participating such as snacks; take home projects, and watching videos.

Alonso joined the club to learn more about the people who lived at Fort Saint Louis. He was interested in the technology of the era and wanted to recreate the tools and weapons, especially the ceramic hand grenades featured in a video.

Alonso was a good student despite his struggles with reading due to dyslexia. His learning style was well suited to the structure of our group with its emphasis on collaborative projects and hands-on learning. He worked hard to maintain satisfactory grades in school and his standardized test scores were above average.

Alonso is the youngest child in his Hispanic family. He has an older sister, many cousins, and is close to his parents and grandparents. He was ten years old at the time of the study.

Rosa

Rosa was a strong member of the history club. Although she had a quiet personality, she was an active participant in the discussions and was confident of her opinions. Rosa never missed a meeting and was eager to attend on Saturday when we worked on sets for the play.

Rosa liked to read and to write. She expressed interest in the journal that was written by La Salle's assistant, Henri Joutel, and she was sympathetic to the plight of the colonists who were probably missing their relatives back in France.

Rosa was a good student in school with good grades and test scores. She was planning to apply to the middle school magnet program for liberal arts. (She was later accepted.) She was an obedient child who would never be disruptive. However, this trait may have interfered with her ability to be spontaneous. Her responses tended to be carefully thought out.

Rosa was a good friend to the other girls and an asset to the group in every way. At home, she was the eldest child in a Hispanic family. She had one little brother who was in Kindergarten. He visited the group occasionally.

Mary

Mary was a diminutive child with an imposing personality. Although she was tiny in stature, she was physically powerful and strong willed. As a foster child, she seemed to relate to the plight of the Talon children easily and the responses that she provided during discussions were often profound. Her lively presence and infectious giggle were delightful. She was a leader among the group, especially the girls.

Mary was a poor student. She had difficulty staying on task, completing assignments, and turning in homework. Her grades and test scores were poor. She was enrolled in special education for part of the school day. At one point in the spring semester, the teacher discussed retaining her in fifth grade. Ultimately, she was promoted to the sixth grade. However, Mary appeared oblivious to the academic realm and was quite confident about her role in the class and in our history club. She seemed to understand that she was important in her own way and her demeanor was one of healthy self-esteem. Mary behaved like a well-loved child. She was funny and sassy, yet kind.

The family life of Mary was unique. Her foster mother, a single mom, took care of seven children, six of whom were wards of the state. Her mother had adopted the eldest child and then discovered that it was more prudent to simply care for the younger siblings as foster children in order to sustain an income and benefits from the state. She told me that she never intended to take on so many children but, when the hospital would call and ask her to pick up an abandoned child, she did not have the heart to say no. Thus, she relinquished a career as an attorney to become the head of household to her large African American family. At the time of the study, the children ranged in age from five to fifteen. Mary was ten years old.

Wilson

Wilson was an active participant in the study. Each child brought his or her own contribution to the mix and Wilson's presence was vital to the process and to the final product--the play. Wilson identified the opportunity for social interaction as his motivation for joining the club, but he did participate and engaged fully in the historical

thinking activities. The other students were often intrigued by Wilson's insightful comments and his input helped to expand the discussions.

Wilson was an erratic student. He performed well on achievement tests and was verbally precocious, but his lack of adequate organizational skills deterred his progress academically. He was prone to procrastination, despite the fact that he was capable of excellent work, so his low grades did not reflect his ability. He, too, aspired to be accepted into the science/math magnet program. (He was later accepted.)

Wilson was ten years old at the time of the study. Wilson was one of two children in a single parent Anglo household. He lived with his mother and an older sister. His father died when he was six years old.

Eva

Eva joined the history club in order to participate in the play. She loved costumes and drama and was conscientious about learning her lines. Eva expressed interest in the material culture of the French colonists. She enjoyed the artifact activities and was concerned about the authenticity of the garments that we used for the play.

Although she was only ten at the time of the study, Eva was mature for her age. Her parents were in the midst of a divorce during that time, yet she maintained a steady composure and was even prone to comforting other children who were in distress. Her paternal grandparents visited the group one day to thank me for my contribution to Eva's education. They were pleased with her new enthusiasm for learning history.

Eva was an average student with satisfactory test scores on the standardized tests. She participated in drill team activities after school. Eva was an only child who lived with her mother. Eva's mother is Hispanic and her father is Anglo.

Research Design

My research study took the form of a qualitative inquiry. Qualitative inquiry involves telling the story of the research study by describing the experience of the participants (Patton, 2002). The qualitative method is appropriate for the research questions in this study due to the use of narrative. Qualitative methods involve the problem solving and learning oriented processes that were an integral part of the long-term goals of my study (Glesne, 1999, Maxwell, 1996, Patton, 2002).

Qualitative analysis is the appropriate option for a research study that entails an interpersonal dynamic. Qualitative methods for research allow for an in depth look at the transformation of the participants involved in a learning project. The narrative and continuous nature of this study is best evaluated using the tools of the qualitative researcher (Glesne, 1999; Maxwell, 1996; Patton, 2002).

Qualitative research can take many forms, one of which is the case study. Merriam (1998) describes a qualitative case study as “an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit” (p. xiii). The case study design was appropriate for my research questions in that several elements bound the case. First, the children were studied as individual cases: eight single units of study. Next, the study was bound by systems: bounded by time (sixteen weeks of data collection), bounded by place, (one elementary school campus); and bounded by the size of the group (eight participants and the teacher/researcher). Also, I utilized multiple sources of information to embellish my data collection throughout the study. Finally, I included information about the school community as well as regional aspects of the cultural environment.

The case study model applies to this study because it attempts to answer questions about “what” and “how” (Yin, 1994). In this case study the “what” is the historical topic that was chosen for the study and the “how” pertained to this type of instruction, the historical research methods. Furthermore, the case study is applicable to an inquiry that investigates a process. In this particular example, the students were observed and described while they were in the process of learning history and developing historical empathy. I looked for individual learning outcomes as well as the group dynamics and discussion results. Case studies can be useful for the researcher who is interested in understanding the processes of learning and to ascertain elements of the context that illuminate the findings (Sanders, 1981).

The conceptual framework for this study is developmental constructivism. The developmental constructivist model of children’s thought and learning suggests that children’s thinking differs from adult’s thinking, particularly on the subject of history (Barton and Levstik; 2004, Sunal, 2002). This study employed the constructivist perspective in that the children were able to co-create knowledge and a perspective concerning the historical characters, which were featured in the study.

Thinking, in general, develops and changes as children gain experience, knowledge, and practice and will become more complex, sophisticated, theoretical, and multidimensional (Patton, 2002). *Historical thinking* will develop and change as children gain experience, knowledge and practice *with history*, and will become more complex, sophisticated, theoretical, and multidimensional (Barton, 1996, Davis and Yeager, 2001; Levstik, 1997, Sunal, 2002; VanSledright, 1999, Wineburg, 2001).

Students are at the center of constructivist learning environments, which are characterized by student-driven inquiry. The term *constructivist* suggests an alternative to the transmission model of learning in that the focus is on students as active learners who build on prior knowledge in the process of assimilating new information.

An informative description of this study is central to the goal of adding to the body of knowledge about students' construction of historical empathy. With this in mind, I selected a small sample of research participants, collected a substantial amount of narrative data, and actively participated in the research process.

The underlying purpose of this inductive study was to describe the development of historical perspective in a group of elementary children. Although results from the study may not be generalized to a population, the inquiry served to illuminate aspects of the development of historical thinking and to raise additional questions about empathy and historical perspective.

Data Collection

Qualitative methods of gathering data for research start in the consultancy phase, when the researcher is beginning the project. The sequence of steps for the entire project are as follows: 1) initial contact, 2) establishing a helping relationship, 3) identifying the problem, 4) setting goals and planning the action, 5) taking action and cycling feedback, and 6) completing the project (Lippitt, 1976)

Prior to the study, I made the initial contact with several people on an individual basis. During the fall of 2001, I conferred with the teacher who shared her class for the pilot study, then the principal, the students, and my professor.

Next, we met informally to establish helping relationships. I then distributed a letter describing my intentions to the parents of fifth graders along with an invitation to the children to join the history club (Appendix A). Later, in January 2002, I met with the parents of the children who would participate. In each interaction I felt supported by the participants who were eager to be involved in the project. Parents of the student participants were especially appreciative of my interest in sharing extracurricular history activities with their children.

Our third task was to identify the overall objectives of the study. The theme of empathy developed from the pilot study when the children expressed a strong desire to learn as much as possible about the fate of the Talon children. They asked, “*What was it like?*” to live with the Karankawa natives. When I approached my professor with the idea of focusing the entire project on the theme of empathy, she was supportive of the concept and provided a bibliography of related studies for me to read. We identified the main problem as a need for educational research into the subject of history learning at the elementary level. We decided that I would do an investigation into the development of children’s historical thinking concepts with a specific focus on the development of historical empathy. Together we formulated research questions to guide the study:

1. What is the role that empathy appears to play in the development of historical thinking with a group of fifth grade students?
2. How do children learn empathy?
3. How can educators influence the formation of empathy?

The next step in the process, setting goals and planning the action, was a collaborative effort between my professor, the participants, and myself. Subsequently, we

took action by initiating the club. The students agreed to meet twice a week and to collaborate on the goals of the study. Our goals for the spring semester were to learn history by “doing” history (Levstik and Barton, 1997), collecting data for the study, and producing a play to reflect what we learned about the historical topic. The project was bracketed by the pre-unit and post-unit interviews that augmented the data collection (Appendix B). Taking action and cycling feedback was accomplished in three stages: exploring historical methods of research, discussing historical narrative, and producing the play.

During the first ten sessions, we utilized historical and archeological research methods. To begin with, I simply asked, “What do you want to know?” As the discussion continued we created our KWL chart, which reveals what we know (K), what we want to know (W) and, at the end of the unit, we completed the chart with information on what we learned (L) (Appendix C). In the next session we looked at timelines and the students created personal timelines (Appendix D). During this phase of the study the students compared and contrasted ancient and modern navigational tools, maps, and artifacts. Additionally, they learned the definitions of archeology, excavation, historical archeology, chronology, timelines, primary sources, secondary sources, and documents. The definition and classification of artifacts was the topic of our sixth session and the students participated in an artifact classification activity (Appendix E). Later, I extended the artifact classification activity by asking students to identify the culture of origin of a collection of artifacts (Appendix F). We used replicas of artifacts and illustrations of artifacts for this lesson. To review the definitions of primary sources and secondary sources, I drew Bingo boards and wrote “primary source” or “secondary source” in each

square. When I called out an example, the students would put a marker on their game board. We used the same format when we played a game to review the basic facts about Fort Saint Louis (Appendix H). Our final activity for this segment was a crossword puzzle that I created to review the historical facts (Appendix I).

A narrative component was the focus of the next eleven sessions of the study. I read several accounts of European children who had lived with American natives and we extrapolated from these stories to speculate about the experiences of the Talon children who survived the massacre at Fort Saint Louis in 1689. We discussed the biographies of the Talon children (Appendix J) before I began reading from the book, *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941).

The completion of the project was the production of a play. To begin the project, they generated a set of questions to answer in a brainstorming session (Appendix K). The next step was to write the script (Appendix L), design costumes and props, create the set and begin rehearsals. It was truly a collaborative effort in that each of the members contributed to the final product, the performance of “The Lost Colony of La Salle” on the last day of school.

Data Sources

The data sources that I collected for this study were:

- a. Transcripts of the audiotapes of the group discussions
- b. Personal timelines of the students
- c. Journals--the researcher’s personal notes after each meeting
- d. Transcripts of the (before and after) interviews with each participant
- e. Student writing in the form of review questions, script, and playbill for the performance

f. Ephemera regarding the topic-- flyer from the museum, brochure from the archeology lab, information from Texas Historical Commission, materials from another teacher, materials from my professor

g. Bibliography--books and articles that informed the study

a. Transcripts

The most abundant source of data for this study was derived from transcripts of the audiotapes, which were collected at the history club meetings. The lessons and activities were followed by discussions in which students shared their thoughts about events that occurred in the lives of the people that we studied. Tapes of these sessions, which represent at least fifteen minutes of each meeting, have been transcribed and retained in notebooks for analysis. The transcriptions provide the depth of the study as the students were recorded expressing their impressions of the lives of European children who lived among Native Americans. It constitutes the bulk of the project and is the primary data for the study (Appendix M)

b. Personal Timelines of the Students

The personal timelines reflect students' understandings of their own place in history. After a lesson on the significance of chronology in the study of history, the students were invited to explore their own personal histories by creating timelines

c. Journals

Journals also served to inform the record of our time together. As the researcher, I wrote in a reflective journal after each session. The journal notes were used to fill in descriptions of the group dynamics such as the students' choice of seating arrangements and body language such as gestures, raising hands, and leaning towards or away from

each other. Attendance was reported and extra efforts were noted. I also wrote comments from teachers and parents as a part of the feedback loop.

d. Interviews (Before and after)

Individual interviews with the students comprise another component of the project. I tape recorded sessions at the beginning of the term and then again after the study was completed. The students answered the two sets of questions that are included in the appendix (B) of this paper. Their responses were transcribed and analyzed as a vital component to the study.

e. Student Writing

The students contributed original documents for the written data component in three parts: the review questions, the script, and the playbill. Prior to the creation of the script for the play, I asked the students to discuss what they had learned and to brainstorm questions that could be answered by the final performance. The objective of the play was to share information with the entire student body about the story of the French colonists. The students' brainstorming sessions resulted in a set of questions (Appendix K) and the script for the play was a collaborative effort that attempted to answer these questions (Appendix L). The students also created a playbill, which they posted in the school halls.

f. Ephemera

Many types of ephemera enhanced this project. We had brochures from the Fort Saint Louis Archeological Lab in Victoria, Texas; handouts from another social studies teacher; materials from my professor; and a flyer from the Bob Bullock Texas State Museum.

h. Bibliography

An extensive reference list of books, magazine and journal articles, teaching materials, and Internet websites informed this study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in a qualitative study is a reflective process. After the discussions were transcribed, the transcripts were coded and analyzed for emergent themes, consistent types of questions and comments, frequency of input by the individual students, inquiry and inferences. Once a theme was found it was recoded as the recurrent properties were identified (Patton, 2002). Student input was also divided into categories to reflect the development of empathy. According to Pate and Klages (1999), children develop empathy with historical characters in the following series of sequential stages:

1. Comparing self to historical figures
2. Compares the past to the present
3. Imagining/assuming events, feelings and actions of historical figures
4. Developing multiple perspectives through class discussion
5. Using information from primary source documents
6. Using information from secondary source documents

Identification of the patterns, comparisons, trends, and discrepancies were used in the construction of matrices of the data. Additional inquiry and potential new issues were considered as the findings from the data began to reveal trends that influenced the final conclusions. Regular appraisal of the information as well as my own critiques of the process and analysis resulted in new questions to investigate from the data as well as amendments to the ongoing curriculum for the students.

Background of the Researcher

As the daughter of amateur historians who produced an unpublished (as yet) manuscript about Texas history, I easily placed out of the required Texas history course when I was an undergraduate student. In my first position as a middle school history teacher of Texas and World history, I led the students into an exploration of the past using multidisciplinary methods and challenged them to develop inquiry skills and to construct concepts of historical thinking.

When I worked as a classroom teacher of all levels in elementary school, I favored social studies units for the content and for the opportunity to implement a variety of teaching methods. Later, as an instructor of first grade students in a multinational setting, I focused on facilitating cultural and geographical awareness. I developed thematic units, which utilized skills across the curriculum, to enhance the teaching of both the social studies unit and the basic mathematics and language arts skills.

My public school teaching experience provided many opportunities to learn about other cultures. At Mathews Elementary School, for example, I taught students from India, China, Korea, Russia, Africa, Japan, Switzerland, Mexico, and France. These experiences augmented my development as a social studies teacher. Additionally, I learned firsthand about the expectations for curriculum standards in the public schools.

Much of my experience with children in informal settings comes from my years of serving as a parent volunteer. I have contributed my time to the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Sunday school classes, elementary, middle school, and high school PTA functions and an organization known as Odyssey of the Mind.

The content for our study, the history of Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project, is familiar to me since I spent time at this site in the summer of 2001. I also contributed some of the writing about La Salle's expedition and colony for the Coastal Bend Museum in the summer of 2002.

My experiences as a classroom teacher, parent, educational researcher, volunteer for my children's schools, and volunteer for the Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project all contributed to my preparation for this research study.

Conclusion

This chapter provided details about the research site and participants and explained the methodology that was used to conduct this research study of the development of historical empathy in children. A description of the methodology is an essential component for understanding the study, since interpretation of the data provides insight into the learning processes that facilitate learning history.

The final section of this chapter provided a description of my background and the experiences that contributed to my ability, as a researcher, to conduct an educational research study. Although my work-related skills were important attributes, it is my passion for teaching history and for sharing information about this particular topic in Texas history that led to the successful completion of the project.

Chapter Four

Data Description and Analysis

All history is history of the mind; in order to make sense of the past we have to make sense of people's mentalities in the past.

R. G. Collingwood, 1946

This chapter provides description and analysis of the data that was collected during the research study, which was conducted for an entire semester. The purpose of my study was to investigate the development of empathy with historical characters in a small group of fifth grade students by documenting their learning about LaSalle's colony during History Club meetings. I noted contributions to discussions and analyzed their conversational input when prompted and when not prompted. Additional consideration was given to nonverbal contributions such as assistance with the projects and devoting extra time to the play. The focus of the endeavor was to collect data that would provide insight into the students' learning process as well as to test instructional methods that were designed to facilitate students' development of historical concepts. I believe that findings from this project will help to provide a model for instruction of historical thinking concepts. My long-term objective is to add to the body of knowledge in elementary history education by articulating the components of a framework in which students can engage with a specific historical topic and demonstrate the development of historical thinking skills.

Empathy with historical characters emerged as a theme from the beginning of my study with the fifth grade students. On the first day of the three-week pilot study, I chose an activity that I believed would set the stage for the historical unit of study with the entire class of fifth grade students at Woods Elementary. I introduced the story of LaSalle's Lost Colony, the first European colony in the state of Texas, by way of an

impromptu drama. During the Reader's Theatre activity, the students learned about the sequence of events by reading from cue cards when I prompted them. Each student wore a costume that I provided which represented the historical character that matched his or her portion of the script. As the children read their cards, their excitement was palpable. The activity succeeded in introducing the historical topic to the entire class. However, an unexpected reaction occurred on that crisp autumn afternoon. The students expressed identification with their assigned characters and wanted to know what happened to "me." Empathy with historical characters was shown to the extent that they wanted to redo the activity and choose to play a character who had returned to France!

Perhaps this development should not have come as a surprise. After all, I remember my own identification with historical characters as a young learner. I imagined myself as Annie Oakley when I shot my father's rifle, as George Washington Carver when I planted a vegetable garden in the back yard, as John James Audubon when I drew pictures of migrating birds, and as Pocahontas when I rode my pony bareback. Still, it was a stunning development when my pupils demonstrated an instantaneous empathic response to the French colonists who lived and died more than 300 years ago. When they donned the costumes, they assumed the roles of their assigned characters in a significant way. The students demonstrated empathy by their caring approach to the historical characters.

From that point on, the theme of my research with young social studies learners and their development of historical concepts became focused on empathy. My research questions for the dissertation study evolved into an inquiry about empathy as a tool for elementary aged students, teacher educators, and educators who teach history.

The pilot study was conducted during three weeks in the month of November 2001. During the pilot study, I spent 30 or 45 minutes a day with the students during their regular social studies instruction time. The students participated in Reader's Theatre and learned historical dates and facts about La Salle's French colony. Once the pilot study was completed in November, I invited interested students to continue the historical investigation the following January. Virtually all of the fifth grade class wanted to participate. However, after a parent meeting in which I outlined the commitment needed to take part in the project, the number of interested students declined. Eight students made the commitment to the goals of the endeavor. Among this group, attendance, participation, and cooperation were required for membership. Parents showed support of the project by allowing their children to commit their time, by assisting with various activities throughout the semester, and by volunteering to help with the culmination of the project; the dramatic presentation.

In this manner, the Woods School History Club was born. The students were given an opportunity to delve deeply into a historical topic that was both fascinating and timely, and I was able to collect research data for my dissertation study. The research participants later reported that they learned from and enjoyed the experience through a variety of historical learning episodes that allowed the children to move into the empathetic realm. Parents expressed their appreciation for their children's increased interest in history. For example, one parent spoke to me often about how much her daughter was learning and was being influenced by her participation in the History Club. In fact, this parent believes that her daughter has made a career choice--to work in politics in some way-- as a result of her experiences. Three of the eight students listed

participation in this extracurricular academic project on their applications to the school district's highly selective secondary level magnet program. All three were subsequently accepted into the program.

Section I: Description of the Study

The group of eight History Club members and I met biweekly for an entire semester, for a total of thirty-five sessions that lasted approximately ninety minutes each time. The project was divided into three units of study. Each segment was designed to investigate the saga of Fort Saint Louis from a different perspective.

The first ten meetings were devoted to historical archeology. Students were introduced to the story of the first French colony in the state of Texas from the perspective of archeologists. Recent archeological discoveries were the focus of this project. From this starting point, we also studied archeological methods and tools. An overview of the story of the first European colony as well as the excavation effort known as the Fort Saint Louis Archaeological Project was introduced by an informative slide show at the first meeting. We discussed the content of the slides and extended our inquiry into the questions that were used for the KWL chart (Appendix C).

In our second session we were privileged to watch a documentary from the archives of the Texas Historical Commission. The video, *The Discovery of La Belle*, provided information about nautical archaeology and told the story of the marine excavation of the *La Belle*, the smallest ship of La Salle's fleet. Subsequent sessions delved into methods of historical research. Documents and artifacts were studied for the sake of learning the story of the French settlers who settled at Fort Saint Louis. The culmination activity for the archaeology segment was a field trip to the Texas State

History Museum to give students a closer look at the extensive collection of artifacts from the French ship, the *La Belle*, and the inland archeological site known as the Fort Saint Louis Archeology Project.

The next twelve History Club meetings were dedicated to reading narratives about European children who lived with Native Americans and discussing the events of the stories. We wanted to imagine what life was like for the Talon children who survived the massacre at Fort Saint Louis and lived with the Karankawa by exploring similar sagas. We were seeking to go beyond the known facts to develop an understanding of their experiences. We hoped to gain insight into their coping mechanisms and tactics for survival. The students listened while I read the chapters of the selected pieces of literature, *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941); *Boy Captive* (Smith, 1927); *Captured By the Indians; 15 Firsthand Accounts* (Drummer, 1961); and *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives* (Derounian-Stodola, 1998) aloud. I read *Indian Captive* in its entirety and selected portions of the other texts to read to the students. Then we would talk about the episode and speculate about the feelings of the historical characters.

Corresponding activities to supplement the lessons were implemented to embellish the experience for the students and enhance their development of empathy. These activities included simulating historic craft projects, comparing a replica of an astrolabe with a global positioning system, throwing atlatls, making clay pots, and classifying artifacts.

The last segment of our time together was spent creating an original drama. The students gathered the facts, supplemented these with their interpretations, and retold the story of Fort Saint Louis in a dramatic presentation planned for the entire student body of

the elementary school. Our last endeavor culminated in the performance of the students' original script, "The Lost Colony of La Salle" (Appendix M). Their final efforts served to reflect the students' knowledge, their capacity to develop empathy with historical characters, and their ability to collaborate as a learning community.

Section II: Research Questions

Research Question One:

What is the role that empathy appears to play in the development of historical thinking with this group of fifth grade students?

Empathy played a motivational role in the development of historical thinking with this group of fifth grade children. Feelings of empathy with historical characters motivated the pupils to participate and enabled them to feel a sense of connection to the past. Empathy also served as a content deepening strategy for instruction. Empathic attunement with the historical characters who once lived at Fort Saint Louis sparked their curiosity about this particular episode in our state's history. Evidence of empathy emerged in the initial phase of the project and provided a focus throughout my research in the development of historical thinking in this group of fifth grade students.

Empathy Motivates Students to Participate.

The motivational role of empathy is reflected by the students' record of attendance, documented participation in History Club discussions and activities, evidence of voluntary learning extensions, and anecdotal feedback about students' comments and activities from parents and teachers.

At the most basic level, the students' motivation to learn about the historical topic was reflected by their attendance. Perfect attendance was recorded for 28 sessions and, among the remaining seven sessions, only three sessions recorded more than two

absences. Many of the sessions extended beyond the time allotted for the History Club meetings. Additionally, six of the eight students were able to attend three Saturday sessions in which they worked together in preparation for the History Club's culminating activity, the historical drama. On these days the students applied the finishing touches to the sets and props that they had started during the regular History Club sessions.

Student participation in the History Club was documented using two kinds of data. First, discussions were recorded on audiotapes during sixteen of the sessions, with these tapes later transcribed for data analysis. Next, documentation of student behaviors that indicated their participation in the activities and enthusiasm for the topic were recorded in a journal of observations kept by the researcher.

Students' verbal contributions to the History Club discussions constituted the bulk of the data that was examined for the study. Approximately twelve hours of tape-recorded discussions revealed specific patterns of input by the individual students as well progress or change in the group's dynamics over time. Analysis of the transcripts also revealed consistently emerging themes.. I examined at frequency of each student's input and looked for comments that revealed their empathy with historical characters.

When I counted, I found that Carol contributed the greatest number of questions and comments during History Club sessions, although she did not dominate the discussions in a manner that excluded other students. She emerged as the strongest participant on tape as well as in my reflective notes. Carol often spoke to me before meetings and after the sessions had ended. She was present at every session and helped after hours with the preparation for the play. She even begged me to allow the History Club to meet more than two times per week. Carol identified strongly with Marie-

Madeleine Talon. Carol asked many questions about her, such as what it would be like to have a “secret language” with a younger sibling, as Marie-Madeleine did with her younger brother Robert, and what it must have been like to take care of the younger children and to try to protect them from harm. Carol also reported that she pretended to be the eldest Talon child when she played with her younger siblings, a brother and a sister, at home.

Wilson and Brad were also dynamic contributors during the meetings. After Carol, Wilson was the person whose voice was heard most often on the tapes and his was the strongest male voice. Wilson was very interested in learning about all of the artifacts. He was fascinated with how they worked. Brad’s contributions were almost as frequent as Wilson’s, and they included thoughtful and elaborate commentaries. He was particularly keen to learn more on his own about the historical context, and he was almost obsessed with the conflict between France and Spain. Questions and comments from both of these participants reflected their intense curiosity about how the colonists coped with daily life as well as interpretations of the events that occurred. These students’ contributions also revealed their familiarity with the historical facts about Fort Saint Louis and their understanding of the changes in technology over time. They actively participated in our discussion about the story of the brothers who lived with Native Americans from the book *Boy Captive* (Smith, 1927). Both boys were intrigued to realize that “Old Dan Tucker,” a song featured in *Boy Captive*, was one that they had previously learned in their music class. Thus, Wilson and Brad felt that their prior knowledge was useful to their construction of an understanding of history.

Josh, Rosa, Alonso, Mary, and Eva also added to our History Club discussions. They contributed significantly during the meetings with ideas and insights that helped to keep the conversations alive. Their participation was vital to our learning community.

Josh expressed a keen awareness of the challenges of historical research and contributed numerous remarks to these discussions. For example, during artifact explorations, he was especially interested in “putting together the pieces of the puzzle,” which he verbalized often. For Josh, history learning had previously taken place only through reading the textbook, and he seemed to enjoy being “freed” to examine primary sources. Rosa participated most often during the narrative sessions that delved into the story of Molly Jemison in *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941). Like many of the other female participants, Rosa connected closely with the female protagonist because of her curiosity about the daily life of Molly. Alonso was also a consistent contributor. He exhibited a strong sense of humor that was, at times, appreciated, but other times served as a distraction. Alonso was often animated and talkative in response to the literary characters, especially during the reading of *Indian Captive*. He wanted to know more about a particular rite of passage, running the gauntlet, which he learned about in the book. Like the other boys in History Club, he wanted to spend more time learning about this particular incident. Alonso’s remarks were distributed throughout the transcripts. Mary’s participation in History Club was not always demonstrated in overt ways. However, she was a very active contributor when we read *Indian Captive*, as she imposed her own beliefs about her experiences as a foster child onto the protagonist, Molly, and said, “Molly will just have to get used to that kind of treatment.” Eva was the least active member of the group, with only a minimal verbal record of participation. She typically

did not speak up except when I prompted her to respond directly. Although she was quiet, Eva expressed her commitment to History Club through her perfect attendance and by contributing extra time helping with the costumes.

Additional factors that indicated a high level of interest were also considered as part of the descriptive data. Although *enthusiasms* a term that suggests students are having fun, when students are enthusiastic in a learning situation they are focused, emotionally engaged, and in a state of readiness to learn. The History Club members expressed enthusiasm when they exhibited a strong desire to participate in the activities and discussions together. The children also demonstrated their enthusiasm for the History Club each time they stayed past the allotted time or begged their parents to pick them up late. Carol, Rosa, and Alonso requested extra time to engage in the activities at virtually every session and Brad's mother told me that he "never wanted to come home" on the days that the History Club met.

The students' enthusiasm for learning about the historical topic was also demonstrated when the children asked to repeat our activities. Brad, Wilson, Alonso, and Josh wanted to throw the atlatl long after the History Club session was over and asked permission to repeat the activity for weeks afterwards. Each time that I facilitated a historical simulation to keep student hands busy during the readings of historical narratives, all of the students were willing to participate. Excitement for the project was further shown by their dedication to the preparation for the culminating dramatic activity: making sets, creating costumes, and writing the script for the play.

The students reacted in a positive manner to learning history at this deep level because they described experiences that I provided for them were "different" and "fun"

as well as being “an interesting way to learn about history.” They had “fun” because they were “not just reading from the book.” The word “fun” was used 43 times in interviews and on tapes of discussions, and countless times in informal settings.

Students increased level of motivation was also reflected by their participation in voluntary learning extensions. Five students reported that they participated in activities that extended their study of Fort Saint Louis beyond the hours of the History Club meetings. Brad, Carol, Wilson, Eva, and Alonso visited the Texas State History Museum with their families to show them the artifacts that we had studied in the History Club meetings. Two students traveled with their parents to the archeological lab in South Texas to extend their knowledge of the subject. Both Brad and Wilson reported visiting the Fort Saint Louis Archeological Lab in Victoria, Texas while it was open to the public. Additionally, several students reported conversations that they had during their school lunch hour about the History Club, which showed that they extended their interest in and discussions about the content of our lessons beyond the meetings. Josh looked up Karankawa Indians on the Internet at home and conducted independent research on the topic. He was eager to share information with the group, and Josh’s father reported that they spent quite a bit of time together in discussion about this historical time period.

The parents and teachers of the fifth graders in the History Club provided a wealth of anecdotal evidence of their children’s enthusiasm. Responses from parents reinforced my overall impression of pupils’ emotional investment in the project. Parents reported that their children were enjoying the club and teachers told me that students talked favorably about the History Club. Interestingly, Eva’s grandparents reported being “thrilled” that Eva was so enthusiastic about learning history, and that she was always

eager to share. One fifth grade teacher, Ms. Brown, was especially supportive of the endeavor due to her students' increased interest in social studies that spring. One day she stopped me in the hallway at Woods Elementary to say,

“I can't believe how interested the [History Club] students have become in primary sources! When we come to a sidebar in the textbook that has information about primary sources, the [History Club] students always want to stop, discuss, and learn more.”

At the end of the spring semester, all of the History Club students requested that we extend the club into the sixth grade.

Empathy Enables Students to Connect to the Past.

Empathy with the Talon children enabled the students to develop a sense of connection to the past. Their empathy provided students with a gateway into their development of historical thinking by activating a sense of wonder among the students. Once they developed empathic attunement with the Talon children who lived long ago, the fifth graders wanted to know more about their lives. They wondered what their lives were like after the destruction of Fort Saint Louis, during the period of the Talon children's lives after the Karankawas kidnapped them, and during their servitude/enslavement at the compound of the Viceroy Galvez de Conde in Mexico.

Higher levels of understanding of historical thinking need time and instructional attention to evolve (Davis, Jr., 2001). We started with the bigger picture of the history of an early settlement, Fort Saint Louis in South Texas, and then narrowed our focus to investigate the personal lives of one small contingent of the French settlers who lived there during the Seventeenth Century.

The early History Club lessons were designed to provide an overview of the historical era by having the children interact with documents and artifacts that

represented the material culture. Historical thinking goes beyond knowing the facts and requires students to think meaningfully about the subject (Wineburg, 2001). Tactile interactions with historical articles, whether they are replicas or authentic, provide an emotional connection to the past and establish a foundation for students' interest in historical inquiry (Dewolf, 2002). One artifact exploration stands out as an example of the History Club students' struggle to understand what artifacts can teach and how difficult it is to "piece" together the context from which they come. I brought to one meeting broken shards of contemporary clay pots. For each "set" of pottery pieces, I had purposely left a few pieces out. After demonstrating how to investigate each edge of the pottery shard to see which piece might connect, I asked the children to put the pots back together again. They worked in pairs, and were free to ask each other—and me—questions. This activity proved to be very time consuming and arduous for the children, and it gave them an appreciation for the work of archaeologists. Alonso spoke for the group when he remarked, "I had no idea that this would be so hard!"

Initially, student comments that indicated their feelings of connection to the past dealt with basic survival of the fictional and real children—Molly Jemison in *Indian Captive*, the Smith boys (Jeff and Clinton) from *Boy Captive*, and the five Talon children—who lived long ago. In a discussion about the French colonists, Wilson asked, "So, what about the people who stayed? How did they eat? How did they cook?" Carol correctly credited the native people for the colonists' survival: "The Indians helped them find food and they shared their food." As the study progressed, student inquiry expanded into a broader category of consideration. For example, the students thought about whether the Talon children learned how to read, had access to musical instruments, or played with

toys. Students were intensely interested in their daily lives, their relationships, their survival skills, and what the Talon children thought about during their time in captivity.

The students' developments of connections to the past were evident in their questions about the Seventeenth Century lifeways, material culture, technology, and education. Students were intrigued by the artifact classification lesson in which the hands-on activity illuminated similarities between their own basic needs and the basic needs of Seventeenth Century people. Among the artifacts explored were a comb, cup, button, knife, and eating utensils. When Rosa touched the replica of a comb, she exclaimed, "It is almost like my comb!" and Alonso, a veteran hunter, expressed interest in the knife, saying, "I wonder how they sharpened it."

In the fifth session, when I read primary source excerpts from *The La Salle Expedition to Texas: The Journal of Henri Joutel, 1684-1687* (Foster, 1998), a lively discussion ensued in which students speculated about the literacy of the French children. Brad wanted to believe that they could read and Wilson agreed, "Well, they had time to learn how." Carol wondered whether their mother read to them. Brad decided that La Salle probably didn't care about providing a school for the children at the settlement of Fort Saint Louis, saying, "He was always leaving."

The focus on children learning about other children was an advantage to this inquiry. I believe that it was easier for my students to relate to the issues of young historical characters than to the problems of adults. Every participant contributed comments that expressed his or her empathic attunement with the Talon children at some point in the study. Boys related to the boys of the Seventeenth Century and girls related to the girls. All of the students were intrigued by the challenges that the characters faced

in their times. All of the boys wanted to discuss the tattoos that were inflicted upon the Talon children. The illustrations from the book *The American Heritage Book of Indians* (Joseph, 1961) did not satisfy their curiosity. Consequently, Josh conducted research at home and brought a picture to share that he downloaded from the Internet. As a whole, the children also thought that the Karankawa could not have possibly gathered enough food to stay nourished, and they wanted to know more about this aspect of daily life among the Native American tribal members.

Similarly, the girls were interested in the clothes that the Seneca tribe made for Molly Jemison, heroine of *Indian Captive*, to wear and what kind of clothes, if any, the Karankawas provided for the Talon children. Rosa and Carol had experience with sewing clothes and wanted to know: “What did she (Marie Madeleine Talon) use for needles?” They believed that the endeavor of making clothing in the Seventeenth Century must have been difficult. Rosa and Carol also speculated that the historical children had few choices about clothing. For example, they were fascinated to learn in the diary of Henri Joutel, that some of the colonists’ clothing was made out of the sails of the wrecked ship *La Belle*.

Connections to the past were explored in various ways. The pupils interpreted technological changes from 1685 to 2002 as the most dramatic and significant contrast between the era that we studied and the present time. Lifestyle changes were also discussed after I read from the book, *Captured By the Indians: 15 Firsthand Accounts* (Drimmer, 1961). We expanded the idea to include changes in language structure after reading excerpts from *Women’s Indian Captivity Narratives* (Derounian-Stodola, 1998)

The students were incredulous when I read from this book; they asked, “Is that really English?” The children were surprised by the changes in language over time.

Once the students were able to imagine--if they were ever truly capable of this cognitive stretch--how the Talon children survived in harsh circumstances and without the benefit of our modern conveniences, they voiced concern for the hardships and joy for the triumphs of the historical characters from our various narratives. The History Club students were concerned about the many hardships of daily life and survival experienced by the Talon children as well as the children in the other stories that we read. They expressed joy that all of the Talon children eventually made it to France—and freedom.

As the students developed feelings of empathy with the historical characters in this unit of study they were motivated to learn more about them. Slowly, they constructed a bridge to the past, a connection to the historical characters. Connection to the characters then led to a motivation to investigate the details of their lives. Hence, empathy enabled the students to feel a sense of connection to the past.

Empathy Promotes Content Deepening in History Instruction.

Empathy served as a content-deepening strategy for instruction during History Club meetings. My goal for the project was to facilitate the development of students’ historical thinking skills by sparking their interest in how people lived long ago. The National Center for History in the Schools (Nash, 1996) suggested that educational reform should follow specific guidelines. These guidelines, the National Standards for United States History, include (1) chronological thinking, (2) historical comprehension,

(3) historical analysis and interpretation, (4) historic research capability, and (5) historic issues analysis and decision making (Nash, 1996).

The standards promote thinking at higher levels, developing skills that go beyond the basic memorization of dates and facts. Each standard also contains a subset of essential elements that define that category (Appendix P). Multi-layered structures for learning, which expand the educational platform far beyond reading and memorizing the standards, call for students to be able to think like historians. This places students at the center of the learning process (Van Sledright, 2000). The curriculum for this study was designed to satisfy requirements proposed by the standards. Each lesson included strategies for instruction to implement the ideals proposed by the standards.

1. Chronological Thinking

Chronological thinking is listed as the first standard. It is the acquisition of a chronological concept in the development of historical thinking skills (Nash, 1996). Students engaged in the study of history must first learn to distinguish between past and present. History educators agree that the acquisition of a chronological perspective is a key component to the development of a historical perspective (Barton and Levstik, 2004; Black, 2000; Davis, Jr., 2001; Field, 2001; Van Sledright, 2000). Students need to have both general and specific ideas about time in history and be able to make it relevant to their own lives. Situating ourselves in time is a basic human need (Wineburg, 2001).

Understanding the passage of time is an important aspect to the study of history. Concepts of time begin to develop at an early age and can be divided into various categories such as the prehistoric and historic, long ago and long, long ago and “olden

days” frames of reference (Field, 2001). By the age of ten, fifth graders have been exposed to the concept of time in literature, social studies, and in their personal lives.

Chronology was the topic for the History Club’s third lesson. We began with a definition of chronology and a discussion about the importance of placing historical events in time. Then we employed the model of timelines. First we looked at the illustrations on a timeline insert from the book *A Child’s Eye View of History* (McDonald, 1998). We discussed chronology as a central theme in learning about history in general. Next, we examined a timeline that represented the chronology of the La Salle expedition and the sequence of events in the lives of the French colonists (Wheat, 1997). I embellished the basic graphic with illustrations to use as a visual aid as a reference point throughout the entire semester. Then the students created their own personal timelines (Appendix D).

Students activated prior knowledge when they discussed the La Salle timeline. Carol said that chronology is important to historians because “They need to know when things happened.” Eva added, “It shows them the year, or even the century.” Wilson agreed: “I think that you have to know when things happened because it relates to other things that were happening.” When prompted to elaborate, he said: “Well, when La Salle was on the expedition, France and Spain were at war, so I think he was trying to invade Spanish territory.” Carol commented, “If you know the dates of a war and then you see those dates on the La Salle timeline, then you can say, *“Oh, that is why he did that.”*” Joshua tied it all together when he said, “Each piece of the information helps us to learn about the past. Each thing we learn is a part of the puzzle, so everything fits into place.”

Rosa extended the discussion with her input about the use of chronology: “We can see how things have changed. If the date says 1685, we know that they didn’t drive cars.”

Individual timelines provided students with a sense of their own place in time. Students participated in the exercise, which personalized the historical process and put them in the position of serving as historical agents, reporting their own history. Comments from this session included empathic references to the Talon children: “I wonder what Marie was doing on her tenth birthday” (Carol); “I wonder how old Jean Baptiste was when he stopped speaking French” (Mary). Students made references were made to significant chronological events in their own lives as well: “My grandfather died when I was eight” (Eva); “My baby sister was born when I was seven”(Carol); and “My family moved to a new house when I was six because my mom and dad divorced” (Alonso).

A LaSalle expedition timeline was also developed as an organizer of key historical events. Each of the historical characters in our study was noted as having a place on the La Salle expedition timeline. We discussed the ages of the Talon children at the time of the French settlement, the Karankawa raid, and the recapture of the children by Spanish soldiers under the leadership of Alonso de Leon. The timelines provided a means of mental scaffolding for students to organize their ideas historical thought and to use their developing concepts of historical thought to connect the past and present. They provided a visual representation for their chronological schema that helped them to construct a picture of the past.

2. *Historical Comprehension*

Historical comprehension, the second standard for historical thinking, includes the context and the stories of the time that is being studied. Historical comprehension pertains to narratives and their role in understanding the past. Empathy thus plays a strong role in the development of historical comprehension because it involves using historical imagination to comprehend the story. When students attempt to comprehend the events in an historical episode, they must pay attention to the context and identify the central questions or theme of the narrative (Nash, 1996). A feeling of empathy with the historical characters motivates the students to try to comprehend the basic stories of people who lived long ago.

Empathy was a vital component in the development of historical comprehension for this group of fifth graders. Historical knowledge of fifth graders is organized in a narrative form (Barton and Levstik, 1996), so using *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941) in its entirety and excerpts from *Boy Captive* (Smith, 1927); *Captured By the Indians, 15 Firsthand Accounts* (Drummer, 1961) and *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives* (Derounian-Stodola, 1998) to augment the students' understanding of the events was a natural decision. Students were encouraged to elaborate on what was being read after every session. We discussed the events, the activities, the feelings of the characters, and the illustrations from each text.

In the beginning of our study of life at Fort Saint Louis, we focused on the material culture to inform us about the historical context of the Seventeenth Century. In our fourth session, we compared the historical maps that were used by La Salle (Wheat, 1997) to current maps. A rich discussion ensued about the differences in the maps. Two

of the questions that arose were: “How could they read these old maps?” and “How could anyone find their way using a map like this?” Next we contrasted two navigational tools, the astrolabe (a replica) and the modern Global Positioning System instrument (which we borrowed from an engineering firm), to help us understand why La Salle missed his destination—the mouth of the Mississippi River--by 300 miles. Instead, he landed near the mouth of Garcitas Creek, in Matagorda Bay in South Texas. Despite our discussion of the technological limitations of the navigational tools, Carol said, “I think that they were trying to invade Spanish territory.” Some students agreed, but Brad asked “Didn’t he take a wrong turn?” Wilson answered, “It was because of the currents and because the astrolabe was not very accurate.” He revealed his understanding of the instruments’ usage when he said, “The astrolabe was a tool that helped them with navigation by looking at the sky.”

After mulling over the logistics of traveling from France to the shores of South Texas, the students continued their inquiry with questions about La Salle’s motives and the purpose of the French settlement. Carol showed that she was seeking to understand the colonists’ intentions when she said, “They were trying to settle down. They were going to make a colony for more French to come over and join them.” Rosa agreed, “That’s what I think, too.” However, when I asked, “Why?” and queried, “Did some of the people go back home?” “They were afraid of the Indians,” Mary explained, “They were tired and no one found any gold.”

The students continued to ask many questions about the ships. They wanted to know how the people fit in such a small space, how they kept food fresh, how they went to the bathroom, and so on. They wondered about the navigational tools, the cannons,

and the materials used to build the fort. When we discussed the daily lives of the French settlers, the students assumed it was all hardship and misery. In the fifth lesson, after I read from *The Journal of Henri Joutel* (Foster, 1998), we ventured into discussions about Joutel's role and the contents of his diary about Fort Saint Louis. The students wanted to know whether his depiction accurately portrayed the events from the perspective of the settlers. Brad said, "I'm glad that I didn't have to live with them!" because "it would be so hard...just to think about how they had to learn everything new and start all over." Wilson worried about the colonists' survival skills: "I was thinking that a lot of them were taken from church doorsteps and I was thinking that they might not have known how to be gardeners when they were in France, so now they have to learn how to grow everything in this new place and that is why it is so hard for them." Carol was also concerned but she exhibited more confidence in the colonists' ingenuity: "I think that it was hard for some of them but that most of the people did know a lot about plants and growing things and besides they brought some seeds from France so someone knew how to grow things."

Our study progressed from discussions about life at Fort Saint Louis to an inquiry about the children's experience with the Karankawa natives. I played down some of the specific details of the Karankawa raid because I wanted to present the Karankawa in a new light to my students. For example, in spite of their frightening demeanor (as very tall people who were coated in alligator fat and covered with numerous black tattoos), the Karankawa helped the settlers find food and were very tender toward the Talon children. Five of the students professed total ignorance of the French colony in the interviews that

were conducted prior to the study of the unit, yet all of the participants had heard of the Karankawas and identified them as fierce and cannibalistic.

The Karankawa were in fact hospitable to the French colonists upon their arrival. I told the students that they became hostile after La Salle ordered his troops to confiscate their dugout canoes (Foster, 1998; Ricklis, 1996). This new perception of the Karankawa helped the students to foster respect for multiple perspectives in historical accounts. Prior to this lesson, the students thought that French represented civilization and the natives were savages. Alonso described the natives as “primitive” and Josh used the term “backwards.” Learning that the Karankawa had shared their expansive knowledge of the local flora and fauna with the French colonists enabled the children to modify their perceptions of the native tribe. They began to use terms like “helpful” and “knowledgeable” when referring to the Karankawa native tribe.

The next phase of our project was an investigation into the captive episode of the lives of Marie Madeleine, Jean Baptiste, Lucien, and Robert Talon (Pierre Talon was living with the Hasinai). My students expressed considerable curiosity about the Talons’ experiences with the Karankawa. Concerns for the children’s basic survival was pervasive throughout the conversations. The mere act of gathering food seemed overwhelming to the students and they related it to their own experience of picking wild blackberries. Alonso told us about the best places (locally) to pick wild berries but Rosa, Carol, and Wilson reported visits to a local farm. Wilson pointed out that finding enough berries for subsistence was only one part of the challenge: “You also have to worry about snakes.” This comment led Carol to add, “Yeah, snakes and stickers and poison ivy.” Brad wondered if the Karankawa were always hungry so we looked at the illustrations of

them in the text *The American Heritage Book of Indians* (Joseph, 1961) to determine whether they looked emaciated. We decided that they looked well fed (Appendix R).

Rosa thought that the Karankawas had not mistreated the French children. Rosa said, “They learned how to do all the stuff” they needed to survive. Mary, herself a foster child, believed that the children became attached to their captors. She said, “They didn’t want to leave their new family when the Spanish came.”

One of the defining features of historical narratives is their believable recounting of human events (Barton and Levstik, 2004). To read such accounts with understanding, students must learn to recognize the narrative structure, sequence of events, elements of the historical era, and actions of the characters who are central to the story. We progressed from a skeletal outline of the known events that took place in the lives of the Talon children to an extrapolation of their experiences when we began to read the historical novel *Indian Captive* (Lanski, 1941). We were seeking insight into “the psychological and cultural reality in which the participants in history actually lived” (Bruner, 1990).

In the introductory chapter of *Indian Captive*, Molly Jemison’s family is described as being farming folk who grew corn in a settlement known as March Creek Hollow in Pennsylvania. Molly was sent to fetch a horse from the neighbor, Dixon. When she returned, she found her home in an upheaval due to an Indian raid. The Seneca Indians captured her family and forced them to abandon their homestead (Lanski, 1941).

The History Club students were moved by the events of the story. First, they imagined how they would feel in a similar situation. Carol said, “Oooh, my mom would be crying.” Mary agreed, “Mine, too.” Rosa empathized, “I bet she was scared.” Then

they thought about how they might react differently from the character in the story. Wilson said, "I would try to get away" but Carol replied, "It is not that easy."

"But I wouldn't let them take me!" Wilson argued. Carol countered, "How do you know what you would do? You'd be so scared." Wilson persisted, "I still think that I would get away. I still think I would escape." Alonso agreed, "Me, too." Quiet Mary piped up, "This is a sad story!"

We discussed the similarities between Molly Jemison's saga and the story of the Talon children. Eva and Mary were able to connect the two stories. However, Joshua argued, "But it is not the same place." Alonso agreed with the girls (and me) that the stories were analogous. He said, "I think it is very similar...because the Indians took her to be their own just like the Karankawa took the French kids. Also, they killed her parents." Brad sighed and exclaimed, "It is *hard to imagine*." But Carol and Eva expressed enthusiasm for the story. Carol said, "I think it is exciting," and Eva said, "I want to know how they made things." I was encouraged by the lively discussion and said, "I think that we will enjoy this project." Wilson concurred, "I know that I will!"

The novel, *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941) portrayed many events that were familiar to the students from other sources in their experiences with historical topics. Evidence of prior knowledge was found in the discussion about the episode in which the Seneca captured a young white man, Josiah, and forced him to run the gauntlet. Alonso elaborated on the report from the text by describing how he had seen a similar ordeal enacted on TV. The boys did not believe that the Indians intended to kill Josiah. First Wilson said, "It was a ritual." Then Brad explained, "It was a rite of passage." Wilson added, "It means that he can become one of them, an Indian." But, in Alonso's opinion,

“He doesn’t want to.” Brad said, “They captured him.” Joshua commented, “He shows them that he is tough.” In these comments the boys were relating the content of the story to their prior knowledge and understandings about how other cultures might conduct a rite of passage. They were showing their historical comprehension of the event as well as their personal understanding of the specific ritual of running the gauntlet.

Similar discussions occurred throughout our discussions of the remaining chapters of the text of *Indian Captive*. In each session the students carefully listened as I read the chapters out loud. Then they pondered the motives and feelings of the historical characters and speculated about their inner lives. Evidence of the students’ historical comprehension was found in the transcripts of every session. Rosa acknowledged the challenges of the historical character’s situation when she wondered, “How is she going to survive?” and Wilson answered, “We know that she survived because she grew up and told her story.” The novel’s portrayal of the story of Molly Jemison extended through her teenage years when she had acculturated to the Seneca tribe. In the prologue to the text we learned that she lived the rest of her life with them (Lenski, 1941).

A context-based approach for the study of history contributes to the development of historical comprehension (Levstik and Pappas, 1987). Students developed an understanding of the experiences of the French colonists when they explored the environment of the Seventeenth Century. The students utilized a variety of primary (journal, artifacts and maps) and secondary (narratives, texts, and illustrations) historical sources in the process of acquiring contextual knowledge.

The narrative component extended students’ comprehension by facilitating a comparison between the sagas of Molly Jemison with the story of the Talons. By

immersion in the description of Molly's experiences with the Seneca Indians, the students learned about the setting, characters, problems, and resolution of her life.

Reading and discussing historical fiction is an effective way for students to learn about a specific period in time. Using narrative to illuminate a historical topic in depth promotes students' development of historical comprehension (Davis, Jr., 2001; Barton and Levstik, 2004; Field, 2001; Van Sledright, 2000; Wineburg, 2001). My research participants enhanced their empathic attunement to the Talon children when they listened to stories of other European children who had lived with Native Americans. By discussing the story of Molly Jemison and participating in the historical activities that were described in the text, *Indian Captive* (Lenski, 1941), the students were able to improve their abilities to elaborate on what was being read, to draw inferences based on known facts, and to recall information for use at a later point in time.

3. Evidence of Historical Analysis and Interpretation

The third standard, historical analysis and interpretation, pertains to critical thinking and students' ability to think independently. Students are able to acquire and develop these skills when they are given the opportunity to deliberate over the events that are presented rather than merely providing the "right" answer. History is a controversial subject (Levstik and Barton, 2001) with many possibilities for interpretation. Exposure to multiple perspectives in history class will contribute to students' ability to appreciate alternative viewpoints in real life situations.

The skills of historical analysis and interpretation were integrated throughout the lessons the entire semester. Students compared and contrasted differing sets of ideas about how people live and cope when we discussed the diverse lifestyles of the people

who lived long ago. Multiple perspectives were considered first when we discussed La Salle's intentions and again when we discussed events that occurred in the lives of European children who lived with the Native Americans.

Eighteen sessions were devoted to the analysis of the historical topic using both hands-on activities and the discussion of narratives. Historical details about life in the Seventeenth Century were examined through the study of primary sources and secondary sources. We compared the details of Molly Jemison's life in the northeastern mountainous region with the lives of the Talon children in the coastal region of the southwest. Our primary sources were the journal of Henri Joutel (Foster, 1998) and replicas of the artifacts, maps, and astrolabe. The secondary sources that informed our study were the historical texts, illustrations, Internet web sites, and a brochure from the Texas Historical Commission.

The students investigated the story of Molly Jemison, who lived with the Seneca tribe, as a girl whose age was similar to theirs but who lived in another place and time. They contrasted Molly's story with what is known about the Talons. Students believed that the reactions and behaviors of the historical characters would be similar to their own. They communicated this assumption when they compared themselves to the historical figures. In an example from the first lesson, Wilson said that, if he were captured like Molly, "I would try to get away." Carol responded, "How do you know what you would do?" and he replied, "Well, I wouldn't let them just take me."

In a discussion a few days later, Rosa said, "We can't imagine how bad anything was." Mary speculated, "Maybe she just stops thinking about it at all." Carol responded, "You could never get used to it" but Brad replied, "Maybe you could." Wilson argued,

“We know she survived because she grew up and told her story.” Eva added, “She wanted to stay with them and she grew to love them.” “How do we know?” I asked. “It says so in the introduction,” Brad answered, “It says that she wanted to stay with them.”

Several weeks later, after a description of Molly’s experience doing claywork with her captors, Rosa observed, “She wants to learn how to do Indian things. She wants to make a coil pot.” Joshua said, “Now she feels happy. I think that she has a sense of belonging since she wants to make a pot.” Carol adds, “The more she learns, the more she gets away from her culture. She thinks, ‘This is my family now’ when she gets to make things. Her making stuff makes her happy.”

As shown in all of these comments, the students begin to interpret the events of the story by expressing empathy with the historical characters. They showed that they were relating the character’s feelings to their own initial reactions. As each story progressed, the children were able to acknowledge that Molly was able to adjust to her environment. The shift in perception demonstrated students’ ability to develop an appreciation for multiple perspectives.

The ability to draw inferences based on known facts is another aspect of historical interpretation, which was demonstrated in the discussion that dealt with Molly’s acquisition of the Seneca language. We learned from two sources--*La Salle, the Mississippi, and the Gulf* (Weddle, 1987) and *The French Thorn* (Weddle, 1991)-- that the Talon children learned to speak the native’s language. Then we discussed the similarity between the Talon children’s experience and Molly’s as it was represented in the text. In one example from the transcripts, an excerpt from the third narrative lesson, the students reflected empathic attunement with Molly’s experience when they speculated

about her new language acquisition. Alonso observed, “She learned the language mostly by listening. Then, overnight, she began to speak the language. It is like in the book, *The Thirteenth Warrior*.” Rosa interpreted Molly’s motives when she said; “She was able to learn the language because of her relationships with the other women. She wanted to talk to them and she finally understood what they were trying to say to her, too.”

In yet another portion of the Talon saga, we learned from the Joutel diary (Foster, 1998) that La Salle ordered the eldest son to leave his family and go live with the Hasinai, a native tribe in East Texas. Pierre was expected to learn the native language for the sake of assisting with the French colonization effort. Wilson expressed anger that La Salle separated Pierre, at age eleven, from his family. He interpreted it as a poor decision. Wilson commiserated with Pierre’s plight and said, “La Salle wasn’t a good leader.”

4. Evidence of Historical Research Skills

Children learn history by doing history (Barton and Levstik, 1997, 2001, 2004; Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Davis, Jr., 2001; Lindquist, 1995; Skolnick, 1999; Steffey and Hood, 1994; Sunal and Haas, 2002; VanSledright, 2001; Wineburg, 2001). The task of “doing history” involves the skills of historical research. Doing history involves questioning, collecting data, interpreting the data, and explaining its interpretation and importance (Barton and Levstik, 2001). Careful application of these methods leads to the development of historical thinking concepts (Nash, 1996).

Empathy was integral to the questioning aspect of historical research. Students wanted to know how the characters lived and they formulated many questions for the study. Beginning with the preunit interviews and the KWL chart (Appendix C) and

continuing throughout the study, students inquired about the details of the lives of the Talon children.

Collecting data for our inquiry was accomplished by utilizing primary (journals, artifacts, and maps) and secondary (narratives, texts, and illustrations) sources. Early sessions focused on the development of specific historical skills in isolation. We devoted six lessons to the function of primary sources to learn how they inform historians.

One History Club lesson was devoted to journals. The journal lesson illuminated the function of diaries as a source of insight into the daily lives of historical characters. Excerpts from *The La Salle Expedition to Texas: The Journal of Henri Joutel, 1684-1687* (Foster, 1998) provided information about life at Fort Saint Louis. The work of Henri Joutel was a revelation to the students due to their preconceived notions about the literacy of people in the Seventeenth Century. As evidenced by notions of presentism, the children erroneously believed that literacy was widespread--and equal to contemporary literacy--during the Seventeenth Century.

History Club learning sessions pertaining to artifacts provided tactile interaction with historical sources, which embellished students' historical perspective on a kinesthetic level. The students were intrigued by the idea that historians were informed by materials other than the written word and this revelation helped to broaden their perspectives about the potential methods of historical research. Interestingly, I observed that during their investigation of artifacts, some children who typically did not speak out a great deal during History Club were more vocal. This was especially true for Alonso and Eva. The weapons intrigued Alonso while Eva appreciated the beads.

Instructional time was also given to using secondary sources for the purpose of embellishing our content knowledge as well as for use in providing multiple perspectives. Although the teacher provided most of the data for this historical inquiry, the students also contributed some data. Joshua brought additional information on the Karankawa that he had obtained from the Internet at home, Brad shared an article that his mother found in the newspaper, and all of the students provided primary source data about their own lives in the form of personal timelines and shoebox museums.

The task of interpretation is woven into the inquiry process (Barton, 2004). Interpreting the data is a challenging assignment even for expert historians, so it can be overwhelming to a ten year old. On the one hand, we had Alonso who believed that the archeologists and historians were able to understand every aspect of the colonists' life based on the artifacts and documents that were available. In the same group, we had the other extreme impression from Rosa who didn't understand how the experts could make any sense out of the available data. Although we discussed the task of obtaining research data, we focused more on how to use the materials to inform our historical inquiry.

A major stumbling block for comprehension for my students was the issue of presentism (Davis, Jr., 2001). Now that we have an abundance of technological tools to record our personal experiences, it was hard for the children to imagine that even a pen and paper would be a luxury to children of long ago. The students were influenced by the current technology that we have all grown accustomed to. In this age of videotapes, audiotapes, cameras, computers, and printers, people are able to record even the most mundane personal experiences for future reference.

Effective history involves the sustained study of important topics (Barton and Levstik, 2001, 2004). Devoting an entire semester to one episode in our state's history provided a unique opportunity to explore the idea of doing history by focusing on a single topic. Methods of historical research were utilized in every session and several lessons focused on specific skills.

5. Historic Issues Analysis and Decision Making

Students of history soon learn that people have faced similar problems throughout the ages. An evaluation of the consequences of human actions can be considered from the position of hindsight. This perspective can serve to facilitate the ability to make reasoned judgments (Barton and Levstik, 2004). Both Brad and Wilson--who expressed disappointment, a moral stance, in regard to the events of the French colony--mentioned La Salle's perceived lack of commitment to the colonists at Fort Saint Louis. In another example, the students speculated that Marie Madeleine was probably responsible for the survival of the younger Talon brothers due to her care of and attention to them. This revelation prompted a discussion about how important it is for people to take care of each other, to the extent that it can make the difference between life and death.

The study of history is the study of humans in communities, and groups of people have experienced some of the same problems since the beginning of time. The fifth history standard addresses these issues. When teachers provide students with the opportunity to deliberate about the ways that people in the past dealt with the challenges that they had to face, they are promoting many of the skills needed for citizenship in a democratic society (Nash, 1996; Barton and Levstik, 2004). Students who are allowed to engage in historical issues analysis and decision-making are able to develop problem-

solving skills. By examining the dilemmas that people faced as well as the consequences of the choices that they made, students can better evaluate the outcome of their decisions.

Over the course of the semester, the History Club students learned about many of the challenges faced by the French colonists as well as those of Molly Jemison. Heated debates about the decisions made by La Salle were noted in several sessions. Carol and Brad argued about whether La Salle wanted to antagonize the Spanish army by invading their domain, several students blamed him for the demise of the colony, and all of us speculated about his original intentions when he overshot his declared destination by 300 miles.

Research studies that seek to expand the understanding and practice of historical thinking skills draw upon the research literature in critical thinking. Lessons in which students use the integrative thinking skills of critical thinking are comparable to the goals of historical thinking. Historical thinking entails being able to justify one's opinion or beliefs. Like critical thinking, it requires thoughtful, accurate, constant, and rational analysis of any statement or opinion to judge its value and accuracy (Ennis, 1991).

Research Question Two:

How do children learn empathy?

Empathy is the ability to imagine the thoughts and feelings of other people from their own perspectives (Barton and Levstik, 2004). It means entertaining complex ideas and seeing how they shape views of historical circumstances and goals, even when such ideas and goals may be very different from (and perhaps opposed to) our own (Ashby and Lee, 1987).

Children learn historical empathy by considering other points of view (Field, 2001). Students make sense of their world first by learning about themselves and their surroundings, and then expanding to consider other perspectives. From the vantage point of the personal perspective, children begin to learn about their world by engaging in relationships with their families and friends and then by branching out to other cultural settings such as the school environment.

A strong foundation of self-knowledge equips the individual to mentally branch out into other ways of looking at the world. Validation of one's personal life story in the classroom setting serves to increase mutual respect between the teacher and students (Field, 2001). The lesson that included "personal museums" that were constructed by the members of the History Club served as an example of an activity that validated the students' personal history. This activity also facilitated a sense of belonging among the participants who shared their stories with each other. The personal insight that they provided to each other by sharing the stories of their private lives helped them connect to each other. These personal glimpses, along with the snacks that were always provided at the beginning of the meetings, helped us to build a sense of community.

From the starting point of a personal outlook, young learners can expand their horizons to consider cultural perspectives. Hoge (1991) assert that skills to promote the development of cultural perspective include fostering a sense of wonder about the world, sustaining positive attitudes towards learning about other countries and people and supporting learning skills that build upon future learning (Field, 2001; Hoge and Allen, 1991). Effective social studies instruction that encourages students to consider cultural perspectives may alleviate prejudice by enabling them to perceive vantage points outside

of their own sphere. Children have a natural interest in learning about the lives of other children in their own community and around the world (Field, 2001) and teachers who support cultural perspectives will help students to expand their point of view.

Children learn empathy through the process of four interrelated phases (Yeager and Foster, 2001). In the first phase, the past event is introduced, an episode which requires interpretation of human behavior. Then, context and chronology come into play as essential elements. The third stage is the analysis of the historical evidence, and the final phase is the construction of a narrative framework through which historical conclusions are achieved. The following section will describe the lessons, discussions, and activities through the lens of the framework of the interrelated phases.

The central theme of the History Club was the study of a French expedition and subsequent settlement in the New World, an historical event that necessitates the analysis of human behavior. Questions that arose from this episode in French and Texas history pertained to the causal aspects of this event. Students wanted to know why people chose to join the expedition and how they fared in their new setting. This led into an investigation about the lives of the Talon children, which evolved as the main focus of our inquiry. Empathy with the Talon children was apparent from the very beginning of our alliance as a learning community.

Empathy springs forth from a fertile environment. The development of empathy requires nourishment in the form of consistent and repeated exposure to context and chronology (Field, 2001). These factors provide the essential support for understanding the historical characters and the era in which they lived. Knowledge of historical context can help students realize how interplay of the events in the past can affect the decisions

that were made by the historical characters. In our project, the students acknowledged that the French settlers faced many hardships as they attempted to adjust to their situation in a new environment. Also, the fate of the French colonists was adversely affected by La Salle's dispute with the Karankawa. These factors influenced the ultimate fate of the children who survived the Indian raid. Empathy also relies on an understanding of chronology, of where the characters are situated in time and how the dates correlate to other aspects of history. Our chronological exercises, described elsewhere in this paper, facilitated an awareness of the historical children's place on a timeline of events in the history of Texas, France, and the United States.

The third phase of empathy, as posited by Yeager and Foster (2001), is the "analysis of a variety of historical evidence and interpretations" (p. 25). We thoroughly explored this phase with activities and discussions. Activities with physical objects in the form of replicas of antique maps, an astrolabe, simulated artifacts, photographs of the authentic artifacts and the diary provided the students with opportunities for an emotional connection to the historical evidence. Interpretation of the information and examination of the physical evidence was an ongoing process that continued throughout the duration of the study. Each session included a considerable amount of time devoted to the interpretation of the physical components, the narrative accounts and experiences with historical simulations. Students expressed empathy with historical characters as they pondered the attributes of the artifacts, debated and discussed the events in the stories that were read, and provided feedback about their kinesthetic experiences with the physical activities.

The final phase of the development of empathy (Yeager and Foster, 2001) is represented by the construction of a narrative framework through which historical conclusions are achieved. Students developed their conceptual framework throughout the duration of the History Club's existence and parlayed it into a script that was utilized to express their historical knowledge. This construct developed and grew over time and evolved into the production of the script that was used for the play.

Children can develop historical perspective taking when they learn to reason, consider evidence, think about causality and effect, and gain a sense of context (Field, 2001). Children learn empathy when they invest in an emotional connection to historical characters to make sense of the past. The development of empathy is a central element in the discipline of history (Davis, Jr., 2001).

Analysis of Individual Research Participants

Further interpretation of the research data on a case-by-case basis was determined by looking for the following methods through which the individual students constructed historical empathy (Pate and Klages, 1999):

1. Comparing self to historical figures
2. Compares the past to the present
3. Imagining/assuming events, feelings and actions of historical figures
4. Developing multiple perspectives through class discussion
5. Using information from primary source documents
6. Using information from secondary source documents

Carol

Carol's first interview revealed her enthusiasm for the subject of the French colony, but she had minimal recall of the facts presented in the pilot study. She was eager to join the history club and her Mom thought it was "cool."

Carol said that history was about the past "You know, the people who were presidents and the wars and the explorers." We study it because it is "important to know what happened." Archeology is the study of things that are "buried in the dirt." When asked, "What kind of things?" she answered: "Things from people who used to live a long time ago. When asked about the activities of archeologists, she responded; "They dig up stuff." I asked, "Is this important?" "Yes, so we will know what kind of things they had before us." When asked "Why?" she shrugged at the question. Carol believed that historians "just know" what is important to report about historical events. Similarly, She believed archeologists "know about" the artifacts that they are going to find before they even begin to dig.

In the interview that was conducted before the unit of study, she revealed that she did not know the meaning of a primary or secondary source. When asked about reading history for pleasure she said that she was not sure: "Is *Little House on the Prairie* a history book?" The movie that she named for history/archeology was *Indiana Jones*. She liked the main character because he was brave and exciting. If Carol could travel back in time she would be Harriet Tubman, "Because she freed the slaves."

In the exit interview, Carol demonstrated an increase in her historical understanding by describing life at Fort Saint Louis and the experience of the Talon children with the Karankawa natives in greater detail. She said that history was important because "a study of the past helps us with the problems that we have now." Archeology

was important because “it is a way to find out how people lived a long time ago and it is important to protect the artifacts.” Our work that was most similar to the task of historians was to “compare different ideas about why La Salle did not reach the mouth of the Mississippi”-- in other words, to consider multiple perspectives. She also correctly defined primary and secondary sources and their role in learning about history.

Carol expressed empathy with the historical characters throughout the study and in the exit interview. She compared herself to a historical figure by expressing identification with Marie Madeleine Talon. She admired her for “helping her little brothers to survive with the Indians” and “learning to speak the Karankawa language”.

Carol demonstrated historical empathy when she compared the past to the present in the discussion of Molly Jemison’s initial encounter with the Indians. She asked: “How do you know what you would do?” adding, “It was a different time.”

Imagining the feelings of historical characters is another way that Carol expresses empathy. After the third chapter in the saga of Molly Jemison, Carol stated, “This is worse than anything I’ve ever had to face” and “I think it was hard.” In discussion of later chapters she expressed concern for the character: “I want her to be happy” (after Chapter Ten); “I think the baby really helps her” (after Chapter Eleven); and “Her making stuff makes her happy” (after Chapter Twelve).

Using information from a primary source to construct historical empathy was shown by her response to the Joutel diary: “I think that it was hard for some of them, but that most of the people did know a lot about plants and growing things and, besides, they brought some seeds from France so someone knew how to grow things.” Empathy was

also shown in her responses to *Indian Captive*, a secondary source, throughout the study and in the examples listed above.

Brad

Brad joined the history club because he liked the “idea of learning archeology” and thought that we would do some “cool stuff.” Responses to the questions in his entrance interview revealed a student who was well prepared for the learning experiences ahead of us and who was interested in the topic. He defined history as the “study of people” and said that it “helps us understand where we came from.” Archeology was identified as the study of “ancient people buried in the ground,” and we study it to “find out how they once lived.” He described the task of historians as “to tell stories” but shrugged when asked why it was important. He perceived the meaning of artifacts as “a way to compare the technology of people in the past to us” and thought that archeologists determined the meaning by “looking at other, similar artifacts.” Brad did not know the definition of a primary or a secondary source. He enjoyed reading history in his spare time, especially biographies. He had recently read a biography of Thomas Edison. If he could travel back in time, he said he would choose to be Magellan because of his extensive explorations.

Brad expressed empathy with historical characters by comparing himself with Clinton Smith in *The Boy Captives* when he stated: “I bet he was scared. I know that I would be.” He seemed to compare the past to the present when he said, “It is hard to imagine” after the reading of Molly’s situation in Chapter One of *Indian Captive*. He imagined the feelings of historical characters when, after Chapter Two, he said, “They have to get used to it, and they did get used to it.” Developing multiple perspectives was

illustrated after Chapter Seven when Brad stated, “The Indians treated her with respect. They wanted her to be one of them.” Brad was considering the viewpoint of the Indians rather than only identifying with the captive. Brad used information from the Joutel diary entry, a primary source, to express empathy when he responded, “Just to think about how they had to learn everything new and start all over, it would be so hard.” He used information from a secondary source when he responded to the slide show about the Fort Saint Louis Archeology Project with a question about the colonists who returned to France.

Brad’s contribution to the learning experience for all of the participants was evident throughout the transcripts with his insightful additions to the conversations. His comments were forthcoming after almost every lesson and his numerous questions bracketed every session.

Alonso

In his initial interview, Alonso said he joined the History Club “for the snacks” and hoped to have some fun with his friends. He said that history was “something they make you study at school” and we study it “because we have to.” He believed that archeology was “all about mummies and things” and that archeologists “dig things up.” He did not speculate on their importance.

Alonso did not know the definition of a primary source or a secondary source. He said he did not read history in his spare time: “Oh, no!” He could not think of a movie that was about history. If he could travel back in time he said he would go to the “Bible times” and be “one of those guys.”

Participation in the history club did not transform Alonso into a history buff, but he did learn to appreciate it. In his exit interview, he stated that the purpose of the History Club was to “learn history and how to be a historian.” He said that we study it so that we can be “smart about the past and learn from our mistakes.” He perceived the value of archeology as a “something that people do to save all of the artifacts.” He named the activity that was most similar to the work of archeologists as our pot reconstruction activity. It was also his favorite lesson.

The Talon boys were his favorite characters, and he said he wished that we had a picture of their tattoos. He thought his life would be worse if he had to live with the Indians. If he could be one of the characters, he would be the “guy who went back to France” (Beaujeu) because “he was smart to leave and he got to go home.”

Alonso compared himself to a historical figure at one particular point. After the Chapter Twelve reading, he identified with Josiah and said, “He doesn’t want to join the Indians.” I did not find any examples of the second historical thinking category, comparing past to present, in the data provided by Alonso. However, several examples were found to represent the third category. In the first example, he imagined Josiah’s response to Molly when he wakes up: “Yeah, when he woke up and sees her, he thinks, I’m dreaming!” In the next example, Alonso assumed the feelings of the Seneca Indians when he said, “Because the Indians took her to be their own, just like the Karankawa took the French kids. Also, they killed her parents.” In another passage, Alonso demonstrated imagining the feelings of a historical character when he stated that they (the Talon children) “had to pretend they were just born.”

Alonso utilized information from a primary source document when he participated in the discussion about the Joutel diary. He speculated, “They had to know how to grow things. Everyone had a garden back then” All of his contributions to the discussion about Molly Jemison showed that he was using information about secondary sources. In addition, he had access to much of the literature that we used throughout the project and enjoyed looking at and talking about the pictures of artifacts.

Rosa

Initially, Rosa said that she joined the History Club because she “likes to read and to learn about history.” She described history and archeology as important topics to study “because we need to know about the people who came before us.” Historians “write books” and archeologists “find and preserve artifacts. They donate them to the museums.” Rosa did not know the definition of a primary or a secondary source. She said she enjoyed reading history in her spare time, especially historical fiction and biographies. She could not think of a history movie. If she could travel back in time, Rosa said she would be Joan of Arc.

In the exit interview Rosa said that the purpose of the History Club was “to learn historical methods” and “to learn about the Talon children.” She said she enjoyed the History Club because of the activities and her friends. She correctly defined a primary source as “an original document or artifact” and a secondary source as “a book or paper that is written using primary sources.” Making the coil pots was her favorite activity of the semester, but she also said she loved the play and the visit to the museum. Her favorite character was Marie Madeleine Talon because she took care of her brothers and

managed “to survive the whole ordeal.” She said she enjoyed studying about life with the Indians, but did not like to think about leaving her parents.

Rosa expressed empathy with historical characters in all six categories. In the first category, she compared herself to historical figures when she said, “I bet she was scared” after Chapter One of the *Indian Captive* story. Again, after Chapter Ten, she said, “I would have taken the chance to leave.” In the second category, she compared the past to the present during the chronology lesson when she said, “We can see how things have changed.” After Chapter Three she assumed she knew the feelings of Molly when she said, “But she is not afraid that they will kill her.” Then, after Chapter Six, she said, “She was able to learn the language because of her friendships with the other women. She wanted to talk to them and she finally understood what they were trying to say to her.” Then she added: “I’m happy that she actually understood them.” After Chapter Nine, she said, “Wanting to learn was helpful. It was a good sign that she wanted to learn their ways.” After Chapter Ten she said, “The necklace gave her a chance to have some kind of memory of him.” After Chapter Eleven she assumed Molly’s feelings by stating, “He doesn’t replace her baby brother but she learns to love him.” Following the excerpts from *The Boy Captives*, the students engaged in a discussion about children who did not survive life with the Indians. Once again, Rosa imagined the feelings of a historical character by exclaiming, “It would be so sad to die and not have your family around you.”

Rosa utilized information from primary source documents by participating in the journal activity and identifying the diary as a primary source. Secondary sources were used throughout the entire project by all of the students, including Rosa.

Wilson

Wilson emerged as one of the liveliest members of the History Club group. In his initial interview, he said that he joined the History Club to be with his friends and to have fun. He thought that we would make things and watch more movies like the one about the ship (the *La Bell*). He defined history as the “time that came before us, long ago” and archeology as “really ancient stuff, people who lived before books were written.” He said that historians “tell us what happened” and archeologists “find old bones and treasures and artifacts.” He could not identify a primary source or secondary source. He said that he preferred to read comic books, not history books, in his spare time. Wilson could not name a movie about history unless it was *Star Wars*. His favorite character in the movie was Luke Skywalker. If he could travel back in time, Wilson said that he would be an explorer and sail to faraway places.

For the exit interview, Wilson identified “learning historical methods” as the purpose of the History Club. He said that he enjoyed the History Club because he had fun doing the activities and being with his friends. He defined history as “the study of things that happened and how it all fits together.” Archeology was “also the study of the past except that we usually don’t have any written records of the people.” He correctly defined primary and secondary sources. He had trouble picking a favorite activity, saying, “I liked all of it,” but he finally chose the pot reconstruction as his “most favorite one.” He said that historians have to think about all of the facts before they write a book and that they have to “be careful which account they choose to believe.” Archeologists “learn about culture” from the artifacts. They can “identify its age by comparing it to other artifacts.” Wilson’s favorite character was the “Talon brothers, well, Pierre, I

guess” because they survived their experience with the natives. If he could be a character, he said he would be Pierre Talon (the older brother who was sent by La Salle to live with the Hasinai).

Wilson demonstrated the first category of historical empathy in several instances: First, when he compared himself to Pierre, he believed that Pierre “felt used... He was angry. He was separated from his family because of La Salle.” Then, after the Chapter One reading, Wilson said, “I wouldn’t just let them take me. I think that I would get away. I still think that I would escape.” In the second category, Wilson compared the past to the present by participating in a discussion about the astrolabe and comparing it to the global positioning system. Wilson expressed empathy by imagining or assuming the feelings of historical figures when after the reading of Chapter Nine, he said, “It was weird that she could forget her family after one little pot.” After Chapter Eleven; he said, “It was mean of the Indians to make her carry the baby.” The excerpt from *The Boy Captives* prompted Wilson to make this statement; “He was careful not to do anything that would make them angry.”

Wilson used information from a primary source document in the lesson about the diary of Henri Joutel. He utilized secondary source documents pertaining to the topic throughout the duration of the study.

Eva

Eva, in her initial interview, said that she joined the History Club for the opportunity to participate in the play. She said she was hoping to have time to make costumes and to rehearse for a big production. Eva defined history as “a school subject” and said that we study it “when it is assigned.” She did not know the definition of

archeology. She said that historians “write books” and that they “just know” what is important to write about. She did not know the meaning of a primary source or secondary source. She said that she did not read about history in her spare time, nor could she name a history movie. If she could travel back in time she would be Jackie Kennedy.

Eva’s exit interview was gratifying. She said that she believed that the purpose of the History Club was to “learn how historians and archeologists make decisions about their work.” She said that we study these subjects so that “we can learn how people lived and how different people have the same needs.” Historians were described as people who “find out as much as they can from different sources before they write a book.” Archeologists have “many ways of studying artifacts, including computers that show the site.” Eva’s favorite character was Marie Madeleine Talon. She did not want to think about living with the Indians, but she did like making the coil pot and she said that it was her favorite activity.

Most of Eva’s responses during the History Club sessions were brief and neutral. Although, she often had to be prompted to respond during our discussions, her comments reflected empathy with historical characters. She compared herself to a historical figure after the reading of Chapter Eight when she said, “Maybe she (Molly) was too scared.” Eva did not show any example of comparing the past to the present. In the category of imagining or assuming feelings of historical figures, Eva said that, “Molly grew to love them” after the reading of Chapter Three. Eva used the primary source document when she participated in the activity with the diary and she used secondary source documents throughout the entire semester.

Josh

In his initial interview, Josh said he joined the History Club because his mother wanted him to participate and because he wanted to learn more about the topic. He was an enthusiastic participant during the pilot study and continued to express a high level of interest in the activities of the club. He defined history as a “study of the past and how everything fits together” and archeology as the study of “a place where you go and dig up things from a long time ago and then try to piece it all together like a giant puzzle.” Josh said that these subjects were important because we “need to know what happened.” He could not define primary or secondary source. He said that he did not like to read history, but he said he did occasionally watch the History Channel. He had seen all of the documentaries about the La Salle discoveries. Josh said that, if he could travel back in time, he would be a Roman gladiator because he liked their armor.

Josh was more articulate in the exit interview. He was eager to list all of the primary sources that historians use when they collect data and to compare our History Club activities to the work of historians and archeologists. He said that if he could become one of the characters that we studied, he would be one of the Talon boys--any one of them. He was interested in the fact that two of them came back to the New World when they were adults.

Mary

Mary said, initially, that she joined the History Club to be with her friends and to participate in the play. She was not sure how to define history and did not know what archeology meant. She could not identify primary source or secondary source. She said that she did not read history or watch movies about history. She said that if she could travel back in time she would want to be a Pilgrim.

Mary's exit interview reflected her growth in the content area. She said that learning how "historians and archeologists work" was the purpose of the club. She said that we study these subjects "in order to understand what happened in the past" and that it was "important to know because it might affect our decisions now." She correctly identified primary and secondary sources. She chose "making coil pots" as her favorite activity. She was able, with prompting, to discuss what materials historians use and how they piece information together to write a story. Her responses to the questions about archeologists were not as informative. She did not want "to even think about" living with the Indians. If she could become one of the characters, she said she would be Marie Madeleine Talon.

Data analyses of Mary's contributions to the group interactions were interesting. Mary seemed quiet all semester, so I was surprised at the sheer number of times that her comments appeared in the transcriptions. When the contents were categorized, it turned out that she was the only participant to express a significant number of responses that fit into the third category: # 3-Imagining or assuming events, feelings, and actions of historical figures.

The following statements represent Mary's contributions to the History Club discussions. During the lesson about the navigational tools, Molly said, "They were afraid of the Indians. They were tired and no one found any gold." After the first reading of *Indian Captive*, Chapter One, and Mary exclaimed, "This is a sad story!" After Chapter Two she spoke in regard to the character's new life with the Indians: "I think that they got used to it and had to adapt to it." She added, "It is too difficult for us to understand." and said "It is so lonely," and "Maybe she just stops thinking about anything

at all.” The discussion after Chapter Four, when the character was moved to a new village, prompted more responses: “ I think that she is not thankful”; “Well, they gave her a home and fed her, she should be thankful”; and, in defense of the Indian women, “Well, some of the Indians did [take her away], but not the ones who are taking care of her now.”

Research Question Three:

How can educators influence the formation of historical concepts?

Historical thinking skills are central to the success of history education. Teaching students to use historical materials and to engage in the mental strategies used by historians will help to facilitate the formation of historical concepts in children. The ability of students to articulate the strategies they use is important in increasing their understanding. The educator’s role is vital to the process. Teachers who direct attention to *how* children learn and contribute to this process, rather than *what* is to be learned, can raise standards for history education and empower students to be responsible for their own learning (Davis, 2001).

A teacher’s ability to think historically will influence the development of the historical thinking skills of his or her students (Yeager and Davis, 1995). Teachers who aspire to improve their own historical thinking skills will be more likely to become proficient social studies educators of young citizens. Activities that go beyond the textbook for the purpose of promoting historical understanding are better able to enhance the learner’s appreciation for history.

Additionally, the ability to think historically will improve students’ aptitude for interpreting historical events, perceiving multiple perspectives, and deliberating

important decisions. All of these are central to the ideal of an educated citizenry (Barton and Levstik, 2004).

Discussion of the educator's role in facilitating historical thinking derives from the recognition that the teacher as an individual cannot be considered apart from the teacher as a role model. Effective teachers are doing more when they teach than merely dispensing information. An individual teacher's ambition to help each student achieve his or her potential and to create an environment that is conducive to collaborative learning goes beyond a technical description of the teacher's role. Teachers who aspire to facilitate historical thinking skills must first develop their own historical abilities (Yeager and Davis, Jr., 1995). By modeling their own belief in the value of historical thinking skills, educators would aspire to the following teaching tasks:

- Exhibit their own passion for learning, especially a specific historical topic
- Reflect upon their own historical thinking skills
- Encourage discussion relevant to history
- Provide opportunities for appropriate choices in assignments
- Provide opportunities to demonstrate a democratic classroom (Lindquist, 1995).

Theories of thinking skills have had a significant impact on learners and teachers. Developing the quality of thinking processes and skills in children prepares them for lifelong learning and affects their ability to function as responsible citizen (Black, 2000; Davis, Jr, 2001). The role of the teacher in helping to influence students in formation of historical concepts requires examining the abilities needed by teachers in achieving such a goal as well as the environmental factors and instructional methods that support it. Emphasis on thinking skills in the classroom supports active cognitive processing.

Students need time and ample opportunities to talk about their thinking processes. Educators can influence the formation of historical concepts by providing a classroom environment that includes effective instruction, a supportive environment, appropriate curriculum, meaningful activities, and helpful feedback (Sunal, 2002).

Teaching to support learning in a constructivist framework must evolve from the professional and personal commitments made by the teacher. Developmental trajectories are influenced in complex ways by a variety of language tools. It is the complex work of social interactions that provides the scaffolding to build intellectual minds (Vygotsky, 1978; Van der Veer, 1994). A supportive environment is vital to the growth of intellect and the stimulation of the milieu serves as fertile ground for the germination of new ideas. A supportive environment for history learners encourages collaborative learning, (Parker, 2001; Stahl, 1994; Steffy, 1994; Sunal, 2002). Effective teachers build a community of historical inquiry. This can be done by using disciplined inquiry, by including activities that have personal relevance in the curriculum, by building on prior knowledge with scaffolding techniques, and by incorporating authentic projects into the program.

The sharing of knowledge, the co-construction of meaning and interpretation of events, and a shared responsibility for learning characterized discussions in the History Club. My materials, activities, and questions dealt with historical reasoning; shared insights were intended to facilitate the development of historical concepts. The students did not enter the program with a strong knowledge base about the story of the colonists or French life and customs, from that period of time. Thus the researcher had to begin with the essential components of a social studies thematic unit for the study of Fort Saint

Louis. The students increased their knowledge of map skills, chronology, climate, modes of travel, navigation, clothing, food preparation, diseases, plants, animals, Seventeenth Century customs and language. Appropriate curriculum materials augment history teaching and learning. Materials that supplement the textbook in a history learning environment include primary source materials such as artifacts, legal documents, personal letters, ephemera, photographs, illustrations and articles of apparel. The use of supplementary literature that goes beyond the textbook is also essential.

Conclusion of Data Analysis and Description

All of the students expressed empathy with historical characters in varying degrees throughout the duration of the project. Evidence of the development of historical thinking skills increased over time as students became more involved with the content. The students' initial curiosity about the material culture and lifeways of the people who lived long ago evolved into a deep interest in knowing more about their thought processes and rationale for decisions.

Interpretation of the results of this qualitative case study is derived from my efforts to apply the methods of the researchers who have gone before me as well as my own efforts to interpret the History Club data. The children who participated in the study provided rich data to examine and contemplate. Due to this research experience, I have many ideas for future projects that pertain to helping children who are learning history.

In conclusion, I found that that, with proper instructional techniques, students can develop empathy with historical characters and that this ability will enhance their comprehension of history. My students related to these children of the past. Perhaps because they were age mates, the students became "children learning from children."

Chapter Five

Findings and Implications

Moral imagination is the capacity to empathize with others, to feel with and for others. This is something that education ought to cultivate and that citizens ought to bring to politics.

Thomas E. McCollough, 1992

The purpose of this study was to investigate and analyze children's development of empathy with historical characters. Empathy is one component of the historical thinking skills that are advocated for instructional use by the National Center for History in the Schools (Appendix P). The analysis of data offered some important findings about the process of the development of empathy. This concluding section synthesizes and summarizes the findings generated from the study, assesses implications for history education, and suggests recommendations for future research of historical empathy as a field of study.

Findings from the Study

The development of historical thinking skills in children has emerged as a field of study in the last quarter of the Twentieth Century (Lee, 2001; Barton, 1997; Barton and Levstik, 1997, 2001, 2004; Black, 2000; Brophy and VanSledright, 1997; Davis, Jr., Yeager and Foster, 2001; Downey, 1995; Knight, 1989; Levstik and Barton, 1997; Seixas, 1996; Shemilt, 1980; Wineburg, 2001). Research studies in this field have grown along with increased interest in improving student learning. This examination of empathy in a study of a small group of fifth-grade students revealed the following findings and outcomes: (1) Empathy can be used as a motivating factor for students to engage in historical inquiry; (2) Empathy provides a connection to the past; and (3) Empathy is an effective tool for instruction.

Findings from this study were based on the data that was generated by the research participants as they engaged in historical activities that featured a special emphasis on empathy such as reenactments of historical daily life, role-plays with historical characters, and discussions about historical narratives.

Research Objectives

The findings suggest that the research objectives for this study were addressed and analysis of the data reveals that the research questions were answered. The first question for the study pertained to the role that empathy appears to play in the development of historical thinking with a particular group of fifth grade students. The next question applied to a broader range of experiences, relating to ways that children learn empathy. The last question had implications for future educational research, addressing the issue of ways that educators influence the formation of empathy.

Finding: Empathy can be used as a motivating factor for teaching history.

Empathy proved to be a motivating factor for the participants in this particular study. The students were able to develop empathy with historical characters by exploring their daily lives, recreating their dialogue, and participating in simulations of their actual experiences. The students who participated in the History Club for the full semester were able to develop empathy with historical characters from the Seventeenth Century by exploring their inner lives. Students attempted to delve into the interior consciousness of the Talon children who lived so long ago by first simulating their exterior reality. By recreating the characters' outer experiences, the students were better able to imagine their inner worlds. Whether or not the students' expressions of the Talon children's experiences were actually historically accurate cannot be known. However, we do know the students were motivated to learn about the historical topic when they became

involved with the lives of the historical characters. This development of empathy proved to be a motivating factor for students learning about the story of the French colony at Fort Saint Louis.

Finding: Empathy provides a connection to the past.

Empathy plays an important role in helping students' development of historical thinking by providing them with relevance to the subject. When the students found themselves reflecting on the inner lives of the historical characters, they became curious about how these characters had lived and how their lives compared to our modern lives. The students were interested in the contrasts between the technology of the Seventeenth Century and our current technology. The students examined the various materials that I provided for the study of this historical era--such as the maps, timelines, illustrations, journals, navigational tools, and replicas of artifacts--and compared them to items from our current lives that serve similar functions. We discussed the impact of the changes in technology and how these changes might affect our way of living. The students made many comments indicating that this study made them feel grateful for our modern advantages, that they did not previously realize how much they took for granted.

The empathy students expressed showed that they felt a connection to the past, for example, the students expressed interest in looking back in time and learning about how people lived long ago. Although some studies indicate that students often perceive people in the present as being smarter, (Barton and Levstik, 2004), these students did not express judgment about the intelligence (or lack thereof) of the historical characters. These students expressed awe that the Talon children resurfaced relatively intact after almost two years in captivity. The empathy students felt with the historical characters seemed to

create a link to the past that allowed them to better appreciate the circumstances and challenges that the characters faced.

The students were able to combine skills from several content areas when we read the historical narratives. Excerpts from the transcripts of the discussions also indicated that the students developed higher level thinking skills. When the students were engaged in the drama of the captive children, they showed that they understood the full scope and sequence of the story as it unfolded. The students did not consciously attempt to memorize the details. However, as they selected incidents for their scripts, students remembered details about the historical topic and demonstrated an understanding of the connections between the events and their effects on the characters. By taking an active role in learning about the historical topic, students were able to develop deeper and more complex impressions of the experiences of the Talon children. As they connected to the content, the students were able to feel as if they were in the middle of the story as it unfolded. They begin to construct their own meanings about each occurrence and thus make personal connections to the historical era because of their strong identification with the characters.

Finding: Empathy can be used as a tool for teaching to the standards.

Educators can influence students' development of historical concepts that can meet the history standards by providing lessons and activities that promote students' empathy with historical characters. An analysis of the responses from the students' discussions after the history lessons revealed that they were developing historical skills.

Historical Thinking Skills:

- 1) Chronological thinking
- 2) Historical comprehension
- 3) Historical interpretation
- 4) Historical research methods
- 5) Historical analysis

Chronological Thinking.

Data that reflected the students' growth in chronological thinking appears throughout the transcripts. In the third session, when students engaged in an activity that specifically addressed the development of the concept of calendar time, they provided feedback that showed that they were making progress in this historical thinking skill. The temporal structure of the historical narratives that we studied was another facet of chronological thinking with which the students became more practical throughout the semester. By discussing the lives of the characters in the books, we followed the chronology of their lives and placed their stories on our historical timelines. The concept of periodization was investigated by comparing the changes in technology, clothing, lifestyles, and material culture.

Historical Comprehension.

Development of this skill requires a strong base of contextual knowledge. Students' exploration of an array of materials--such as primary sources, historical narratives and secondary sources--augmented their comprehension of the historical context of the people who lived during the Seventeenth Century and provided tools for students' development of historical thinking. By working with primary sources such as

artifacts, documents, and other examples of material culture, the students engaged in a mode of effective inquiry. Evidence of their development of historical comprehension was found in the data on occasions when students speculated about the daily lives of the Talon children and how they would have coped with the harsh requirements of survival during their months in captivity.

Historical Interpretation.

Effective interpretation is central to developing an understanding of history and evidence of students' development of this skill was woven throughout all of the discussions. The children considered the perspectives of the historical characters, and their discussions dealt with cause and effect relationships regarding the events the characters experienced. Additionally, students developed imaginative interpretations of the historical narratives in response to the literature.

Acknowledgement of the influence of the past emerged several times. One example was Brad's reference to a statement made by archeologist Curtis Tunnell in the documentary *The Shipwreck of the La Belle*. The students were intrigued by Tunnell's suggestion that French might be a second language in Texas rather than Spanish if the earliest French colony had prospered. We subsequently discussed the implications of this theory.

Historical Research.

This is an essential skill for students of all ages to learn about history. Just as professional historians and archeologists must make decisions about documents and artifacts and how they relate to a specific historical site, students should also learn how to employ these questioning strategies. To do so, students must be active and willing

participants in the inquiry process. When my students were learning to engage in the inquiry process of historical research, they were not only discovering how historians weave the evidence into historical accounts, they were also finding out that learning about history and archeology can be an intellectually absorbing pastime. For example, during an artifact lesson, Wilson remarked, “When you handle artifacts, it doesn’t *seem like* you are learning history.”

Historical Analysis

This is a challenging concept to teach; yet it is vital to historical understanding. Woodrow Wilson noted that history endows us with “the invaluable mental power, which we call judgment” (Parker, 1996). In order to investigate the issues and problems of the past, students must have a deep understanding of the complexity of that era as well as consideration of the multiple perspectives of the people who were involved in the events.

Findings from my research study revealed that my students made many attempts to analyze the historical characters’ thought processes and their resultant behaviors. In many cases a student would respond to the events of the stories with his or her own evaluation of how things *should have* evolved. Although a fifth grade student would not be likely to have extensive background knowledge in order to formulate a reasonable position or course of action on an historical issue, the seeds of historical analysis can be planted in effective history lessons and can be cultivated over time with subsequent successful analytical experiences in history classes.

These examples indicate that the lessons used for History Club activities were in alignment with the goals of the standards for history. These national standards, which were established by the National Center for History in the Schools (Nash, 1996), are in

use in schools throughout the United States (Appendix P). The lessons that my students learned in history--thinking strategically, asking questions, and constructing a story from the evidence—are all significant components that can contribute to the students' development of historical thinking skills.

Limitations of the Study

The research study was a meaningful project. I succeeded in organizing a student-centered learning community; acquiring data for my research study, and helping the students learn history skills. However, despite the success of the endeavor in regard to the students' development of empathy by participating in historical activities, there were several limitations to the study, primarily in regard to the feasibility of replication of the study. It could be argued that there were advantages for the students who participated in the History Club. There were limitations, however, that differentiate this study from other qualitative studies that have investigated the development of historical thinking in children. Limitations of this study include the small number of participants in the study, the amount of time allotted for each History Club meeting, the length of time covered by the study, the elective nature of participation in the History Club, and the teacher's ability to focus on only one specific historical topic to teach to the students in the group.

The number of participants in the study was a limitation in terms of the feasibility of replicating the teaching of a similar unit. Eight students participated in this study for the duration of one semester. This was a small number of fifth grade students for me to have as a teacher in an instructional setting. By comparison, the students' regular fifth grade teacher, Ms. Brown, was responsible for the instruction of 22 pupils during her

social studies class. Thus, in effect, these students received double--or more-- time spent in historical investigation than traditional students in typical social studies settings.

The amount of time allotted for meetings was another limitation of the study. Approximately 45 minutes were designated for each of the History Club activities, yet students were allowed to go beyond that time frame when their enthusiasm for the lesson was strong. Whether the lesson entailed a physical component--such as throwing the atlatl--or an intellectual challenge--such as debating the motives of La Salle, we frequently went beyond the scheduled time slot with impunity. The students enjoyed the company of the other History Club members and often stayed after the session was completed to continue their activities. They were not required to return to their after-school child care group at any particular time, so they usually stayed on task with their History Club topics for a longer period of time than a regular class would permit them to do. This flexible schedule facilitated longer, more in-depth discussions that allowed us to go beyond the basic introduction to the historical topic.

The length of the study was another variable that can be considered as a limitation. The units of study for social studies topics in the students' school district are usually taught within a time frame of two to three weeks. Even then, social studies was typically the first subject to be bumped when any other campus activity interfered with the afternoon schedule. For example, when I was conducting the pilot study on the same campus as the subsequent History Club meetings covered in this study, I would often arrive full of excitement and anticipation for the lesson, only to find out that a drug awareness presentation, water conservation lesson or school pep rally had taken my time slot. I would then have to adapt the unit and shrink some of my lessons because the

teacher could not extend the dates for the pilot study. These experiences exemplified the challenges that classroom teachers face when they are trying to teach a social studies curriculum and have to accommodate unexpected interruptions.

Perhaps the key issue for consideration of limitations of this study was the elective nature of the History Club. The students all chose to participate and were quite frank about their reasons for wanting to take part in our program. These reasons did not necessarily pertain to academic goals. Alonso openly admitted that he wanted to be with some of his friends and that he appreciated the after-school snacks that I provided. Eva always maintained that the History Club was, for her, a way to gain more experience as an actress. Brad and Wilson were friends and they joined as a team. They both perceived their participation in the History Club as preferable to spending time with the after-school teacher who “yells too much” and said it also gave them “something to do besides board games and basketball.” The other children were more diplomatic, with responses that indicated they felt sincere interest in the historical topic. However, Carol stood out as someone who seemed to be truly motivated to join the History Club for the sake of learning historical methods of research as well as learning about Fort Saint Louis.

A typical classroom teacher would not have the luxury of having such a small group of students,--particularly students who preferred the company of a history teacher over another teacher--as well as students who expressed a preference for studying history rather than another option for spending their time. In this way, my study is not typical and it would be difficult to replicate in a classroom setting.

Another limitation that must be considered for the sake of comparison to other studies was the fact that I was able to commit an unusually large amount of time to the

consideration of the historical topic. At the time of the study, other teaching and administrative duties did not distract me from my project. Thus, I had enough time to prepare for and think about our History Club sessions. For example, I read the entire journal of Henri Joutel in preparation for our lesson on diaries and journals as primary sources. I was able to select several significant passages, including a story about the alligators that lived in Garcitas Creek. Also from Joutel's diary, I was able to glean more information about the flora and fauna that were prevalent during that time that I could use for the purpose of teaching the children about changes in the terrain that have occurred in the past 300 years.

Prior to the study, I spent the summer working alongside the archeologists who were excavating the Fort Saint Louis site. I was able to experience the view of Matagorda Bay from the bluff above Garcitas Creek as well as to feel the heat, humidity, and mosquitoes that the French settlers had to contend with in 1685. By assisting with the excavation, I could also share the frustration of dealing with the hard soil that the colonists had to till to try to work their garden so long ago. Through these experiences, I began to develop my own empathy with the historical characters that became the focus of this research study.

During my visit, one of the archeologists discovered the burial site of the French colonists who perished during the infamous Karankawa raid. The historical significance of this finding was that these were the same people whose bodies were found by the Spanish explorer, Alonso de Leon, and his men over 300 years ago. Despite the ongoing conflict between France and Spain, de Leon had ordered his troops to give the settlers a proper burial. The students were so impressed by the sentiments expressed by the Spanish

soldiers on the funeral site of their ostensible enemies, with whose plight they nevertheless empathized, that the students created a replica of the grave marker for our play.

Implications

My research affirms findings in prior educational studies, which suggest that history should be taught in a conceptual framework of critical thinking and active learning. Several factors are needed to support these goals. Essential elements that will facilitate a successful framework for history education include the following components: appropriate curriculum, effective instruction, and meaningful activities (Bower and Lobdell, 1999; Parker, 2001; Stahl, 1994; Steffy, 2002; Sunal, 2002).

Implications for Curriculum Development

Effective curriculum provides the framework for the successful implementation of a unit of study. Appropriate curriculum builds on prior knowledge and is implemented with discussions, activities, and materials that support the goals of the unit of study. Curriculum design for history should take into account the goals of the particular unit of study, the effectiveness of the lessons, and the purpose of the study. The curriculum components that I used for my study consisted of a basic design for the unit of study, strategies for historical discussion, meaningful activities, and supplementary materials.

The findings from this study have implications for curriculum design of history units. Our lessons were designed to promote empathy with historical characters through active learning experiences. In this study, I began by teaching historical methods of research. Next, we explored how our characters might have lived by reading narratives about the daily lives of other children whose experiences were similar to the experiences

of the Talon children. A forum to stimulate the students' discussion and help them develop ideas about the historical topic followed each lesson. Although we used non-traditional methods to learn about our historical topic, the findings reveal that the children acquired an impressive level of knowledge and skills from the study. One implication from these findings is that children can learn history when the curriculum goes beyond the typical textbook format and provides learners with lessons that promote empathy through the use of active learning experiences.

Curriculum that provides opportunities for engaging in discussion is an important goal for the design of history curriculum. Discussions that challenge the young social studies learner are vital to the elementary history program. Discussions should fall within the range known as the zone of proximal development. Within each learner is a "zone" which is identified as the difference between the student's capacity for independent learning and the capacity to learn with assistance. The child's developmental level is identified as the ability to function without assistance. Activities that require assistance from an experienced peer or an adult lie in the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

The findings from this study have implications for discussion techniques in the history curriculum. Strategies for effective historical discussions should be included in the guidelines for each unit of study. Discussions should begin with questions that help students to activate prior knowledge. The students' answers help the teacher assess their historical understandings, and then help guide the exploration into the historical topic. Each unit should begin with a set of suggested questions that will help guide the initial foray into the historical unit of study.

Results from the History Club sessions revealed that each one of my students brought evidence of prior knowledge of history to the discussion. In early discussions and in the pre-unit interviews, I learned that their prior knowledge about the French colonists was thin, but they had preconceived notions about the Karankawa natives. Thus, my task was to draw upon their capabilities to facilitate dialogue about history and, perhaps, challenge their assumptions about or prejudices against the Karankawa.

Questions to support the development of empathy helps encourage students to engage in inquiry, explore new ways of thinking about other people's behavior in the past, cultivate a sensitivity towards situational factors that come into play in the decision-making process, and express a sense of wonder about how they might have felt about their lives. Curriculum writers can tailor the questions to address the specific time period and particular facts in connection with the historical topic while simultaneously engaging the students in a discourse to promote feelings of empathy with people who lived long ago.

I used questioning strategies when I taught the children about the Karankawa natives' initial attempts to assist the colonists by sharing their knowledge and resources. I employed empathy as a conceptual tool in discussions that explored the students' contextual knowledge of the historical era such as: "How did Molly adapt to the Indian way of life? How is her life the same? How is it different? How do you think her story compares to the experiences of Marie Madeleine Talon?" I also tried to cultivate students' sensitivity to changes in the English language when we read the historical narratives of Indian captives who had survived their experience and recorded their accounts: *Indian Captive*, (Lenski, 1941); *The Boy Captives* (Smith, 1927); and *Captured*

By the Indians, 15 Firsthand Accounts, (Drimmer, 1961) and *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives* (Derounian-Stodola, 1998).

Findings from this study support the assumption that meaningful activities are essential to the social studies curriculum (Bower and Lobdell, 1999; Parker, 2001; Stahl, 1994; Steffy, 2002; Sunal, 2002). When students are given an opportunity to engage in active learning, they are better able to construct their own meaning from the lesson. All of the activities, and especially the archeological activities, generated a high level of interest from the students and provided a link to the textual information about the historical topic.

Our archeology lessons incorporated information from the French, Spanish and Native American cultures. The tactile representation of historical data—examination of simulated artifacts--added a three-dimensional perspective to students' active investigation of the primary sources. Although these replicas of artifacts from another era were not actually authentic, they were comparable in size and shape to the objects that had been unearthed at the Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project. Thus, by handling and examining the physical objects, the students could make contact with the material culture of long ago. The students' experiences with these tangible objects provided them with an imaginative window into the past. They were better able to think about how other people had used the items as they handled them during the sorting and classifying activities. In addition, the students learned more about how archeologists use artifacts to discover the past.

Curriculum decisions need to be justified with a purpose. Purpose plays an essential role in human thought and action (Barton and Levstik, 2004). Providing the fifth

graders with meaningful activities enabled them to see a purpose for studying history. For example, one purpose for the students' study of the Talon experience with the Indians was to examine prejudice and bias. My students were well versed in the iniquity of racism, yet they originally denigrated the Karankawa tribe. Expanding their awareness about their own racially prejudiced preconceptions was an enlightening experience for them. Thus, the findings from the study of the discussions about the Karankawa had implications for other types of multicultural curriculum. When students connect to history by means of activities that help them understand not only the story from the past but also how it connects to issues relevant to the present, it will become more meaningful to them (Sunal, 2002).

The use of a wide variety of supplementary materials and resources provides important benefits to the social studies curriculum. In my case, I owned or borrowed many of the materials that were used for the study. I also printed materials from the Texas Historical Commission website, (<http://www.thc.state.tx.us/>) and the Texas Beyond History website (<http://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/stlouis/index.html>). Many websites for history education now feature links to copies of primary source documents that teachers can reproduce for classroom investigative activities.

Curriculum units that include similar replicas of artifacts and other primary sources are available in some districts for teachers to check out as a set for instructional use. Just as science units have become standardized with boxed sets of materials that are available to any of the teachers who are currently teaching the corresponding unit of study, so should social studies elementary curriculum specialists create prepared materials for units to be made available on a widespread basis. The availability of

appropriate materials will be more likely to help teachers make history come alive for elementary aged pupils.

Results from this study suggest that children respond favorably to authentic activities, effective discussions, and supplementary resources in the social studies curriculum. The findings were based on the research participants' engagement in historical and archeological learning activities with a special emphasis on empathy. The students participated in reenactments of historical daily life activities, in role-plays with historical characters and in discussions about historical narratives. Implications from the findings also support the addition of archeology to the elementary social studies curriculum (Black, 2000; Moe, 1996; Simons, Cruse and Henderson, 1998).

Implications for Teachers

Findings from this study may have practical implications for teacher education in the realm of preservice and teacher training. The results of the History Club study indicate that fifth grade students can enjoy learning history and that the success of a history program derives success from both the curriculum and the instruction. The task of preparing teachers to serve as effective history educators calls for training that includes all of the components of a successful program. An effective teacher preparation program that prepares new teachers to prepare lessons that encourage students' active learning is vital to the success of an innovative social studies curriculum.

Implications for All Teachers

Innovative curricular changes will call for special training for both preservice and inservice teachers. Teachers who are currently serving in the classroom may have to adjust their practice and preservice teachers may have to adapt their preconceived notions

about how to teach history. Teachers in both categories should learn about several essential elements that are central to effective teaching practices in the elementary history classroom. These practices include thoughtful reflection on one's own historical thinking skills, improving strategies for leading effective student discussions, developing the ability to recognize the growth of historical thinking skills in students, using primary sources effectively in the classroom, and using supplementary resources when planning for instruction.

Findings from the study suggest that the teacher should approach the history curriculum with an awareness of his or her own historical thinking skills. Careful reflection about one's own background is needed. Teachers should consider how their own development and skills match up to the standards that are required for effective student learning of history in order to improve their own classroom practice.

The results of this study highlight the importance of discussion in the history classroom. Careful analysis of the transcriptions of the tape recordings of students' discussions supports the theory that the teacher's role influences the way that classroom dialogue progresses. Effective teaching focuses on an understanding of important ideas, builds on what students already know, engages children in collaborative disciplined inquiry, and utilizes extensive scaffolding (Barton and Levstik, 1998, 2004).

Teachers need to pay careful attention to the actual techniques that they use when guiding classroom discussions, such as keeping the students on the appropriate topic, facilitating the scaffolding of student input, and probing for deeper meanings when students provide insightful comments. These steps towards promoting critical thinking

are not only useful to the study of history but also can be applied to many learning situations beyond the classroom.

Implementing the ideals of effective practice calls for teachers to learn how to recognize the development of historical thinking skills in children for the sake of providing support for, or scaffolding, their progress. An alert teacher should listen for evidence of empathy and respond with questions that influence students' expression of their train of thought. Perhaps most importantly, teachers should learn how to recognize the development of students' historical thinking skills. Teachers can garner information about how children are progressing by listening carefully to their answers to historical questions as well the comments they make in response to engagement with historical activities.

The first step for teachers to take in working towards improving their students' historical development and awareness is to think about their own previous experiences with history and reflect on their own development of historical thinking skills. If teachers will look at how their own historical thinking skills are in alignment with the list of standards, they will be better prepared to acknowledge the development of historical thinking skills in students. The ability to ask meaningful questions an essential skill of historians. Thus, history teachers must also be able to ask questions, construct persuasive answers and communicate these ideas in their transmission of historical knowledge (Davis, Jr., 2001).

Successful teaching of the methods of historical research calls for students to experience physical involvement with a variety of primary sources. Primary sources provide students with tools for the construction of historical thinking. By working with

primary sources such as artifacts, documents, and other examples of material culture, students engage in a mode of effective and authentic inquiry, which helps them move from passive to active learning. As Josh frequently reminded us, each artifact serves as a piece of the puzzle of the culture it belongs to and provides information about the people who created it. My students enjoyed learning history because they were active participants in gathering the knowledge, which helped to make the historical topic more personal and significant to them.

Recent changes in the field of history education have resulted in more research studies, new curriculum standards, and attention to instruction (Nash, 1996). In conjunction with these new developments, many supplementary resources have been made available to practioners. Foremost among these resources is the Internet. Now that computers are commonly available to classroom teachers, they usually have access to educational websites. Many of these online sites feature primary source materials such as documents that can be downloaded, with permission, to provide students with a glimpse of “real” history. These documents are replicas, yet they can convey much of the information that an authentic item would impart because they appear so similar to the genuine article. More importantly, students’ experiences when examining and discussing primary source artifacts gives them a better idea about historians’ step by step process of building historical understanding from pieces of evidence. This is the process that students will follow as they build their understanding of the time period and the peoples’ experience of that time.

Implications for Preservice Teachers

Training for elementary preservice teachers in the professional development sequence at the university includes one class in social studies methods. Implications from this study suggest that this class should include lessons that help the preservice teachers develop skills of reflection, observation, and evaluation; provide them with an opportunity to design their own unit of study; and provide them with information and experience in how to create or find supplementary resources for future classroom use.

Preservice teachers should be given an opportunity to reflect on their own experiences in the social studies classroom in order to think about how they would improve or personalize the social studies portion of their school day. Students could share their reflections in small group settings and then present their ideas to the whole class. By thinking about their own experiences and listening to contributions from their classmates, the preservice teachers can begin to project themselves more effectively into the teacher's role of providing active learning experiences for their students.

Observations and evaluations are intrinsic to the preservice training program. Findings from this study have implications for preservice teachers that suggest that they should observe a social studies teacher who skillfully applies teaching practices that promote empathy. Aspiring teachers could observe the effects of active learning experiences in which elementary- aged students participated in activities that foster empathy such as historic reenactments, Reader's Theater, and puppet shows.

Preservice teachers should design a historical unit of study using their own personal topic of interest as a part of the methods course. By planning active learning units and matching the activities for students to the state standards for social studies,

preservice teachers will develop an improved understanding of the complexity of preparation that comes with the job of a classroom teacher.

Implications for Inservice Teachers

Application of research in the area of history education can have a beneficial impact on the inservice professional development of professional teachers. Teacher educators who conduct inservice training could use the findings from this study and other relevant classroom based research to inform their practice and help them refine their teaching practice and methodology.

Results of this study that have implications for inservice teachers, which are similar to the ideas previously described for preservice teachers, but differ slightly since inservice teachers have classroom experiences to draw upon. However, prior teacher training sessions may not have adequately addressed many of the components that are essential to the design and implementation of lessons that promote active learning for history students. Inservice teachers should reflect upon their past experiences in the social studies classroom and, in addition, they should reflect upon their current teaching practice. They need to think about their own attitudes towards history when they were young like their students and currently, in their teacher positions. Then, they should consider how they have conveyed attitudes about the study of history to their students. During the training session, they could also work in small groups of two to four people and share their ideas about what works for them as teachers.

As a final point, teachers need to work towards the ideal of connecting theory to practice. When they understand that the purpose of the classroom activities which employ empathy as a conceptual tool for learning history goes beyond the fun of dressing up in

clothes from a bygone era, they will be more likely to be willing to make the extra effort that is required for these lessons. History lessons should be fun for the teacher, too. Of course, the purpose of dressing up in costumes and examining replicas of artifacts is only effective when it is recognized as part of a range of activities whose intention is to help engage the students and provide them with active learning experience. Experiences that involve active learning are conducive to the development of historical thinking skills.

Recommendations

Many ideas for recommendations for future efforts to improve social studies education in the United States come to mind. First of all, I would advocate that archeology should be added to the regular social studies curriculum for elementary schools. Textbook revisions would necessarily be included in this reform. Next, I can think of several extensions of the topic for classroom research studies. Finally, I would like to recommend teacher preparation sessions that specifically address the use of empathy to encourage the effective development of historical thinking skills in the social studies classroom.

Proposals to include and/or expand archeology in the social studies curriculum are endorsed by Project Archaeology as well as other historical agencies that are concerned with preservation (Moe, 1996). Lessons that employ archeological methods of study are in alignment with the standard for historical thinking skills (Nash, 1996) and can be adapted to accommodate local sites in different regions. Creative efforts to utilize an archeological theme for social studies can easily employ other learning skills for students such as literacy, inquiry, mathematics, citizenship, and the visual arts in an integrated unit of study. I believe that recognition of the value of archeology as a means of active student

engagement will continue to grow as it is brought to the attention of educators and administrators whose input effects curriculum decisions. These changes will, in turn, effect future development of curriculum design and textbooks across the United States. However, specifically for Texas, I would like to see more information about the Fort Saint Louis Archeology Project made available to the social studies teacher in Texas.

Educational researchers continually investigate new topics for classroom research studies. Subsequent studies to investigate elementary history education, empathy, and the development of historical concepts could look at students who were not as motivated as the small, voluntary group who participated in this study. It is reasonable to assume that similar findings might be possible with another fifth-grade group if they were given comparable activities that encouraged the students' development of historical empathy. The results would probably differ in a classroom setting due to the probable situation that the teacher would most likely be working with a greater number of students, have less instructional time to commit to preparing the unit of study and may have limited access to materials. However, a classroom teacher could expand the writing components of any unit significantly. In my case, I was not able to insist that students follow through with some of the ideas that I had for writing assignments related to the topic because there was not enough consensus in the group about the value of the activity. Hence, Carol's willingness to write a letter "home"—that is, a message from the colonists addressed to their relatives in France—was quickly vetoed by students who "hated to do writing projects." Because of this resistance, I abandoned several learning extensions that I would have enjoyed pursuing with students in a classroom setting.

Training to promote the use of empathy in the history classroom should be used in both preservice and inservice teacher training. Activities designed to promote the development of empathy will encourage inquiry, help students explore new ways of thinking about the past, cultivate sensitivity, and foster a sense of wonder about people who lived long ago.

Sessions could be designed to convey the practicality of the teaching methods so that teachers could share the excitement of these active learning experiences with their students. Modeling the activities with the teachers will help them to understand how they can convey to students the enjoyment of learning history, and that the success of a history program reflects both the curriculum and the instruction. The mission of teaching teachers to serve as effective history educators calls for training that includes many of the same components that can help their students engage with and improve their interest in an elementary history program.

Conclusion of the Research Study

Without historical understanding, there can be no wisdom. Without geographical understanding, there can be no social or environmental intelligence. And without civic understanding, there can be no democratic citizens and, therefore, no democracy. This is why social studies matters. Parker, 2001

The overarching focus of my career is social studies education, through which I intend to promote the values of a participatory democracy. My research study serves as one step in the journey. I would like to conclude with some thoughts about social studies education.

Modern society has many expectations of our educational system. Among these expectations are the development, in students, of the ideals of citizenship and participatory democracy (Barton and Levstik, 2004). In pursuit of these ideals, students--

as future participatory citizens--need to be well informed and to be able to think critically so that they can apply their knowledge to enhance their lives and the culture in which we all live (Eisner, 1997). The challenge for teachers is to provide relevance to the students so that they can connect to historic events and to understand how the history relates to their understanding their country. Students take it all in, and they modify their understanding to construct their own personal interpretations of the meaning of history. This understanding will be influenced by their ideas, beliefs, and cultural bias (Seixas, 1996). Effective social studies instruction is thus a vehicle for the implementation of the ideals of citizenship.

History is necessarily value based, and social studies lessons provide an optimal occasion for teachers and students to engage in discussions about the issues of morality, in the civic sense. When students are asked to identify with people from the past, to embrace a connection to the thoughts, actions, and decisions made by historical characters, they often reply with responses that reflect their own moral stance. These situations provide valuable teachable moments for social studies teachers to help students examine the perspectives of historical characters and, by implication, to become more thoughtful about the process of making judgments about others. Imparting the moral values of caring and commitment can be communicated effectively through the medium of a lesson on history (Barton and Levstik, 2004).

The primary objective of my study was to add to the body of knowledge about children's development of empathy with historical characters and to demonstrate how empathy can be used effectively in the history classroom. In this research study, I have described my experience as a teacher/researcher with a small group of students.

First, we built a reservoir of ideas, knowledge, and skills. Then we applied these skills by means of problem-solving activities. Next, we made decisions about how to represent the findings. Finally, we produced a play, which was “an opportunity to summarize, analyze, synthesize and realize our potential as “data navigators” (Wineburg, 2001). My analysis focused on data from the transcriptions of the discussions of my students as they wondered out loud what life was like for the Talon children. I found that the development of empathy or, in this case, “children learning from children” can be used as an effective strategy for history instruction.

Denis Shemilt states that empathy is “the divine wind that breathes life into the dry bones of the past, turns dust to flesh and inspires pupils to commune with their predecessors” (Shemilt, 1984). Feelings of empathy with historical characters helped my students understand the events that occurred at Fort Saint Louis over 300 years ago. Most importantly, the empathy they developed motivated them to learn history and provided a connection to the past. Empathy not only played a motivational role in the students’ development of historical thinking in my study of these fifth grade learners, it also provided them with the spark to ignite a passion for historical inquiry. In conclusion, I believe that that social studies and, in particular, the study of history, can benefit from the application of these techniques to make it an exciting part of the school day.

Appendix A

Parent Letter

January 4, 2002

Dear Parents:

Fifth grade students who are interested in learning more about archaeology and history are invited to join our History Club. The purpose of our club is to learn about the techniques that are used by historians and archaeologists to describe the culture, events, and technology of people throughout time.

At first we will engage in activities that teach the principles of archaeology. We will continue with lessons designed to explore various methods of historical research and to develop the skills of historical interpretation.

Students who are interested in joining the History Club will be invited to participate in activities and events that will expand their knowledge of Texas History. The History Club meetings will follow guidelines that have been established by the National Council for the Social Studies.

Students will be involved in the production of artifact replicas, dramatic skits, and artistic representations of the cultures that we study together. Field trips to area museums and historic sites are planned. Our culminating activity will be the production of a play that we will perform on May 22, 2002.

Vivien Geneser, doctoral student in Curriculum Studies at the University of Texas, will facilitate the History Club meetings. Ms. Geneser was selected to participate in the Project Archaeology Writing Workshop in July of 2001 which was sponsored by the United States Department of the Interior: Bureau of Land Management. This event was a forum for educators, archaeologists, and historical preservationists to discuss the essential elements needed for a national archaeology curriculum. Two representatives from each of the 50 states were chosen to assist in the revision of *Intrigue of the Past*, a textbook that was first published in 1991. Ms. Geneser is also completing an activity guide for the Texas Historical Commission that will be used to teach students across the state of Texas about the Fort Saint Louis Archaeology Project.

Won't you join us? Please think about it.

Thank you,

Vivien Geneser
History Club Sponsor

Hey, Fifth Graders!

If you want to join an exciting club and have some fun, please join us after school on Tuesdays and Fridays for the History Club.

Ms. Geneser will have games and activities to help us learn how to be detectives in history and archeology. We will work and play together to learn how to make history come alive. Snacks will be provided.

If this sounds interesting to you, please have a parent fill out the form below and return it to Ms. Geneser.

Thank you,
Vivien Geneser

My child _____
has permission to join the History Club led by Vivien Geneser. We will meet on Tuesdays & Fridays.

Signature

Date

Home phone

Work phone

Appendix B

Pre Unit and Post Unit Interview Questions

Name _____

Pre-Unit Interview

Entrance Interview:

1. Why did you join the History Club?
2. What do you think we will do together?
3. What is history? Why do we study it?
4. What is archeology? Why do we study it?
5. What do historians do? Is this important? Why?
6. What do archeologists do? Is this important? Why?
7. How do historians decide what is important when they write about a historical event?
8. How do archeologists decide the meaning of the artifacts that they discover?
9. What is a primary source?
10. What is a secondary source?
11. Do you like to read about history in your spare time?
12. Name a movie that tells about history or archeology. Did you like it? What was the best part? Who was your favorite character? Why did you like him/her?
13. If you could travel back in time and be another person, who would that be? Why did you choose that person?

Appendix B, continued

Name_____

History Club Post Unit Interview

Questions:

1. Why did you join the History Club?
2. Are you glad that you did?
3. What was your favorite History Club activity?
4. What three things did you learn in the History Club?
5. What is a primary source?
6. What is a secondary source?
7. How do historians interpret artifacts?
8. How do archeologists interpret artifacts?
9. Do you like to read about/learn about history in your spare time?
10. What is your favorite subject in school?
11. Have your ideas about history changed this semester? If so, how?

Appendix C

KWL Chart Fort Saint Louis Archeology Project

<u>(K) What do we KNOW?</u>	(W) What do we WANT to know?	<u>(L) What did we LEARN?</u>
The people who lived at Fort Saint Louis came from France.	Why did they come?	They were on an important expedition. They were going to start a colony.
The ships were very small.	How did they all fit?	It was very crowded.
La Salle was the leader.	What happened to him?	He was murdered.
They were looking for the Mississippi River.	How did they get lost?	We think it was because of the navigational tools.
The people wanted to make a new colony.	Who were the ones who stayed with the colony?	Some of the people stayed including the Talon family.
The Indians were nice at first and helped them.	Did they stay on good terms?	The Karankawas killed some of the colonists but not the Talon children.
It was a long time ago, even before the Alamo.	What else was happening in America?	The Pilgrims were living on the Northeast coast.
Everything was strange.	What did they eat?	The Indians helped them.
The Indians were good hunters and fishermen.	How could they talk to the Indians?	They learned some words and used sign language.
All of the adults died but some of the children lived.	How did they die?	They died from illness, snakes, accidents, and murder.
The Talon children lived with the Karankawas.	What was it like for them?	It was hard to adjust but the Indians were not so bad.

Appendix D
Personal Timelines of Research Participants
(adapted from the originals)

Eva

1991: born in Austin, 1992: learned to walk, 1994: baby brother, 1995: Dad moved out, 1996: started Kindergarten, 1997: special birthday, 1998: picked berries, 1999: learned to sew, 2000: learned multiplication, 2001 trip to Galveston, 2002 slumber party

Wilson

1991: born in Austin, 1992: learned to walk, 1994: went to Pioneer Farm, 1995: rode a train, 1996: started Kindergarten, 1997: Dad got sick, 1998: Dad died 1999: got new puppy, 2000: trip to Grand Canyon, 2001: sister goes to high school, 2002: built a fort

Carol

1991: born in Austin, 1992: visit from great-aunt, 1994: preschool, 1996: Kindergarten, 1997: baby brother, 1998: baby sister, 1999: rode a bike, 2000: planted a vegetable garden, 2001: got a horse, 2002: drove a car

Josh

1991: born in Austin, 1992: lived in country, 1994: moved to city, 1995: rode bike for the first time, 1996: swam in Barton Springs, 1997: got a dog, 1998: new baby cousin, 2000: rode a train to Chicago, 2001: cool teacher, 2002: my Mom graduated

Brad

1991: born in San Antonio, 1994: moved to Austin, 1995: parents divorced, 1996: started Kindergarten, 1997: learned to ride a bike, 1998: Mom remarried, 1999: built a robot, 2000: visited NASA, 2002: Grandmother move in next door

Rosa

1991 born in Austin, 1992: learned to walk, 1994: baby brother, 1995: learned to read, 1996: started Kindergarten, 1998: birthday party at skating rink, 1999: dive with no splash, 2000: confirmation, 2001: first time on airplane, 2002: joined History Club

Alonso

1991: born in Austin, 1992, first tooth, 1993: church preschool, 1996: started Kindergarten, 1997: learned how to ride a bike, 1998: parents divorced, 1999: went fishing with Grandpa, 2000: new puppy, 2001: played football, 2002: trip to beach

Mary

1991: born in Austin, 1992: went to foster home, 1993: new mom, 1995: mom adopted brother, 1996: Kindergarten, 1997: visited Sea World, 1998: learned to ride a bike, 2000: spent the night at friend's house, 2001: favorite teacher, 2002: joined History Club

Appendix E

Artifact Classification Worksheet

(to be used with artifacts provided by the teacher)

1. Communication economy or trade
2. Religion
3. Utensil
4. Hunting
5. Fishing
6. Toy
7. Clothing
8. Achievement
9. Shelter
10. Weapon
11. Adornment

Appendix F

Artifact Identification Activity

Our group has the basket of artifacts that represents:

Native American

French

Spanish

Modern

(Circle one)

We have classified the objects into these categories:

1. Tools

2. Utensils for food preparation or consumption

3. Articles of adornment: jewelry, hair accessories,
buttons

4. Trade goods or coins

5. Music or art

Appendix G

Primary Source/Secondary Source Bingo

Bingo Answers

1. trade beads
2. a field guide to stone artifacts
3. the original diary of Henri Joutel
4. cannons with French insignia
5. illustration of Karankawa natives from 1710
6. biography of La Salle published in 1994
7. original French map of the Gulf Coast region
8. brass rings found on the *La Belle*
9. book about rivalry between French and Spanish published in 1998
10. arrowheads
11. original manuscript from French museum
12. rope from the *La Belle*
13. photographs of the archaeological dig
14. pieces of pottery from the excavation
15. newspaper article about the archaeologists
16. documentary about the French expedition
17. musket ball found at the site
18. story of La Salle found in a textbook
19. La Salle's diploma from Jesuit school
20. original French portrait of La Salle
21. blueprint for the *La Belle* from French factory

Appendix H

La Salle Bingo

Clues

1. time and place of La Salle's important discovery
2. Spanish explorer who found the remains of Fort Saint Louis
3. ship that was seized by pirates
4. king of France who provided funds for La Salle
5. French explorer who established colony known as Fort Saint Louis
6. he wrote a journal about life at Fort Saint Louis
7. Native American tribe who lived on the Texas Gulf Coast
8. excavation on this archaeological site began in 1996
9. country of origin of the colonists at Fort Saint Louis
10. ship that returned to France with 120 people
11. children captured by the Karankawa
12. herds of these animals lived nearby
13. name of country that was competing with France for territory
14. navigational tool that was used by La Salle
15. La Salle expedition set sail for the New World (place and time)
16. they seized *Saint Francois*
17. this plant was deadly to some colonists
18. cultures represented in artifacts found at FSL Archaeological Project
19. Fort Saint Louis overlooks this waterway
20. ship that ran aground in narrow channel
21. name of Spanish structure built later on the same site as FSL
22. Fort Saint Louis is located 30 miles south of this Texas city
23. time and place of La Salle's birth
24. nearest large body of water to FSL
25. shipwreck found in 1995
26. colonists were scared of these reptiles
27. an illness that was deadly to colonists

Appendix H, continued

La Salle Bingo Answers

1. April, 1682--mouth of Mississippi
2. Alonso de Leon
3. Saint Francois
4. King Louis XIV
5. Rene Robert Cavelier Sieur de La Salle
6. Henri Joutel
7. Karankawa
8. Fort Saint Louis Archaeological Project
9. France
10. *Le Joly*
11. the Talon children
12. buffalo
13. Spain
14. astrolabe
15. France: August, 1684
16. Spanish pirates
17. poison ivy
18. Native American, French, Spanish
19. Garcitas Creek
20. L'Aimable
21. Presidio La Bahia
22. Victoria, Texas
23. 1643 in Rouen, France
24. Matagorda Bay
25. *La Belle*
26. alligators & rattlesnakes
27. smallpox

Appendix I

Crossword Puzzle for Fort Saint Louis

Across: 1-14

Down: 15-26

1. French settlement in South Texas
2. country of origin of the pirates who seized *Saint Francois*
3. group of natives
4. name of the tribe that lived along the Texas Gulf Coast
5. the site is on a bluff overlooking Garcitas _____
6. explorer who led the expedition
7. primary source which provides information about the history of Ft. St. Louis
8. Alfonso de _____ was the leader of a Spanish expedition
9. the settlers wanted to establish a French _____
10. state where the site of Ft. St. Louis Archaeological Project is located
11. king of France who funded La Salle's expedition
12. the first French ship was seized by _____
13. large reptiles who live in Garcitas Creek
14. Ft. St. Louis is east of _____ Island
15. country of origin of the settlers
16. investigation of human past
17. Mrs. _____ had a child on board
18. four French _____ crossed the Atlantic
19. _____ of the French soldiers died or abandoned the fort
20. ship that was recovered from Matagorda Bay in 1995
21. *La Belle* was found in the waters off of the Texas Gulf Coast
22. the colonists hoped to make a home in the _____
23. La Salle was looking for the mouth of the _____
24. Instead, he landed in Texas, in _____ Bay
25. Henri _____ wrote about the expedition in a journal
26. *La Belle* was lost in a storm

Appendix J

A Timeline of Events in the Lives of the Talon Family

Father: **Lucien Talon**, native of Beauvais, Normandy, France

A carpenter by trade, he joined the La Salle expedition to the New World as a soldier and brought his family along to help establish a French colony

He died in Texas in 1688--lost in the woods.

Mother: **Isabelle Planteau Talon**, native of St. Mery Parish, Paris, France

Accompanied husband to the New World, gave birth to a son while on board who was named Robert in honor of his godfather, Rene Robert Cavelier de

La Salle. Murdered by Karankawa natives, January, 1688

Daughter: **Marie-Elizabeth Talon**, born 9/10/1672 in Quebec, died in Texas in 1686

Daughter: **Marie-Madeleine Talon**, born 11/3/1673 in Quebec

As the oldest of the children who were captured by the Karankawa at Fort Saint Louis in 1688, Madeleine is believed to have been protective of her younger brothers, Lucien and Robert. They lived with the natives for several years and were tattooed to resemble the other members of the tribe. Later, when the children were traded for horses by the Spanish, young Robert only communicated with Madeleine. The three children from the settlement--as well as brother Pierre, who had been sent to live with the Hasinai tribe--were taken to Mexico to live in the house of Viceroy Gaspar de la Cerda Sandoval Silva y Mendoza, Conde de Galve. The children worked as servants until the viceroy and his wife retired and moved back to Spain. Madeleine and Robert went with them and then returned to France.

Madeleine married Pierre Simon in 1719 in Charlesbourg, Canada.

Son: **Pierre Talon**, born 3/20/1676 in Quebec.

La Salle took Pierre with him when he left the settlement in January, 1687.

He was expected to live with the Hasinai tribe for the purpose of learning their language as a way to benefit trade relations with the French. Pierre was a witness to the murder of La Salle. After Alonso de Leon bartered for the return of Pierre and his siblings to European people, the children worked as servants in Mexico. In 1696 Pierre and Lucien were drafted into the Spanish army. They served on the flagship *Santo Cristo de Maracaibo* under Admiral Guillermo Morfi. The French captured the Spanish ship in the Caribbean Sea near Havana in 1697 and the brothers were taken to France.

Lucien became a servant in 1698 at Oleron and was not heard from again.

Pierre entered the French naval service and later joined the second expedition of Pierre Moyne d'Iberville to Louisiana as soldiers under the command of Louis Jeuchereau de St. Denis. In 1702 he returned to France and was imprisoned in Portugal for unknown reasons.

In 1714 both Pierre and Robert returned to Texas with

St. Denis where they assisted with interpreting with the natives. They traveled to Mobile where they reported to governor Cadillac. It is believed that Pierre died in France.

Son: **Jean-Baptiste Talon**, born 5/26/1679 in Quebec

He was a witness to his mother's murder and a member of the family who lived with the Karankawa. Details about the life of Jean Baptiste are confusing since

his presence is not consistently noted in the historical accounts. Although he is not always mentioned, it is believed that his adventures were parallel to those of his brothers and that he died in Louisiana.

Son: **Lucien Talon**, born in Quebec in 1682

(see above)

Son: **Robert Talon**, born at sea in 1684, died in Mobile in 1745 or 1746

Named for his godfather; Rene Robert Cavelier Sieur de la Salle

(see above)

Robert married **Jeanne Preauin** 1718 and they had eight children.

Adapted from *The New Handbook of Texas*, Tyler, R. (Ed.). (1996). Austin, Texas:

The Texas State Historical Association, Austin, Texas

Appendix K

Review for script

1. Who was La Salle?
2. How did he get the money for his expedition?
3. Why is Henri Joutel important?
4. How many ships left France? How many people?
5. What happened to the ships?
6. Where did La Salle want to go?
7. Why would he want to go there?
8. What happened to the settlers who founded Ft. St. Louis? What happened to La Salle?
9. Who discovered the remains of the French settlers in 1689?
10. What is the significance of the burial that they gave to French colonists?
11. What are some of the differences between 1684 and now?
12. What happened to the Talon children?

Appendix L

Script for the History Club Play

Opening scene:

La Salle

King Louis

Scene 2:

Fleet of ships

Pirate ship

Ship that went home

Scene 3:

Location of colony

Daily life at the colony

Building fort

Foraging for food

Smallpox

Snake bite

Friendly Karankawa

Scene 4:

Karankawa raid

Capture of the Talon children

Scene 5:

Spanish discovery/Burial

Scene 6:

Spanish and Karankawa trade horses for children

Scene 7:

Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project

Conclusion

Scene One

Opening scene:
Student holds up sign:
"The La Salle Expedition: April 14, 1684"

Narrator:

Have you ever wondered about the Six Flags of Texas?
We are here today to tell you the story of the French flag.
(Student walks across stage with the French flag. Two students enter and stand in the center by the podium.)

La Salle:

I am known as La Salle, the first European explorer to discover the mouth of the Mississippi from the north. I have explored the New World and claimed territory for France. Now I want to return to establish a colony in the name of France. We will name our settlement Fort Saint Louis in your honor.

King Louis:

I am proud of the La Salle expedition.
I will give you money for a fleet of ships, cargo, soldiers, trade goods and the tools that you need to start a colony in the New World. There are many opportunities for trade and riches. I want France to have land and power in the New World. I commission you to carry out the plan in the name of France.

La Salle:

I will establish France as the leader of the New World.

Scene Two

Narrator:
Student holds up sign: August 1, 1684
"Journey to the New World"

Narrator:

La Salle recruits French citizens to join him on a voyage to the New World.

Madame Talon:

The year is 1684. We live in France but we are curious about the New World. Our leader, La Salle, has told us stories of great riches to be found in the land across the ocean. We prepare to leave our native land, our home and our loved ones to be a part of the settlement in the land that we now call New France.

French woman:

We prepare by bringing all of the equipment that we think that we will need to set up in our new country. We have tools, seeds clothes, trade goods, and many other provisions.

Narrator:

La Salle departs from France with four ships:
the L'Aimable, the La Belle, Le Joly and Le Saint-Francois.
(Four students walk across stage with cardboard ships.)
A baby is born on board to Madame Talon and is named Robert Talon after his godfather, Robert Cavelier Sieur de La Salle
(Girl walks across stage holding a child.)

Narrator:

September 1684
One ship is lost.
Spanish pirates seized *Saint-Francois*
(Two boys, wearing pirate costumes, seize *Saint Francois*.)

Scene Three

Student holds up sign:
"Daily Life at the Colony"
French citizens are sitting at a table with their backs to the audience.

Narrator:

The French citizens arrived on the Texas Gulf Coast on January 1, 1685.
They settled on a bluff overlooking Garcitas Creek that is four miles inland from Matagorda Bay.

Second narrator:

The next ship to be lost was *L'Aimable* that was stuck on a sandbar in Matagorda Bay. When it sank many important supplies were lost. Then, on March 12, 1685, the ship, *Le Joly* returned to France with over 100 people.

Narrator:

The remaining French settlers tried to carve out a new life in the new world. They built their fort using timbers from the ship that sank. Local Karankawa natives helped them by showing them how to find food and hunt for buffalos. Unfortunately, the hardships were overwhelming. One by one the members of the colony perished from chicken pox (Student turns around and shows her face), poison ivy, (Second student shows her face), (Third student) and mosquitoes (malaria).

Narrator

In January 1686 the *La Belle* was wrecked in a storm. Many important tools, trade goods and supplies were lost.

Scene Four

Karankawa Raid

Narrator:

Although the native Karankawa were initially friendly, they became angry when La Salle stole their dugout canoe and some supplies. In early 1688 they raided Fort Saint Louis and killed the remaining adult survivors. The native women spared the Talon children. The children lived with the Karankawa tribe for several years. (older students pose as Karankawa nurturing younger students)

Scene Five

Narrator:

On April 22, 1689 a Spanish expedition led by General Alonso de Leon (Alonso) discovered the remains of Fort Saint Louis and the bodies of several of the French citizens. They gave the victims a proper Christian burial and erected a monument to the dead. They buried the cannons and drew a map showing where the cannons had been when they found them. (Students arrange the cannons on the floor and hold up the map) Later, the Spanish built a presidio at the same site where Fort Saint Louis once stood.

Scene Six

Narrator:

General Alonso de Leon searched for the tribe who had the French children. When they finally found them they negotiated a trade. Robert and Pierre Talon were each traded for one horse. Two horses were traded for their sister, Marie Madeleine Talon.

Scene Seven

:

Narrator:

Over three hundred years later, in 1995, marine archeologists excavated the *La Belle* from the Gulf of Mexico. After finding the lost ship they began a search for the site of the French colony. In 1996 an archeologist found eight cannons buried on a ranch in South Texas-on a bluff overlooking Garcitas Creek near the coast of Matagorda Bay. They were identified as the French cannons that had belonged to the La Salle settlement. From 1996 until 2001, field archeologists employed by the Texas Historical Commission excavated the site of Fort Saint Louis and found artifacts to represent three cultures: the native Karankawa, the French and the Spanish.

Conclusion

Narrator:

The discovery of the location of the French settlement known as Fort Saint Louis has provided new information for historians and archeologists. The wealth of trade goods and the amount of tools and materials that have been recovered shows that the French had all of the essential ingredients necessary to establish a stronghold on the Texas Gulf Coast.

If their attempt to settle in Texas had been successful, we might all be speaking French today!

Appendix M

Transcripts from the History Club Sessions

January 8, 2002: Introduction to Fort Saint Louis Archeological Project/Pretests

An informative slide show was the focal point of our first session and we discussed both the history of Fort Saint Louis from the Seventeenth Century as well as the current topics concerning the archeological site of the former colony. The identical set of slides was presented to the entire fifth grade in the previous semester during my pilot study, so it was familiar to the students. However, in this format, with fewer students and more time to have a discussion, the History Club participants asked more questions about the fate of the French colony which were recorded in the KWL chart (Appendix C). Also, on this day, I began to conduct interviews for the study.

Brad wanted to know why some of the colonists wanted to return to France and the others chose to stay. This question opened a discussion that was to set a precedent for the entire semester in that Brad's consistent interest in the causal aspect of the events established him as a learning leader. Brad's quest for historical inquiry and his ability to stay focused on our topic facilitated the process of scaffolding in group discussions.

In this first session, which was not tape recorded, the pupils showed early signs of the development of historical thinking skills through the content of their questions and by their eagerness to continue the discussion beyond the meeting. Pre-unit interviews (Appendix B) were conducted and a newsletter was sent home (Appendix A).

January 11, 2002: The Shipwreck of the *La Belle*/Pretests with Ms. Geneser

We watched a documentary that was produced by the Texas Historical Commission (Govenar, 1998). In this video the saga of the French expedition to the New World is revisited and followed up by the story of the marine excavation of the *La Belle*. The flagship of La Salle's fleet contained a wealth of artifacts from the Seventeenth Century that had been submerged for over three hundred years in waters off the Texas Gulf Coast. Historians and archeologists in the state and around the world value these items, which serve to illuminate the aesthetics and technology level of the French colonists. Glimpses of these artifacts in photos, in the museum and on the THC website were valuable teaching tools for the subject of history and archeology during this research project.

The Texas Historical Commission discovered the *La Belle* in 1995 and recovered the artifacts in an extensive nautical archeological endeavor. It was a successful effort, which garnered worldwide attention and stimulated new interest in the fate of the first French colony in the state of Texas. The subsequent discovery of the French cannons prompted the inland excavation of the settlement at Fort Saint Louis in 1996 (Bruseth, 1999; Davis, 1999, 2000, Govenar, 1998; Locke, 1999; Wheat, 1997).

The *Shipwreck of the La Belle* provoked more questions about the exploits of Rene Robert Cavelier Sieur de la Salle and the fate of the people who were with him during his journey. However, on this day, the students were primarily interested in the construction of the cofferdam, which was used in the excavation of the *La Belle*, the forensic lab where the remains of the French sailor were examined and the destination of the artifacts that were excavated from the vessel.

January 15, 2002: Methods of Historical Research: Chronology

Chronology was our topic for this lesson. We began with a definition of *chronology* and a discussion about the importance of placing historical events in time. Then we employed the model of timelines. Each student had personal experience with timelines in previous social studies classes and was able to give an example of their knowledge on the subject. We looked at a timeline that represented the chronology of the La Salle expedition and the sequence of events in the lives of the French colonists (Wheat, 1997). It showed the basic facts and was posted on a display board. We used this graphic as a reference point throughout the semester.

Next, we discussed the timelines of our own lives and major events that have occurred. Most of the students were ten years old so they decided to produce timelines that listed ten major life events or special memories. Beginning with their date of birth, they listed episodes that defined their personal histories and marked significant changes that have occurred in their lives. These incidents included occasions such as their first steps, their first spoken words, their first day of school, and other important milestones like learning to swim or to ride a bike. Some students included family events and others portrayed more personal information. All of the research participants were conscientious with this early task and completed them satisfactorily. The students wrote and illustrated their timelines and then shared them with the group. Although the themes were consistent, each timeline had an individual style, which reflected the character of his or her creator (Appendix D.)

After the lesson about the definition of *chronology* and the extension of the idea by producing personal timelines, the group engaged in a discussion about the rationale for this element of historical research.

Discussion:

Researcher: Who would like to tell me how chronology is helpful to historians?

Carol: They need to know when things happened.

Researcher: How does that help them learn history? Eva, can you tell me?

Eva: It shows them when it happened, like what was the year or even the century.

Researcher: Can anyone add to that?

Wilson: I think that you have to know when things happened because it relates to other things that were happening.

Researcher: I understand what you are trying to say, that there is a correlation between historical events, but could you tell us more?

Wilson: Well, when La Salle was on the expedition, France and Spain were at war, so I think he was trying to invade Spanish territory.

Researcher: How can a timeline help us with understanding the bigger picture of a historical event?

Carol: If you know the dates of a war and then you see those dates on the La Salle timeline, then you can say, oh, that is why he did that.

Researcher: Excellent, you showed us how timelines can help us to make connections.

Joshua: Each piece of the information helps us to learn about the past. Each thing we learn is a part of the puzzle, so everything fits into place.

Researcher: Right, chronology is just one of the methods of historical research. Each component adds to our understanding of that point in time. Do any of you want to add to the discussion? Mary?

Mary: I liked making the timelines of our lives.

Researcher: Think about this: each of you made a timeline and all of you are almost the same age, yet each of your timelines was different. How can that relate to our history project? Was La Salle's life similar to the lives of the Talon children?

Brad: La Salle was the leader and he did not have to do some of the boring things that the other people had to do so his life would look different.

Researcher: What were the "boring things" that they had to do?

Brad: They had to find food, build the fort and carry water to the fort.

Researcher: Why do you think that La Salle didn't have to do the same things?

Brad: He was always going away somewhere, it seems.

Researcher: Yes, that's right. . Back to the subject of chronology, do any of you want to add anything else? Rosa, tell me what you think.

Rosa: We can see how things have changed.

Researcher: What do you mean by that?

Rosa: If the date says "1685," we know that they didn't drive cars.

Researcher: Excellent. Tell me how we know.

Rosa: Because people didn't have cars until ...?

Wilson: Until about?

Researcher: Does anyone know?

Brad: I think about 100 years.

Researcher: Yes, the first cars for people to buy were made almost 100 years ago and the French colonists came-how long ago?

Several students in unison: 300 years.

January 18, 2002: Methods of Historical Research: Maps and Navigational Tools

The questions for the lesson on this day pertained to the route that La Salle took which resulted in a different destination than he intended. We began by observing copies of the antique maps that were used by La Salle (Wheat, 1997). Next, we compared the outdated maps with maps of the same territory that are in use today. We extended the lesson with an inquiry into the tools used for navigation; then and now. I had a replica of an astrolabe for the students to play with as well as an authentic global positioning system device for the sake of comparison. (Alonso was absent on this day.)

Discussion:

Researcher: Why did La Salle miss the mark? Was it intentional?

Brad: Didn't he take a wrong turn?

Wilson: It was because of the currents and because the astrolabe was not very accurate.

Joshua: I think it was because of the astrolabe.

Carol: I think that they were trying to invade Spanish territory.

Researcher: Tell me more about the astrolabe.

Wilson: One thing they did was to look at the stars.

Researcher: What do you mean?

Wilson: The astrolabe was a tool that helped them with navigation by looking at the sky.

Researcher: Are you saying that the astrolabe was used in conjunction with the night sky?

Wilson: Yes.

Researcher: What was the purpose of Fort Saint Louis?

Carol: They were trying to settle down. They were going to make a colony for more French to come over and join them.

Rosa: That's what I think, too.

Researcher: Why did some of the people go back home?

Mary: They were afraid of the Indians. They were tired and no one found any gold.

Wilson: The people were sick and they had been told lies about what it would be like.

Researcher: Did they make the right choice?

Brad: They might as well have stayed. They just had a rerun of their problems.

Researcher: How do you know?

Brad: Actually, I don't know.

Researcher: I don't know either. I haven't studied what happened to the people who went back to France.

Wilson: So, what about the people who stayed? How did they eat? How did they cook?

Joshua: They caught fish.

Eva: They ate bananas.

Researcher: Why do you think they ate bananas?

Eva: Well, it was tropical.

Researcher: Does South Texas have banana trees?

Eva: Maybe not.

Rosa: They grew corn.

Carol: The Indians helped them find food and they shared their food.

Researcher: Where did they get water?

Wilson: From the river. (Garcitas Creek)

Researcher: Where did they sleep?

Carol: They built shelter from the materials from the shipwreck.

Researcher: What were the materials that they used for construction?

Wilson: They used wood from the ship to build with.

Researcher: Why did all of the adults perish?

Mary: In the shipwreck.

Rosa: From smallpox.

Carol: From a seizure.

Researcher: How did the Talon children react to life with the Karankawa?

Rosa: They learned how to do all the stuff.

Researcher: Did they adjust to the new situation?

Students: Yes.

Researcher: How do we know?

Wilson: From the interrogations.

Mary: They didn't want to leave their new family when the Spanish came.

Researcher: Did the Spanish really rescue the Talon siblings?

Joshua: Not totally. They made them work as servants.

Researcher: How did Pierre view La Salle?

Wilson: He felt used. He was angry. He was separated from his family because of La Salle.

Researcher: Why do you think La Salle was assassinated?

Wilson: He was not a good leader.

January 22, 2002: Methods of Historical Research: Diaries and Journals

In this session I provided several passages from the journal of Henri Joutel for the students to follow as I read the page. These selections are from the original journal that he wrote in the Seventeenth Century. We read from the book that was edited by William C. Foster, *The La Salle Expedition to Texas: The Journal of Henri Joutel, 1684-1687* (Foster, 1998). Students learned the definition of a primary source document and discussed the many ways that diaries can be used in the study of history.

Discussion:

Researcher: What did you learn from this diary?

Brad: That I'm glad I didn't have to live with them!

Researcher: Why?

Brad: It would be so hard.

Researcher: What do you mean by hard?

Brad: Just to think about how they had to learn everything new and start all over.

Wilson: I was thinking, well, you said, that a lot of them were taken from, like, church doorsteps. And I was thinking that they might not have known how to be gardeners when they were in France so now they have to learn how to grow everything in this new place and that is why it is so hard for them.

Researcher: Wow! You were really thinking about them. Does anyone else want to speculate about this?

Carol: I think that it was hard for some of them but that most of the people did know a lot about plants and growing things and besides they brought some seeds from France so someone knew how to grow things.

Researcher: Think about this: La Salle purchased the seeds before they left for France. Do you think he also made sure that some of his people would understand how to grow things?

Alonso: They had to know how to grow things. Everyone had a garden back then.

Joshua: Maybe not everyone.

Wilson: But most people did.

Researcher: We know that they grew plants when they were in France and also that the Karankawas helped them. Let's go back to the diary. Is it a primary source or a secondary source? Show me with your hands; raise your right hand for primary source, your left hand for secondary source. (Majority agreed that it was a primary source)

Researcher: Let's go over this again. I will hold up an item and you will tell me whether it is a primary source or a secondary source item. (Researcher verbally identifies these items: personal letter, will, diary, textbook, novel, encyclopedia, newspaper, deed)

Researcher: Did you enjoy that? Now we'll play "Source Bingo" (Appendix G).

January 25, 2002: Methods of Historical Research: Artifacts

An artifact is any object that has been modified by humans. This definition will include many objects and can stimulate long discussions about the variety and uses of artifacts in the study of history and archeology. We began our discussion about the wide range of artifacts that can be represented in each category of human use. Several archeology books with excellent pictures were displayed on the table as well as a magazine that had numerous photographs of the French artifacts from the *La Belle*

(Bahn, 1995; Barber, 1996; Cavendish, 1980; Duke, 1997; Josephy, 1961; Locke, 1999; Wilson, 1984; Zappler, 1996). The students perused the materials to find examples for

this task. The purpose of this lesson was to show students how artifacts change over time yet the wants and needs of humans remain consistent.

Next, I divided the students into two groups and gave each group a classification worksheet (Appendix E). Their assignment was to list as many items as possible for each category on the list. The artifact inventory was not limited to a historical era. In other words, they could list “comb made of carved bone” and “bobby pins” in the same column under the heading: hair adornment. The students were conscientious about completing this project and came up with some clever responses.

January 29, 2002: Artifacts: Clues to Our Past

One of the objectives for teaching history is to demonstrate how each of us fits in to the grand scheme of things. “We, no less than the people we study, are historical beings” (Wineburg, 2001, p. 5). From this perspective, I asked that each pupil bring a “personal museum,” a collection of items that they believed would reflect their own experience (Whatley, 2000). Each student brought a box of personal belongings, or mementos from home. These little treasure troves served as sample museums as the students took turns holding up one item from their collection and describing to the rest of us why it was significant. It served to inform me about their interpretation of the term, personal artifact, and provided insight into their lives. The activity was successful in that each student was given sufficient time to share their collection. The rules were that each person deserved the full attention of the other group members during their presentation and they fully cooperated with the guidelines (Paley, 1992).

The activity of sharing personal artifacts served as a segue into the subject of ethics in archeology. Each student agreed that his or her collection was more meaningful

intact. We discussed the importance of preservation and the damage that is done to valuable archeological sites by looting.

February 1, 2002: Three cultures, One site: Fort Saint Louis

After a brief review of the definition of an artifact, we divided into four groups. Each group was given a basket of artifacts with instructions to categorize the items by their function: food, clothing, shelter, protection, religion, music, art or adornment. A study guide (in appendix) accompanied this task. The next job was to decide whether their assigned collection represented the Native American, French, Spanish or Modern cultural group. Group discussion following the activity provided insight into the following questions: What is an artifact? What can we learn from artifacts?

February 8, 2002: Archeologists at Work: Preservation

Anyone who has ever attempted to repair broken objects will have an understanding of the challenges that archeologists must face in the lab. On this day the students learned firsthand how difficult it can be to piece something back together after it has been broken. We looked at pictures from the archeology lab in Victoria of people who were piecing shards of pottery back together and discussed the challenge of reconstructing broken items. I gave each pair of students a bag with a small clay pot and instructed them to drop it on the sidewalk. Then, we brought the bags with the broken pieces back into the classroom and proceeded to glue the pieces back together. This lesson began with giggles and shrieks of delight. It was a novelty to intentionally break the pots. The giddy ambiance faded once the children began the task of reconstruction. It was a greater challenge than they had anticipated; yet I was proud of their fortitude. All of the students glued their pots back together with varying degrees of success.

Discussion:

Alonso: This is very hard, harder than I thought it would be.

Wilson: There are usually missing pieces. They get lost in the dirt. After a while they become the dirt.

Alonso: I can see how more time might be needed due to the size of the fragments. They (the archaeologists) might need to take months to dig for the pieces.

Carol: It is so hard to put the pieces back together! As soon as we did it the pot would break again.

Joshua: If the pot had a design, it would be hard to put it back together, to match it up.

Rosa: All the pieces will not be in the same place. We will not be able to put it back. It cannot be put back together again.

Mary: When you have a vase and it breaks on the ground it spreads. People might step on it.

Alonso: Archaeologists probably get really frustrated.

Wilson: Hmm. Yeah, I bet they do.

Eva: Well, I'm frustrated!

Joshua: We had it easy because we knew what we broke.

Carol: I can see how it would be easy to overlook the artifacts. It would be a lot easier for the archaeologists if each pot had a date on it.

Brad: That is why it is so hard to be an archeologist. But it would also be fun.

February 12, 2002: March 8, 2002: Expanding What We Know about the Talon Children's experience with the Karankawa Natives by Reading *Indian Captive*

The fifth grader's prior knowledge about the Karankawa was not favorable. The main information that they had gleaned from the fourth grade Texas unit of study on the Indians of Texas was the sensationalist fact that the tribe was cannibalistic. In fact, the textbook from which they garnered their information contains only one page about the French colony. This information was supplemented by a lecture from the teacher, whose information source on the Karankawa is unknown. Cannibalism is the key point that many people associate with the Karankawa. In the students mind the revelation that they were kind to the Talon children provoked their curiosity and served to humanize the tribe. This was a new perspective for the students.

The Karankawa were, in fact, hospitable to the French colonists upon their arrival. They only became hostile after La Salle's troops confiscated their handmade dugout canoes. Once students were informed of this perspective of the native people, they were eager to learn more about the skills and lifeways of the Karankawa (Ricklis, 1996).

The new information about the Karankawa helped to foster the students' respect for multiple perspectives in historical accounts. Prior to this lesson, the French represented civilization and the natives were seen as primitive and "backwards". Learning that they possessed an expansive knowledge of the local flora and fauna opened the minds of these ten-year-old history students and helped them to appreciate another point of view.

The initial sessions served as a prelude to the narrative component of the History Club. The meetings that dealt with Lois Lenski's book, *Indian Captive*, served to illuminate aspects of daily life in a tribal setting that helped to inspire a significant component of the transcripts. This finding correlates with recent research on the use of

trade books to enhance learning in the social studies classroom (Levstik and Barton, 2004).

The use of historical fiction supports the theory that covering a single historical topic in depth rather than emphasizing a superficial overview of the breadth of a topic promotes historical thinking skills (Davis, 2001; Barton and Levstik; 2004; Field, 2001; VanSledright, 2000; Wineburg, 2001). Certainly, the dramatic impact of the historical saga is more profound when students are able to learn about the lives of the characters. The age correlation in this episode between the History Club participants and the characters whose lives we studied helped them to connect to the story. The students were able to realize that, despite the hardships and struggle for survival, there were also some pleasant experiences in the lives of the Talon children while they were living with the Karankawa. The students generally agreed that their favorite part of the History Club was learning about life with the Indians and doing activities that served as historical simulations of Native American life.

February 12, 2002: Reading and Discussions of Chapters One and Two of Indian Captive
Chapter One: Come What May

In this introductory chapter, Molly's family was described as farming folk who grew corn in a settlement known as Marsh Creek Hollow in Pennsylvania. Molly was sent to fetch a horse from the neighbor Dixon. When she returned she discovered her home in an upheaval due to an Indian raid. The Seneca Indians and some French soldiers kidnapped her family and forced them to abandon their homestead.

Discussion:

Carol: Ooh, my mom would be crying.

Mary: Mine, too.

Rosa: I bet she was scared.

Wilson: I would try to get away.

Carol: Well, it is not that easy.

Wilson: But I wouldn't just let them take me.

Carol: How do you know what you would do? You'd be so scared!

Wilson: I still think I would get away. I still think I would escape.

Alonso: Me, too.

Researcher: It is hard to know what we would do in a situation like that.

Mary: This is a sad story!

Researcher: Do you see how it relates to our tale of the Talon children?

Eva: Yes.

Joshua: But it is not the same place.

Researcher: True, but the circumstances are similar.

Alonso: I think it is very similar.

Researcher: Why?

Alonso: Because the Indians took her to be their own just like the Karankawa took the French kids. Also, they killed her parents.

Researcher: Remember that the dad (Monsieur Talon) had died on a hunting expedition.

Alonso: Oh, yeah.

Brad: It is hard to imagine.

Researcher: I know, but this is just the first chapter!

Carol: I think it is exciting.

Eva: I want to know how they made things.

Researcher: I think we will enjoy this project.

Wilson: I know that I will.

Carol: Uh-huh.

Chapter Two: The Long Journey

The Jemison family left their homestead that day; April 5, 1758, never to return. Molly and her parents and siblings and a neighbor boy, Davy Whelock, were forced to walk for days without rest. Along the way they kidnapped another young man, Nicholas Porter. They were offered very little food or water. Her dad's hands were bound so she tried to feed him but he refused. Then one day she was separated from her kin. As they parted ways, Molly's dad told her that the Indians were not going to hurt her. Her mom told her to be strong and to have courage. Although she was scared of her captors, she began to trust a kindly old Indian named Shagbark.

Discussion:

Researcher: What was life like with the Karankawa?

Mary: I think that they got used to it and had to adapt to it.

Wilson: I think that the culture shock was overwhelming. I think that they had to get used to it or they would just snap.

Brad: They just have to get used to it and they did get used to it.

Alonso: They had to pretend that they were just born.

Carol: Uh-huh.

Mary: It is too difficult for us to understand.

February 15, 2002: Reading and Discussions of Chapters Three and Four

Chapter Three: Fort Duquesne

The expedition arrived at a location near Fort Duquesne. Davy and Nicholas were turned over to the French outpost by the Seneca Indians to serve in the French army. Molly had heard of the fort and she believed that the people there would help her so she attempted to escape. However, she was recaptured and given to two Indian sisters who had arranged to meet at the campsite. She was taken away in a canoe. Her parting glimpse of a beautiful peach tree in bloom was to be her last memory of Fort Duquesne.

Discussion:

Researcher: What do you think of Chapter Three?

Carol: Now she is all alone with them.

Rosa: But she is not afraid that they will kill her.

Mary: It is so lonely.

Rosa: How is she going to survive?

Mary: She just has to get used to it.

Carol: But she will never be happy.

Researcher: What do you think, Eva?

Eva: Maybe she will learn to love them.

Carol: I think it will take a long time. This is worse than anything I've ever had to face.

Rosa: Yeah, we can't imagine how bad it anything was.

Mary: Maybe she just stops thinking about at all.

Carol: You could never get used to it.

Brad: Maybe you could.

Wilson: But we know that she survived because she grew up and told her story.

Eva: And she wanted to stay with them. She grew to love them.

Researcher: How do we know that she loved them?

Brad: Well, it says so in the introduction. It says that she wanted to stay with them.

Chapter Four: Seneca Town

Molly slept in the canoe while the Indian sisters paddled west on the Ohio River all day. When she awoke, they had arrived in an Indian village. They bathed her and gave her deerskin clothing, leggings, and an overdress. Then they combed her hair and fashioned it into two long braids. Molly was sad to lose her homespun dress and she did not want to dress like an Indian. The Indian sisters presented her to the tribe and participated in a ceremony to welcome Molly as a new member of the Seneca tribe. The Seneca believed that her capture would compensate for a young Indian man who had been killed by white people.

In this ritual they also gave her an Indian name, Corn Tassel, in honor of her golden hair. An old woman named Red Bird took over the care of Molly. She was the mother of the lost tribal member and Molly was now expected to serve as a replacement for the loss. She tried to feed Molly and showed her where to sleep.

Molly did not understand the implications of the initiation ceremony. The corn in the lodge reminded her of home and made her very sad. She cried herself to sleep.

Discussion:

Researcher: How is Molly doing? Have you noticed any changes in the way that she is adapting to the situation? Do you think she will adopt the Seneca as her own?

Joshua: She was being treated nice but she was still whiny.

Brad: Yeah, she seems like she is starting to like it, but she was whiny.

Mary: I think that she is not thankful.

Researcher: What do you mean by that?

Mary: Well, they gave her a home and fed her. She should be thankful.

Researcher: But they took her away from her family.

Mary: Well, some of the Indians did, but not the ones who are taking care of her now.

Rosa: Were there really bunk beds? I never thought that Indians had bunk beds.

Researcher: (showing illustration) There are many different tribes of Indians and they have many different accommodations and lifestyles. Molly was living with the Seneca and they did have bunk beds in their lodge.

Wilson: During the whole trip she was hungry. Finally, they give food to her but she is not grateful for it. She should be thankful.

February 19, 2002: Reading and Discussion of Chapters Five and Six

Our historical simulation for the day was to make cordage, or rope (Moe, 1996).

I provided the raffia and gave them directions so that they could do something with their hands while they were listening to the story.

Chapter Five: Lost in Snow

Molly was dreaming of weaving with her mother when she awoke to the reality of the Indian lodge and the sound of Indians grinding corn. A little white dog jumped into the bed with her and comforted her in her sorrow. In this chapter she met an Indian baby boy who reminded her of her lost baby brother. The child is the son of Shining Star, one of the sisters who brought her to the tribal community.

Shining Star was represented as the kind sister who helped Molly adjust to the Seneca way of life. The other sister, Squirrel Woman, plays an adversarial role. In this

chapter she taught Molly the Seneca word for wood by kicking her and showing her with gestures that she was expected to fetch wood for the fire. Thus, Molly learns her first word in this new language--“wood.”

The jaunt into the woods led her to a patch of wildflowers and she lay on the ground to cry. A young Indian boy, Little Turtle, found her and offered comfort. He reminded her of her lost comrade, Davy Whelock, and they became friends. He helped her to gather wood and encouraged her to rejoin the community.

Discussion:

Carol: She can't stop thinking about her family.

Rosa: It is like her nightmare is when she is awake.

Carol: The squirrel lady is awful.

Rosa: Like Ms._____ (teacher at their school)

(Giggles)

Mary: She needs to learn to like it.

Researcher: Why?

Mary: Because it is just the way it is.

Researcher: But why does she have to like it?

Mary: Well, or get used to it. She needs to be grateful.

Researcher: What does she have to be grateful for?

Mary: Like a place to stay.

Eva: And food.

Rosa: And people who care about her.

Researcher: How do we know that they care about her?

Carol: Because they adopted her into the tribe.

Brad: Remember the time they had that ceremony?

Researcher: These are the same people who took her away from her family.

Wilson: No, the ones who stole her were the warriors. She is with the other members of the tribe, like the women, no.

Carol: Kind of like the Karankawa.

Researcher: What do you mean?

Carol: Well, remember, the Karankawa women carried the Talon children on their backs when the men were raiding the fort.

Chapter Six: A Singing Bird

Molly found comfort in her friendship with Little Turtle. He followed her to the woods when she went to gather wood or to fetch water and he taught her many new words for the plants and animals of the forest. He gave her a gift of a silver brooch.

Unbeknownst to her, Little Turtle had beseeched the Indian chief, Chief Standing Pine, on Molly's behalf to free her from captivity. Molly was summoned to him and listened as her friend pleaded for her release. The chief lectured to them on the reality of war but Molly did not fully understand his words. However, she trusted his behavior and his kindness helped her to adjust to the situation. She developed a bond with him and began to feel more at home with the Seneca tribe.

Discussion:

Researcher: What do you think of the events of this chapter?

Rosa: I'm happy that she actually understood them.

Mary: She found out that she understood more than she knew.

Alonso: She learned how to live with them. She showed courage.

Carol: The language finally became understandable.

Eva: I think it is interesting the way that she learned the language.

Brad: I liked that she learned the language. It means she is getting used to living with them.

Carol: Once she got settled in, she learned their ways and she made friends with them.

Alonso: She learned the language mostly by listening. Then, overnight, she began to speak the language. It is like in the book *The Thirteenth Warrior*.

Wilson: Oh, I've heard of that book. I think I know what you are talking about.

Rosa: She was able to learn the language because of her relationships with the other women. She wanted to talk to them and she finally understood what they were trying to say to her, too.

Joshua: Molly will always work now that she has learned how to work for her food. She is becoming a member of the tribe.

Researcher: Yes, she has become a member of Seneca tribe.

February 22, 2002: Reading and Discussion of Chapters Seven and Eight:

Dream catchers were the project for the day. Each child was given a loop made of wire to create his or her own woven dream catcher. After showing them the basic steps, I handed out baskets of embroidery thread and feathers for them to choose from. The students wove while I read and later inserted feathers in the finished products.

Chapter Seven: Slow Weaving:

As Molly began to adjust to her new way of life, she expressed interest in learning how to participate in the activities of the tribe. Shining Star, the kind sister, taught her

how to weave baskets. She also learned how to weave the decorations that hung above the baby's carrier that were made to ward off evil spirits. Molly protested the baby's lack of freedom of movement, but Shining Star reassures her that "the Senecas have always done so." The baby's only movement was his mouth but he did not cry. Instead, he imitated the sound of a blue jay; hence his given name was Little Blue Jay. His mother was confident that he would grow up to be a brave man. Molly felt affection for Shining Star but worried that her kindness would transform Molly into an Indian. She thought, "How can a girl torn away from her people live without affection?" and pondered how much she had learned in only four months. She had learned many Indian words, she had learned how to do Indian chores and crafts, she had begun to understand the Indian ways including their perception of the Great Spirit, and she had learned to love the Indian people, especially the little Indian baby boy. It was in this chapter that she realized that they had been calling her "Corn Tassel" all these months. When she learned the meaning of their name for her she recalled her father's parting words: "They won't hurt you, you have hair the color of corn tassels."

Molly, or Corn Tassel, enjoyed learning the language of the Seneca but she did not want to forget her family. As she did her chores, she recited the names of her parents and siblings in order. Squirrel Woman caught her and punished her for speaking English, saying, "You are one of us now." For once, Molly held her ground and retaliated. She scolded Squirrel Woman for her behavior, labeling it as unbecoming to an Indian. Then, she felt sad all over again as she thought about her response to the bully. She realized that her response meant that she was thinking like an Indian.

Discussion:

Carol: She is becoming part of the community. She wants to join them and she shows it by trying to speak their language.

Mary: She is learning more each day. She is not so confused anymore.

Eva: Her hair doesn't look yellow.

Mary: She's getting better. I'm happy for her.

Eva: That is good that she is finally accepting the situation.

Brad: The Indians treated her with respect. They wanted her to be one of them.

Chapter Eight: A Second Captivity:

Molly embarked upon a voyage back to Fort Duquesne with a group of the Seneca tribe who were on a trading mission. At one point she wandered away from the tribe and was discovered by a group of white people who were astonished to see her dressed in Indian attire. They were concerned about her and wanted to know how she became a member of the Seneca. She was comforted by their offer of a glass of milk. It was the first time that she had consumed milk in a long time. They wanted to rescue her and offered her a place to live. Molly was eager to join them but Squirrel Woman forcefully recaptured her and took her back to the Indians. After that incident, Molly was relocated to Falling Waters, a Seneca outpost that was many miles further away from Fort Duquesne.

Discussion:

Carol: It is terrible that she almost gets away but doesn't.

Alonso: This part makes me want milk!

Researcher: I thought that it would! Our snack today is milk and cookies.

Alonso: I want to call Squirrel Woman "Spider Woman."

Carol: I wonder if there was someone like that with the Karankawa tribe or if they were all nice like Shining Star.

Researcher: All we know about is that the women caregivers were kind to the Talon children, but there may have been a “Squirrel Woman.”

Carol: But, I mean, someone who didn’t let the kids escape.

Researcher: Oh, I see. Well, maybe. But in that area, there were no other settlements of Europeans for them to escape to.

Wilson: I wonder if the Karankawa moved around as much as the Seneca.

Researcher: We do know that the Karankawa moved frequently. Remember, they were not a farming community.

Brad: She lived with the Seneca the rest of her life.

Researcher: That’s right.

Joshua: Well, why couldn’t she escape? Couldn’t she run into the woods and hide?

Researcher: What do you think, Eva?

Eva: Maybe she was too scared.

Carol: And remember her parents told her not to!

Rosa; It is a sad story.

Brad: It is like a war story.

Wilson: Well, it was like a war between the Indians and the settlers.

Brad: Why don’t they tell you about that in the textbook?

Researcher: They don’t?

Brad: Well, not too much. Not like this.

Researcher: Why not?

Brad: Well, maybe it makes us look bad.

Researcher: Who do you mean by “us”?

Brad: The people who came from other places to live here.

February 26, 2002: Reading and Discussion of Chapters Nine and Ten:

Today’s activity was the production of cornhusk dolls. The students were enthusiastic about the project and even the boys were eager to make the little toys. The materials for this project were simply dried cornhusks and string. Some of the girls borrowed markers to draw faces on their dolls.

Chapter Nine: By the Falling Waters

After the long river journey to Falling Waters, Molly was given over to a healer, Earth Woman. She was renowned for her ability to cure the sick and, at this time, Molly had become seriously ill. Molly slept on a cot in the home of Earth Woman for many days. She was delirious with fever and had become confused. Earth Woman tended to her physical needs and, while Molly slept, she made a cornhusk doll for her. When Molly finally roused from her comatose state, an Indian child who introduced herself as Beaver Girl greeted her. She was an age mate and was eager to befriend her new companion.

Molly’s health improved and she enjoyed her time with Beaver Girl and the other children in this new tribe. Together they did their chores and crafts. They made coil pots out of soft, wet clay, and played together in the woods. One day they found baby bear cubs, and they want to capture them to bring home. Molly discouraged them because she did not want to see the baby bears separated from their mother.

Discussion:

Mary: She still spoke English to her doll.

Rosa: She wants to learn how to do Indian things. She wants to make a coil pot.

Joshua: Now she feels happy. I think she has a sense of belonging since she wants to make a pot.

Wilson: It was weird that she could forget about her family after one little pot.

Brad: She forgot to be sad as she learned more about living with the Indians.

Alonso: She was getting used to their customs and adapting to their culture.

Rosa: Wanting to learn was helpful. It was a good sign that she wanted to learn their ways.

Researcher: Why was it a good sign?

Rosa: If she wants to learn how to make things, like a coil pot, she is beginning to get used to living with them.

Carol: She needs to have strong hands to make a pot.

Rosa: I like to make pots, too.

Carol: The more she learns; the more she gets away from her culture. She thinks “this is my family now: when she gets to make things. Her making stuff makes her happy.

Chapter Ten: Old Fallenash:

Little Turtle was proud to take Molly with him into the woods on a hunting trip. He was dismayed when Molly sympathized with his prey, an enormous male turkey. He wanted Molly to be impressed with his skills and his ability to provide for the tribe, but Molly was sad. “Do the palefaces never kill animals for food?” (p. 169) he asked. He chided her for weakness and stated that Indian girls “must be strong.” “But I am not an Indian girl!” protested Molly. Together they presented the turkey to Shagbark who

praises Little Turtle for his prowess and gave him a new name, Turkey Feather, in honor of his achievement.

An English trader visited the Indian village in search of pelts and handcrafted items. When Molly saw him she thought he was her long lost dad and she ran to him. Old Fallenash was not her dad but he did know Molly. They remembered each other from the days when he would travel through her old community with his wares. He stayed at the Jemison home on several occasions and he was sad that she is separated from her family. However, he did not encourage her to escape and he refused to take her with him because he feared that he would be scalped as punishment for stealing her. He advised her to learn how to live with the Seneca and to be happy in her new life.

Discussion:

Rosa: I would have taken the chance to leave.

Eva: She misses her home

Joshua: It's better that she stayed.

Carol: I want her to be happy as an Indian.

Mary: She is happier now that the women came.

Eva: She is disgusted about killing animals.

Rosa: Molly doesn't agree with anything. She's difficult. She just needs to accept the situation because she can't change it.

Alonso: The Senecas could have killed her and the trader. It's not worth trying to escape. She has a better life with them. She has a lot to teach them.

Joshua: I think that it is lame that he (the trader) made excuses.

Wilson: He's a coward.

Carol: I think it was cool except for the guy. I think he was selfish but it was cool that the Indians love her enough to fight for her.

Wilson: He could have escaped with her but he didn't have a rifle.

Joshua: I think that he should not have given her the beads, that's what made her cry.

Rosa: But the necklace gave her a chance to have some kind of memory of him.

March 1, 2002: Reading and discussion: Chapters Eleven and Twelve

Chapter Eleven: Running Deer:

In this chapter Molly was thrilled when the Indian baby began to walk. She was becoming more absorbed in the surroundings and had improved her fluency in the Seneca language. She understood Earth Woman when she gave her a lecture about the importance of gratitude for the many blessings on earth. She seemed resigned to her fate.

A new character by the name of Josiah Johnson was introduced when the Seneca Indians captured him and compelled him to run the gauntlet. The gauntlet was an obstacle course, which included both physical challenges and attacks by tribal members as the unwilling participant was forced to run through it. The young man succeeded in completing the event and the Indians were very impressed with his humor, strength, and courage. Afterwards, they turned him over to Earth Woman for medical attention and to rest. When he awoke he was astonished to see Molly and he thought he was dreaming. She, in turn was impressed with his fortitude and eager to have a new friend. Although he was impressed with her fluency in the Seneca language, she was thrilled to be able to talk to him in her native tongue and "the happy English words flowed swiftly" (p. 205).

Discussion:

Researcher: What's the weather report? How is Molly doing in this chapter?

Carol: I think the baby really helps her.

Rosa: He doesn't replace her baby brother but she learns to love him.

Wilson: It was mean of the Indians to make her carry the baby.

Joshua: No, that just means that they are treating her like a member of the tribe.

Wilson: It is weird that he does that bird call.

Brad: I bet that he does it all of his life.

(Several children start to do bird calls)

Mary: She is becoming an Indian whether she likes it or not.

Carol: Some of them are like family.

Joshua: All of them.

Mary: Even a mean sister.

(All of the girls giggle.)

Researcher: What about Josiah Johnson?

Wilson: That gauntlet was weird.

Alonso: I saw it in a movie.

Researcher: What was the name of the movie?

Alonso: It was on television, I don't remember the name.

Brad: They could have killed him.

Researcher: Were they trying to kill him?

Brad: No, they just wanted to test him. It was a tradition.

Wilson: A ritual.

Researcher: What was the purpose of this ritual?

Wilson: Well, it was a rite of passage.

Researcher: What does that mean?

Wilson: It is, well, it means, it means that he can become one of them. An Indian.

Researcher: Does he want to join them?

Alonso: He doesn't want to.

Brad: They captured him.

Joshua: He shows them that he is tough.

Researcher: Is he tough enough?

Wilson: Yeah, they like it when he laughs.

Carol: Molly can't believe him.

Eva: Molly is glad to have him.

Wilson: He can't believe her!

Alonso: Yeah, when he wakes up and sees her, he thinks, I'm dreaming!

(giggles)

Wilson: He thinks he's dead.

Brad: And gone to heaven.

Researcher: Is it like heaven for him?

Brad: Yeah, for both of them.

Researcher: Why?

Carol: Because they can speak English to each other.

Alonso: English brings up her memory of the past. They want her to build her strength.

Brad: Now the English words sound different to her.

Researcher: What do you think, Eva?

Eva: Well, they both speak English.

Researcher: It is a treat to speak your native language when you are in the company of people who speak a different language. How many of you have traveled to a foreign country where most of the people spoke a language other than English?

(Show of hands)

Researcher: So, you know what I am talking about?

Rosa: Yes, when we went to Mexico, everyone spoke Spanish and I didn't understand.

Researcher: That must have been hard.

Rosa: Well, my mom spoke Spanish, but not me.

Chapter Twelve: Porcupine Quills:

Josiah and Molly became friends and spent many hours discussing the Seneca way of life. She showed him how to embroider using porcupine quills and how to make moccasins out of deerskin. They were allowed to go for walks in the snow together on homemade snowshoes and Josiah was indoctrinated into the male community when he shared in the task of hunting for game. At one point, the elders believed that Josiah had escaped but, instead, he and Turkey feather returned with a deer to share with the tribe.

An itinerant Indian storyteller, Hosk-wi-sa-onh, visited from afar and entertained the tribe with his skills. He brought props to embellish his tales such as dolls, animal claws, bear tusks, feathers, and stones. The Seneca were enthralled by the stories that he told around the campfire and they listened to him all evening.

Discussion:

Carol: I wish we could see her gown in color.

Researcher: I have an illustration from my Indian book (Josephy, 1961) that you can look at to get an idea of the colors.

Carol: Oooh, it is so pretty.

Eva: That must have taken a long time to make.

Rosa: Do you think it was hard for her to learn how to make it?

Researcher: Remember that her mother taught her how to sew before she lived with the Indians.

Wilson: She wouldn't forget how to sew.

Joshua: Josiah doesn't like his clothes.

Researcher: Do you mean to say that Molly does like her new outfit?

Mary: Well, she is getting used to it.

Joshua: Getting used to it does not mean that she likes it.

Mary: But she does like it in a way.

Alonso: I think it looks nice. They both look nice.

Brad: Yeah, but Josiah is getting pretty uncomfortable.

Researcher: What do you mean?

Brad: He thinks that the clothes are a bad sign.

Researcher: A bad sign?

Brad: Yeah, the clothes make it look like he is becoming one of them.

Researcher: Well?

Brad: That makes him nervous.

Wilson: He never intended to become an Indian.

Rosa: Neither did Molly.

Mary: But she has to survive.

Researcher: Speaking of survival, what do you think of Josiah's hunting trip?

Wilson: He is acting like an Indian if he is hunting with them!

Brad: I thought it was cool that he helped. He hunted with Turkey Feather. They get along well.

Wilson: He earned their trust.

Mary: He must be getting used to it.

Carol: I thought it was cool that he took care of Molly. They were very skilled to find a deer at that time of year.

Alonso: But at least they all get to eat.

Rosa: It will feed them for a while.

Researcher: And you, Eva, what do you think?

Eva: I'm glad she finally got to eat.

March 5, 2002: Reading of Chapters Thirteen and Fourteen:

Activity: This was the day that the students practiced throwing an atlatl. After the reading, we went outside to take turns throwing a homemade atlatl, a simulation of one that may have been used by the Karankawa.

Chapter Thirteen: Willing Sacrifice:

The time for harvesting syrup had arrived and the Indians worked together to harvest maple syrup from the trees. They procured the sap and boiled it down to make candy for flavoring and to use as a preservative. Once the hard work was over, they enjoyed a festival for the syrup and everybody ate maple candy.

Shagbark presented Josiah with a new dugout canoe and a paddle. In a discrete gesture, he offered his handiwork as a sacrifice to the young male captive and sent blessings from the Great Spirit to guide him on his way. Molly was shocked that

Shagbark would allow him to leave but the elder Indian did not wish to restrain the young man. Molly was very sad when they all realized that Josiah has vanished.

Chapter Fourteen: A New Cooking Pot:

Molly missed Josiah and everything seemed sad again. When it was planting time, she realized that she had been living with the Indians for one year. More time passed and she helped the Seneca with the labor of the harvest. At the same time, she was learning new skills and she was proud of her achievements. The clay pot that she made brings her self-satisfaction as well as praise from her friends.

Squirrel Woman interrupted this new happiness with a command to Molly. She was banished to the cornfield and told she must sleep on the makeshift platform above the crop. Molly discerned the reason for her exile and slipped away from the platform to listen in on a meeting between the Seneca leaders and an English soldier. She heard the Englishman offer gold coins in trade for the little white girl. However, the Seneca would not sell her to him. Then he spied Molly eavesdropping and spoke to her. When she did not respond in English to his command, he called her a savage.

March 8, 2002: Reading and discussion of Chapters Fifteen and Sixteen

Chapter Fifteen: The Rattlesnake:

Molly and her young Indian friends went on a search for huckleberries to pick for dinner. Shining Star's baby boy was now old enough to swim and they changed his name from Little Blue Jay to Blue Trout. Molly reminisced about her young years at home with her sister, Betsey, and the fun that they once had picking berries for the family. Suddenly, Blue Trout approached a dangerous rattlesnake too closely. Molly was alarmed but she thought quickly and was able to throw a big rock at the rattlesnake, causing him to leave

in a hurry. Her actions stirred tremendous praise from the Seneca people. They celebrated her bravery and sagacity. She was honored by the attention and the many compliments she received inspired a stronger sense of belonging to the Native community.

Old Fallenash returned to the scene to deliver sad news to Molly. He told her that he had made a special trip for the purpose of telling her about the fate of her family. On a recent trip to Marsh Creek, the region of her family home, he discovered that English soldiers had burned her homestead to the ground. He investigated locally and found that her parents were no longer living and that her brothers had not been seen since the day of the raid. He hated to tell her this, but he must. He was very sad for her but also wanted her to relinquish any false hope that might linger within her heart. Once again, Molly begged to go with him. Once again, Old Fallenash refused. He said; “Try to be happy! You ain’t so bad off, after all.” Molly resigned herself to her fate. She responded; “This is the only home I have now.”

Discussion:

Carol: She doesn’t want to be an Indian.

Mary: Well, she has to because she has no choice.

Researcher: Why do you say that she has no choice?

Mary: She has to survive.

Researcher: Tell me what that means.

Brad: Well, once she gets beyond culture shock she has to adapt to their culture.

Researcher: How will she do that?

Alonso: One day at a time.

(Laughter)

Researcher: Explain what you mean.

Mary: She will get used to it a little bit more each day.

Carol: But she doesn't want to.

Researcher: How do we know?

Mary: Because she cannot live in two worlds any more. Her old world is gone forever.

(Students nod their heads, say uh-huh in agreement.)

Researcher: What about the trader.

Brad: He likes Indians.

Wilson: He can talk to the Indians.

Rosa: He tells her to be happy.

Carol: He should have taken her away.

Mary: But they *own* her now.

Carol: It's not right.

Chapter Sixteen: Born of a Long Ripening:

The last chapter provided an interesting twist to the saga of Molly Jemison.

Gray Wolf, an alcoholic tribal member, conspired to sell the Indian captive to an English soldier who was wearing a bright red uniform. Molly could hardly look at the Englishman because his uniform was so bright. Then, after all these months of longing for her own culture, she declined an opportunity to leave the Seneca tribe. The English soldier told her that it was "not right" for her to live as an "untamed savage" and he promised to dress her in civilized clothing. However, his eyes were cold and his demeanor was threatening to Molly. She told him that she did not hate the Indians, she only hated war and declared: "I will live and die with the Seneca." Her Indian comrades

were overjoyed that she decided to stay with them. They gave her a new name, “Little Woman of Great Courage,” and presented her with a silver bracelet. Molly Jemison lived out her life with the tribe and was known as a wise elder in her later years. She lives on in the lore of the Seneca tribe as the legendary “White Woman of the Genesee.”

Discussion:

Researcher: We’ve reached the end of the saga of Molly Jemison.

Alonso: She ended up having a good life.

Researcher: What are the components of a good life? Let’s review basic needs.

Rosa: Family, the Seneca took her on as a family member.

Alonso: Shelter. They gave her a place to stay.

Joshua: Food. They seemed to always have enough food to eat.

Eva: Clothing, She has nice clothes.

Carol: Love. She had them as her family, she had friends, and she had pets.

Mary: Things to do. She made moccasins, dream catchers, and dolls. She probably made even more things, like blankets and rugs.

Brad: She had medicine. The old woman was a healer and Molly lived to be 80 years old so she must have taken good care of herself.

Wilson: Toys. She had the little doll.

March 12 and 15:, 2002: Spring Break

March 19, 2002 Reading and Discussion of excerpts from *Boy Captives*:

The text of *Boy Captives* was considerably more graphic than any of the stories from *Indian Captive*. Of course, it was not intended to be a children’s book. Readings from this book were useful for the sake of comparison, yet the brutality that was

described was terribly shocking. I carefully excluded much of the text. However, we still needed to understand aspects of the boys' lives because they lived with a Comanche tribe that roamed in Texas. Descriptions of the terrain and survival techniques of these people were similar to what we know about the Karankawa natives.

Discussion:

Researcher: How does this compare to the story about Molly?

Carol: They seemed to become Indians, too.

Researcher: How do you know?

Carol: I was thinking about the way he would describe meetings with other tribes, he talked about it as if he was a member of the Comanche tribe.

Wilson: He was careful not to do anything that would make them angry.

Joshua: I liked the story about him singing "Old Dan Tucker."

Alonso: He knew that that story would make everyone laugh.

Brad: But I bet he was scared at the time it happened. I know that I would be.

Mary: He just tried to stay out of the way and not stir up any trouble.

Researcher: Do you think he felt like he was part of the group?

Brad: I think the chief gave him special privileges.

Eva: He was probably scared all of the time.

March 22, 2002: Reading and Discussion of excerpts from *Boy Captives*

The young men who lived with the Indians in the story, *Boy Captives* were able to return to their families after several years. In this way their story had more in common with the Talon children than the story of Molly Jemison. I asked the students to address this issue in their discussion.

Discussion:

Researcher: Eva, how are the stories about Molly and Clint children similar?

Eva: They all had to get used to hard times.

Wilson: We don't know the stories of the children who were captured and died.

Researcher: Are you thinking of anyone in particular?

Wilson: No, I just think that there were probably people who died.

Researcher: I think you are right.

Carol: We only know some of the stories.

Rosa: It would be so sad to die and not have your family around you.

Mary: That would be the hardest part.

Alonso: At least if you died, you would go to heaven.

March 26, 2002 Reading and discussion of excerpts from Captured by the Indians

The stories in this text were recorded in latter portion of the Eighteenth Century and the language is authentic to the era. After hearing several of these vignettes, the students were more interested in discussing the differences in the language than the actual events. Most of it was so different from our current language; we had troubles deciphering the content. It was a great lesson on the history of language, but the discussion lacked any insight that would suggest empathy with historical characters.

April 2, 2002: Coil Pots:

An authentic art project was selected to conclude our unit of study on life with Native Americans. We chose to make coil pots because it was one of the happier moments described in the life of the Indian captive. Although it was an ideal opportunity to discuss Molly Jemison's perspective on her experience, the logistics of preparing for

the lesson and helping students with the clay prohibited any record-keeping efforts. We talked about digging a hole in my back yard and building a fire over it to cook the pots but in the end, we took them to a local studio to be fired.

April 5, 2002: Visit to the Bob Bullock Museum

A visit to the Bob Bullock Texas State History Museum served as our interim activity between the narrative exploration and the creation of our play. Children brought their permission slips and we rode a city bus for several blocks to reach the museum. Three parents joined us on the outing, as much for their own interest in the exhibit as for supervision of the children. Although the children did have permission to view the museum in its entirety, I insisted that we begin with the artifacts from Fort Saint Louis and the *La Belle* that are housed in the entrance to the museum.

The hour and a half that we spent together perusing authentic artifacts was a pleasant experience. The students were in awe of the objects and even though some of them had visited the museum prior to this day, they had a greater appreciation for the display due to the study of the origin of the artifacts. They were able to identify most of the items and tell how they were used. We were somewhat spread out so I was not able to record exact quotes from all of the students but the gist of the trip was that the students had never connected with a museum exhibit quite so powerfully before that day. Several of the parents also commented on the students' high level of enthusiasm.

April 9, 2002--April 30, 2002: Students Create the Script for the Play:

As the students began work on a drama to tell the story of Fort Saint Louis, they showed more evidence of empathy. This collaborative activity served as a focal point for the story of the lives of the Talon children. Activities and ideas from the narrative

component of our sessions led to the production of the script. The students were instructed to review the events of the French colony as a prelude to the creation of the script. I transcribed the questions that they submitted for the review on the first day. We used them in subsequent lessons to facilitate the outline for the scrip.: Although we spent most of our time investigating the daily lives of the French children while they were at the fort and then later, while they were living with the Karankawa, we decided that our production would give an overview of the story of the expedition and settlement. The students engaged in a brainstorming activity to formulate the answers to these questions:

10. Who was La Salle?
11. How did he get the money for his expedition?
12. Why is Henri Joutel important?
13. How many ships left France? How many people?
14. What happened to the ships?
15. Where did La Salle want to go?
16. Why would he want to go there?
17. What happened to the settlers at Fort St. Louis? What happened to La Salle?
18. Who discovered the remains of the French settlers in 1689?
10. What is the significance of the burial that was given to the French colonists?
11. What are some of the differences between 1684 and 2002?
12. What happened to the Talon children?

The final draft of the script (Appendix M) focused mainly on the story of the French colony with only a cursory reference to the plight of the Talon children in the last act. However, students expressed the most interest during the meetings in the lives of the

four French children who lived with the Karankawa. First, they were impressed with the fact that the children even survived, then with the information from the Talon interrogations that indicated that the boys bore no ill will toward their captors (Weddle, 1997).

May 3, 2002- –May 17, 2002 Rehearsals for the Play:

Finally, we had consensus on the script and we began to iron out the details of the play: what props to make, how to make them, and decisions about the roles. The students made cannons out of cardboard and ships out of paper mache with an old white sheet for the sails. They created illustrated posters to introduce each act of the play. Costumes were created from items that pupils brought from home and from my own closet. Despite our intention to rehearse each time that we met, we were hindered by absences due to the students' commitments to other end-of-year activities at the school. Thus, it was difficult to have a cohesive rehearsal meeting. However, we persevered and were ready for the play when the time came.

May 21, 2002: Final Rehearsal for the Performance

Parents were invited to the final rehearsal. We needed feedback and extra sets of hands for the various situations that always accompany a dramatic production-- the sudden need for safety pins, a person besides myself to ask performers to speak louder, and suggestions for trimming down the script. Josh's mom, Sophie, was the most consistent helper in this regard. She and I had worked together as coaches for Odyssey of the Mind for our older children in previous years. The students responded well to her opinions and she was generous with her praise for the progress that we had made.

Finally, I felt that the project has met its goals: to learn about the history of Fort Saint Louis, to incorporate archeological lessons into a historical unit of study, to develop empathy with the children who lived with the Karankawa, and to have fun in the process of meeting numerous educational goals.

May 22, 2002: Performance in Cafeteria to Entire Student Body:

The students distributed playbills to all of the teachers and I posted them on all of the entrances to the building (Appendix N). Each of the parents also received a copy for their records. The play was scheduled for Wednesday, May 22, 2002 at 1:30 pm. All of the students from the school were scheduled to attend as well as the parents of the performers. Sophie met with me to help the students get organized before the play and we reviewed the basic order of scenes together. Finally, the play began! We went through each of the scenes with a minimum of difficulties and Sophie photographed the entire performance.

Appendix N
Historical Thinking Skills
From the *National Standards for History*, (Nash, 1996)

- I. Chronological Thinking
 - a. Distinguish between past, present and future time
 - b. Identify the temporal structure of a historical narrative:
beginning, middle, and end
 - c. Establish temporal order in constructing their own historical narratives
 - d. Measure and calculate calendar time
 - e. Interpret data presented in time lines and create timelines
 - f. Reconstruct patterns of historical succession and duration
 - g. Compare alternative models of periodization
- II. Historical Comprehension
 - a. Identify the author or source of a historical document
 - b. Reconstruct the literal meaning of a historical passage
 - c. Identify the central questions
 - d. Differentiate between historical facts and interpretations
 - e. Read historical narratives imaginatively
 - f. Appreciate historical perspectives
 - g. Draw upon data in historical maps
 - h. Utilize visual, mathematical, and quantitative data
 - i. Draw upon visual, literary, and musical sources
- III. Historical Interpretation
 - a. Compare and contrast differing sets of ideas

- b. Consider multiple perspectives
- c. Analyze cause and effect relationships
- d. Draw comparisons across eras and regions
- e. Distinguish between unsupported opinions and informed hypotheses
- f. Compare competing historical narratives
- g. Challenge arguments of historical inevitability
- h. Hold interpretations of history as tentative
- i. Evaluate major debates among historians
- j. Hypothesize the influence of the past

IV. Historical Research

- a. Formulate historical records from documents and artifacts
- b. Obtain historical data from a variety of sources
- c. Interrogate historical data
- d. Identify the gaps in the records and marshal contextual perspective
- e. Employ quantitative analysis
- f. Support interpretations with historical evidence

V. Historical Analysis

- a. Identify issues and problems in the past
- b. Marshal evidence of antecedent circumstances
- c. Identify relevant historical antecedents
- d. Evaluate alternative courses of action
- e. Formulate a position or course of action on an issue
- f. Evaluate the implementation of a decision

Appendix O

Woods History Club Calendar of Events Spring 2002

Tues	1/8	Introduction to project, slide show, and individual interviews (pretests)
Fri	1/11	Documentary: “ <i>The Shipwreck of La Belle</i> ,” do interviews, KWL chart
Tues	1/15	Chronology: Timeline of La Salle expedition and students’ self timelines
Fri	1/18	Navigational tools: Maps, the Global Positioning System and astrolabes
Tues	1/22	Primary sources: The Journal of Henri Joutel
Fri	1/25	Artifacts: Clues to Our Past: definition, ethics and basic classification
Tues	1/29	Artifacts—personal: museum in a shoebox
Fri	2/1	Artifacts--Identify the Culture: French, Spanish or Native American?
Tues	2/5	Archeological tools and task: Preservation: the reconstruction of clay pots
Fri	2/8	Review of Fort Saint Louis: Primary Source Bingo
Tues	2/12	Review of Karankawa facts: Begin reading <i>Indian Captive</i> by Lois Lenski
Fri	2/15	Chapters Three and Four: <i>Indian Captive</i> --Discussion
Tues	2/19	Chapters Five and Six: <i>Indian Captive</i> --Students make rope
Fri	2/22	Chapters Seven and Eight: Students make dream catchers as seen in text
Tues	2/26	Chapters Nine and Ten: Students make corn husk dolls
Fri	3/1	Chapters Eleven and Twelve: Discussion
Tues	3/5	Chapters Thirteen and Fourteen: Students throw atlatl
Fri	3/8	Chapters Fifteen and Sixteen: Discuss the end of <i>Indian Captive</i>

Spring Break

- Tues 3/19 Excerpts from *Boy Captive*: Discussion
- Fri 3/22 Excerpts from *Boy Captive*: Discussion
- Tues 3/26 Excerpts from *Captured by the Indians* and *Women's Indian Captivity Narratives*: Discussion
- Fri 3/29 Students make coil pots
- Tues 4/2 Visit to the Texas State Historical Museum
- Fri 4/5 Students begin to write script for the play
- Tues 4/9 Script
- Tues 4/16 Script
- Fri 4/19 Script
- Tues 4/23 Script
- Fri 4/26 Students begin rehearsals
- Tues 4/30 Rehearsal and costumes (and exit interviews)
- Fri 5/3 Rehearsal and costumes (exit interviews)
- Tues 5/7 Rehearsal and costumes
- Fri 5/10 Rehearsal and costumes
- Tues 5/14 Rehearsal
- Fri 5/17 Rehearsal
- Tues 5/21 Rehearsal
- Wed 5/22 Play: "The Lost Colony of La Salle"

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Vita

Pamela Vivien Loomis Geneser was born in Houston, Texas on August 17, 1954, the sixth of nine children of Pamela Woods Loomis and Raymond Clemons Loomis. After graduating from Clear Creek High School in League City, Texas in 1973, she accepted a scholarship to Stephen F. Austin State University in Nacogdoches, Texas. In 1975 she transferred to the University of Texas At Austin so that she could study Anthropology. She completed the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the Social Sciences and an Elementary Education certification in 1979. She returned to the Graduate School at the University of Texas At Austin in the fall of 1997 and received the degree of Master of Arts in May 1999. Her teaching experience began in 1973 with Project Head Start and has been continuous since that time with positions at Kirby Hall School, Lee Elementary, Mathews Elementary, Pease Elementary and Geneser School. Teaching awards include nomination for AISD Student Teacher of the Year, 1980, Mathews Elementary Teacher of the Year, 1984 and a City of Austin Award for Excellence in Child Care, 1992. She entered the PhD. program at the University of Texas in the summer of 1999.

Vivien was married to John Myles Geneser from February 14, 1978 until his death on March 6, 1998. John died of cancer. She is the mother of Allison Lunneen Geneser (born August 21, 1986), Benjamin Wilson Geneser (born May 29, 1991) and Elizabeth Sivyer Geneser (stillborn July 20, 1989).

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