THE CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT IN ELEMENTARY
CLASSROOMS: EXAMINING TEACHER PRACTICES AND BELIEFS

by

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative, collective case study investigated Alabama fourth-grade teachers’ practices and beliefs associated with teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. The problem guiding this work was the absence of comprehensively investigated current practices occurring within social studies instruction in elementary classrooms. The purpose was to add to available empirical studies related to teaching the movement in Kindergarten-6 education in light of the major deficit existing in this area of research. The research questions investigated teachers’ described and demonstrated instructional practices, their rationale for using those instructional practices, and beliefs about their instructional practices. The research methodology used a constructivist grounded theory approach to analyze data from lesson plans, interviews, and observations while applying within-case and across-case analysis. Findings of this case study of three, fourth-grade teachers described instructional practices of overreliance on a central text, teaching language arts skills in social studies, facilitating class discussions, and presenting information through outside resources. Insufficient time for teaching social studies and perceived student deficits were teachers’ rationales for their instructional practices. Difficulty was noted in teachers’ abilities to describe central beliefs guiding their specific instructional practices. Teachers’ demonstrated practices differed from described practices and primarily involved teacher-centered instruction. Recommendations for future research related to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 social studies could include work with varied participant populations, experimental research involving student-entered and culturally responsive pedagogy, and studies using methodologies centered in Critical Race Theory.
DEDICATION

For Drew. My greatest joy is that we get to spend this life together. Your irrepressible humor, unflappable belief, and unwavering commitment have made it all possible. Your reassurance nudged me forward and provided me with strength every day. I am blessed, lucky, and grateful to be married to someone whom I not only love so very deeply, but whom I also like so very much.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Despite public and media attention, the US Civil Rights Movement is largely absent in the American public school curriculum though standards mandate its teaching (Teaching the Civil Rights Movement, 2011). This deficit in curriculum and instruction related to the US Civil Rights Movement is documented in the 2010 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) US History exam. NAEP results demonstrate that 2% of 12,000 students who took the test were able to produce a complete response concerning basic and general knowledge about the Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka Kansas decision (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011), thus signifying 98% of students could not. Though research acknowledges the absence of, and inadequacies within, teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in US public schools, there is little related empirical data regarding this topic in Kindergarten-6 social studies.

The intention of this study, therefore, was to investigate, document, and describe the instructional practices and supporting rationale and beliefs fourth-grade in-service teachers implemented to teach the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies classrooms.

In a study by the Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) (2011), all 50 US states and the District of Columbia were graded based on the inclusion of US Civil Rights Movement curriculum within each state’s instructional standards. Only three states received an A for the requirement of specific standards addressing the US Civil Rights Movement; Alabama, Florida, and New York. These three states, however, merely achieved partial mastery in covering a
percentage of the overall recommended US Civil Rights Movement content: Alabama with 70%, Florida with 64%, and New York with 65%. Because of the staggering indication American states are ignoring the US Civil Rights Movement in teaching American history, the SPLC claims the results, “describe a nation that is failing in its responsibility to educate its citizens to be agents of change” and “the state of education about the civil rights movement is, in a word, dismal” (p. 7).

A more recent study by the SPLC (2014) expounds upon the 2011 study by “look[ing] beyond what states required, to include resources and materials they offered teachers” (p. 8). The current study finds the curriculum resources and materials in place (e.g., lesson plans, primary documents, resource banks) referencing the US Civil Rights Movement in many states are far less than satisfactory. The tools used to evaluate the states’ standards and resources in the study centered analysis on key areas of: content, sequence, depth, connections, comprehensiveness, promotion of historical thinking, and access and presentation. Specifically these findings report:

- Twenty states received grades of F (39%)
- Fourteen states earned grades of D (27%)
- Six states earned grades of C (12%)
- Eight states earned grades of B (16%)
- Three states earned grades of A (6%)

The 2014 SPLC report documents that though some states like North Carolina and Oklahoma have improved since the 2011 report with the addition and inclusion of more state standards that emphasize Civil Rights curriculum, the overall “state of education about the Civil Rights Movement remains woefully inadequate” (p. 9).
Alabama dropped from its initial score of an A (SPLC, 2011) to its current score of a B (SPLC, 2014) in the most recent report. Alabama fourth-grade teachers are explicitly required to teach curriculum pertaining to the Civil Rights Movement in United States history. The curriculum standards concerning the US Civil Rights Movement outlined in the Alabama Course of Study (Alabama Department of Education, 2010) for fourth-grade social studies are as follows:

10.) Analyze social and educational changes during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries for their impact on Alabama.

Examples:

social- implementation of the *Plessey versus Ferguson* "separate but not equal" court decision, birth of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)

educational- establishment of normal schools and land-grant colleges such as Huntsville Normal School (Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical [A&M] University), Agricultural and Mechanical College of Alabama (Auburn University), Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute (Tuskegee University), Lincoln Normal School (Alabama State University)

• Explaining the development and changing role of industry, trade, and agriculture in Alabama during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, including the rise of Populism

• Explaining the Jim Crow laws

• Identifying Alabamians who made contributions in the fields of science, education, the
arts, politics, and business during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

(p. 31)

14.) Analyze the modern Civil Rights Movement to determine the social, political, and economic impact on Alabama.

• Recognizing important persons of the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Martin Luther King, Jr., George C. Wallace, Rosa Parks, Fred Shuttlesworth, John Lewis; Malcolm X, Thurgood Marshall, Hugo Black, and Ralph David Abernathy

• Describing events of the modern Civil Rights Movement, including the Montgomery Bus Boycott, the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church bombing in Birmingham, the Freedom Riders bus bombing, and the Selma-to-Montgomery March

• Explaining benefits of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and Brown versus Board of Education Supreme Court case of 1954

• Using vocabulary associated with the modern Civil Rights Movement, Including discrimination, prejudice, segregation, integration, suffrage, and rights.

(p. 32)

Though these state curriculum requirements exist for Alabama’s fourth-grade teachers, evidence suggests teachers may not be teaching the standards or teaching them sufficiently (SPLC, 2011, 2014).

Because most children generally have very limited background knowledge of the US Civil Rights Movement when they enter classrooms (Schulten, 2012), teachers need to build conceptual understanding of the events and actions taken within the movement. It is also necessary to teach the US Civil Rights Movement in a way that is relevant to the lives of all students, though this is seldom occurring (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Epstein, 2009; Loewen,
Former Assistant Secretary for civil rights in the United States Department of Agriculture, Vernon Parker (2014) states, “This generation has not been taught about the struggles of past generations who fought to overcome discrimination. The further away we get from . . . the civil-rights movement, the more responsibility we have to teach future generations . . .” (para. 4).

**Rationale for Teaching the US Civil Rights Movement**

Citizenship education and social justice education are two crucial components of social studies education for Kindergarten-6 students (National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), 2010) that can be approached through the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. Key elements of these two areas of social studies education and their connection to the US Civil Rights Movement will be presented in the following sections.

**Citizenship Education**

The noted civil rights historian, Taylor Branch, states, “If you’re trying to teach people to be citizens, teach them about the civil rights movement” (as cited in the Southern Poverty Law Center, 2011, September, Findings section, para. 4). The very nature of social studies education in our elementary schools requires students to investigate and inquire about historical events, people, and places while making connections to themselves and the ways these historical happenings affect their daily living (NCSS, 2010). Teaching students to be politically attentive, active, and socially-conscious citizens is clearly a goal of any powerful social studies classroom (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Lucey & Meyer, 2013; Sanchez, 2010). Using the US Civil Rights Movement as an opportunity to teach and model how an engaged and collective citizenry work together for a common goal is a tangible example of social action for students. Concrete models from the Civil Rights Movement can be both inspiring and motivating for students who may not
find other relevant examples in earlier United States history (Damon, 2012). Damon suggests the US Civil Rights Movement serves as an illustration of the fundamental values of American democracy at work. Studying the movement gives students germane and evocative examples to connect with present social and political realities.

When teaching citizenship and the patriotic ideals, educators must avoid indoctrination and blind patriotism (Epstein, 2009; Loewen, 2007). Studying conflict and controversy in history is a valuable and effective experience for students (Loewen, 2007; Richardson, 2006; Waters & Russell, 2013) as this reflects a reality of their world ultimately affecting them in their role as citizens in a democratic country. It is essential for educators to encourage students to evaluate, question, and recognize both positive and negative occurrences in American history from multiple perspectives (Ohn, 2010). In teaching the ideals of American citizenship, Diane Ravitch (2006) states students should be taught about the many people “of all races and backgrounds who struggled to create a land of freedom, justice, and opportunity [and that] students must learn, too, about the failings of our democracy, about the denials of freedom and justice that blight our history” (p. 581). Also, Rahima Wade (2004) explains “the vitality of our democracy depends on its citizens' willingness to go beyond facts and service to examine current social problems, evaluate how they have developed over time, and consider new directions in creating a better society” (p. 64).

Social Justice Education

Social justice education can be implemented in many subjects within the Kindergarten-6 curriculum. Curriculum areas integrating social justice include mathematics (Moses & Cobb, 2001; Moses, Kamii, Swap, & Howard, 1989), literacy (Creighton, 1997; Cunningham & Enriquez, 2013; Duffy, 2008; McCall, 2004; Moller, 2012) and the arts (Garber, 2010; Lucey &
Laney, 2009) among others. Social studies is undoubtedly an appropriate place to include social justice education. According to Ladson-Billings (2003a) social studies is the “curricular home” for studies of racism, national and cultural norms that support(ed) structural racism, and historical patterns that emerge from race relations. The teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement is explicitly tied to social justice education and therefore, into social studies education as well. Social justice education involves teaching that illuminates, examines, and works to eliminate disparities in the treatment of people based on their gender, race, sexuality, and class (Zhada, Majhanovich, & Rust, 2006). By teaching the movement, educators support tenets of social justice education through examining actions of a citizenship leading to legal changes and altering social and cultural norms.

Meaningful and appropriate social justice instructional practices in elementary education social studies should occur (Barbre, 2012; McCall, 2004; Wade, 2001, 2003, 2007) particularly in the area of Kindergarten-6 grade history surrounding the topic of the US Civil Rights Movement. By examining historical events and perspectives critically with elementary students, teachers guide students and facilitate lessons around the subjects of power disparities. Teachers then may aim to connect these historical understandings to current political and social realities for their students to investigate. The necessity of linking past social movements to students’ conceptions of social justice is expressed by Loder-Jackson (2011) when she emphasizes “the important role educators play in establishing the intellectual foundation for social movements and enacting policies and practices to transform the social order of schools” (p. 166). Having students participate in inquiry-based examination of perspectives on race and other social issues related to the US Civil Rights Movement promotes a social justice philosophy of education within the elementary classroom (Miel & Gester, 1967). The relationship between social justice
education and the US Civil Rights Movement occurs because, in the study of freedom struggles, race must simultaneously be connected and examined. According to Sensoy and DiAngelo (2012), “Race is a deeply complex socio-political system whose boundaries shift and adapt over time” (p. 96). It is, therefore, not possible to study the movement adequately without also interrogating race as a tenet of social justice education.

Studying the individual activists of the US Civil Rights Movement and their responses to oppression within cultural norms in history can support social justice education within elementary classrooms (Agarwal, 2011; Wade, 2007). The National Council for the Social Studies recommends students in Kindergarten-6 social studies classes should have the opportunity to “participate in learning experiences that involve core values of democracy, including freedom of speech and thought, equality of opportunity, justice, and diversity. This learning transcends the simplistic ‘character virtues’ approach to values education in elementary schools” (2009, Value-based section, para. 1). In using the US Civil Rights Movement as an exploration of these ideas suggested by NCSS, social justice education can be realized through inquiry-based, constructive, and collaborative efforts on this topic in the Kindergarten-6 classroom. The rationale for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 education, therefore, is centered within social justice education dually reinforced through citizenship education.

**Inadequacies in Teaching the US Civil Rights Movement**

Three primary inadequacies in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement have been identified. Teachers are using a decontextualized framework (Zarnowski, 2010) for the US Civil Rights Movement, they are teaching it primarily from a top-down, “master” narrative (Frost, 2012), and they are restricting examples of activism to well-known African American males
Decontextualized Timeframe

In examining how the US Civil Rights Movement can be taught in elementary schools, we must first look at the period generally known as the Civil Rights Movement. According to Alridge (2002),

Textbooks typically begin the movement in 1954 and 1955 with the *Brown v. Board* decision and the Montgomery Bus Boycott, and end in 1968 with the assassination of King. By periodizing the movement based on King’s participation, the CRM is presented as a relatively brief and self-contained phenomenon. (p. 6)

The timeframe from 1954 to 1968 that is generally taught refers to the “classical phase” (Rustin, 1971, p. 111) of the Civil Rights Movement and can be restrictive in the scope of actions and events related to equality struggles in United States history. When educators limit their teaching to the era between 1954 and 1968 as the one period of unrest related to civil rights, previous efforts of African Americans are disregarded. Concentrating on this restricted period ignores the many prior events that provided the impetus for significant changes that began to occur with the mass movement of the period (Frost, 2012). According to Khalil Gibran Muhammad, Director of the Schomburg Center for Research in Black Culture, (as cited in Bella, 2013),

We have lifted the struggle of the movement out of its historical context and we placed it in a greeting card. It is this idea that we can celebrate annually Dr. King and Rosa Parks and Black History Month as a kind of performance where the nation pats itself on the
back for having overcome this terrible past. But in fact, the terrible past is not just a distant memory to most, but also an abstraction. (para. 10)

In only looking at the decades of the 1950s and 1960s, the link is not made to the civil rights struggles occurring pre- and post-classical period. According to Erekson (2013), “…historians have labored to uncover many more participants in the civil rights movement and have pushed the timeline in the 1950s and 1960s backward to find [it] beginning in the 1930s and 1940s” (p. 41). The problem with teaching the movement as occurring in one era is explained by Hall (2005) as, “…confining the civil rights struggle to the South, to bowdlerized heroes, to a single halcyon decade, and to limited, noneconomic objectives, [results in] the master narrative simultaneously elevat[ing] and diminish[ing] the movement” (p. 1234). Rather than focusing simply on the decades of the 1950s and the 1960s, Zarnowski (2010) suggests educators adjust the realm of contextualization of the movement and teach about the patterns and themes emerging prior to the movement by teaching what she calls a “counter-history” (p. 37) to the traditional view of the US Civil Rights Movement. Historians also support reframing the classical phase of the US Civil Rights Movement to a broader and more complete conceptualization of a “long civil rights movement” (Hall, p. 1235; see also Fraser & Gerstle, 1989; Gaines, 2002; Gosse, 2002; Kruse & Tuck, 2012).

It is equally imperative for teachers to instruct about other movements for social justice occurring prior to and after the classical Civil Rights Era of the 1950s and 1960s. The US Civil Rights Movement was a stimulus for many other movements of change in the country (McAdam, 1995). The Women’s Movement, the Chicano Movement, anti-Vietnam activism, Gay Rights activism, and demonstrations by the economically disadvantaged are all significantly related to
social justice issues and collective social action before, during, and after the classical phase of the US Civil Rights Movement (Bailey & Farber, 2006; Isaac, 2008).

**Top-Down Narrative**

There is evidence many elementary teachers are not getting beyond simplistic understandings of recognized icons (e.g., Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King, Jr.) during instruction about the US Civil Rights Movement. According to Maureen Costello, Director of SPLC’s Teaching Tolerance Project, “For too many students, their civil rights education boils down to two people and four words: Rosa Parks, Dr. King and ‘I have a dream,’” (SPLC, September 28, 2011, para. 4). Keith Barton and Linda Levstik (2004) indicate that the overemphasis and redundancy in teaching elementary students merely about Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks lessens the importance of the active citizenry and collective efforts of individuals associated with the movement. The SPLC (2011) states, “The King- and Parks-centered narrative limits what we teach students about the range of possible political action. Students deserve to learn that individuals, acting collectively, can move powerful institutions to change” (p. 11). Further, centering instruction on the US Civil Rights Movement to a narrow list of well-known leaders may frame the movement in a superficial context involving simply annual holidays and isolated studies in Black History Month.

The problem with repeatedly teaching lessons about US Civil Rights Movement labors being chiefly led by big groups and larger-than-life Civil Rights leaders is it ignores the critical contributions of individual citizens; African American and otherwise (Frost, 2012; Slate, 2011). There were many individuals prior to the decades of the 1950s and 1960s who “had been circulating petitions, bringing court cases, and organizing and agitating against slavery and
oppression since before the American Revolution. Efforts against segregation began in the 1880s, but did not have much of an impact until the late 1930s” (Ruffins, 1997, p. 25).

**Patriarchal and Other Limited Views of Activists**

Another inadequacy that occurs in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to Kindergarten-6 students is the limited view of activists that is frequently portrayed to students. In many cases, teachers may present the US Civil Rights Movement as led by a select few African American males, mostly ministers and primarily from the South, who have been traditionally and historically acknowledged for their contributions, particularly in textbooks (Barnett, 1993). Though there were several well-known male African American leaders who certainly necessitate discussion in the context of the US Civil Rights Movement, there are also other activists who are not often unrepresented (Moore, 2013). These activists include women and children (Huntley & McKerley, 2009), as well as non-Southern participants.

Women and their activism have been highly documented (S. K. Baker, 2011; Feldman, 1999; Gyant, 1996; Robnett, 1997), yet they are often left out of the top-down narrative that includes a patriarchal bias in the heroification of African American males (Moore, 2013). Reubin Turner (2012) writes, “Many are familiar with names like Rosa Parks and Coretta Scott King, women who advocated for social change. The amount of praise, however, given to the women does not match the amount of effort put into the movement by these silent warriors” (para. 3). African American female educators had a profound influence on the movement as they emphasized social activism and racial pride with their students (Loder-Jackson, 2012). African American women like Elaine Brown were even placed in leadership roles in the Black Panther Party. Brown (1992) recalls that it was difficult to maintain leadership in a male-dominated movement, yet she eventually chaired the Black Panther Party after years of activism.
Children were also integral activists within the US Civil Rights Movement that are frequently overlooked in the teaching of the movement (Levine, 1993). Phillip Hoose (2009) wrote a children’s book about Claudette Colvin, one of the first to protest segregation on the buses in Montgomery at just the age of fifteen and later served as one of the plaintiffs in the \textit{Browder v. Gayle} case. Colvin’s active participation as a youth in the movement is often disregarded in the retelling of the bus boycott spearheaded and initiated by Rosa Parks alone. In a study by Christensen, Kirkland & Noblitt (2007), the researchers found that by introducing third grade students to children activists like Sheyanne Webb-Christburg and Rachel West in their studies using children’s literature and movies aided the elementary students in building a sense of moral consciousness about justice as related to citizenship.

Activists from outside the South or who were not African American males are often omitted in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, despite the fact that activists represented both genders and many races, religions, and geographic regions (Davis, 2001). During the “classical phase” (Rustin, 1971) of the US Civil Rights Movement, those activists from anywhere other than the South were highly noticed and often derogatorily referred to as outside agitators, while other activists played instrumental parts in areas beyond the once-Confederate states. In the teaching of the movement in social studies, however, teachers may inadvertently perpetuate the myth that all activists’ efforts occurred in the South or that all activists were African American and from the South. Charles Eagles (2000) documents the life and story of Jon Daniels, a white Episcopal seminary student from New Hampshire, killed in Lowndes County, Alabama helping to organize African Americans in Selma prior to the march. Patrick Jones (2012) recalls the actions of activists in Milwaukee including a major march led by Father James Groppi, a white male, and the NAACP Youth Council to protest unequal housing.
According to Levenstein (2012), in Philadelphia in the 1950s and 1960s, “women lobbied state authorities to secure public assistance, protection from domestic violence, child support, housing, and high-quality health care. The cumulative weight of their pursuit of assistance from the state brought new resources and constraints into black communities” (p. 32). These are but a few examples of the documented activism by non-Southerners of the many historians have recorded and that are readily available, yet it is unlikely these activists are generally taught in most Kindergarten-6 classrooms.

**Reasons for Inadequacies in Teaching the US Civil Rights Movement**

There are several possible reasons that could account for the absence of the US Civil Rights Movement in the elementary curriculum and for the inadequacies documented in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 classrooms. The first reason is the marginalization of social studies education in American classrooms (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006). Second is elementary teachers’ frequent lack of basic historical content knowledge (Dunn, 2005). The third and fourth reasons involve hindering the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement by protectionist (Farley, 2009) or nationalist beliefs teachers may hold (Epstein, 2009) about their social studies teaching. The fifth reason for the absence of the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary curriculum is that teachers are often uncomfortable with topics involving race (Chandler, 2009) and may not support the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. The following sections examine each of these five areas and their effects on the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 classrooms.
Marginalization of Social Studies

The marginalization of social studies in Kindergarten-6 classrooms is a well-documented issue drastically effecting social studies instruction (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006; Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010; McGuire, 2007; McMurrer, 2008; O’Connor, Heafner, & Groce, 2007; Rock et al., 2006). With constricted schedules allowing little time for the teaching of social studies in elementary schools, many elements of elementary social studies education are marginalized in favor of highly tested subjects like mathematics and literacy (Agarwal, 2011; Wills, 2007). Teachers may eliminate social studies curriculum and devote their teaching time to other core areas deemed more important by administration or state and federal testing guidelines or for reasons associated with classroom and grade level contexts (Anderson, 2014; Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014). As teachers lessen their instructional time in social studies, the subject of the US Civil Rights Movement subsequently is marginalized in elementary classrooms and often even left out of the elementary social studies curriculum (SPLC, 2011).

Lack of Content Knowledge

Teachers’ and students’ lack of knowledge about the US Civil Rights Movement is pervasive and astounding (Bond, 2011). In commenting on this gap, Dunn (2005) states,

For all the purported attention at the elementary and secondary school levels, students and their teachers appear to know very little if anything beyond the names Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks. Student ignorance is bad enough, but the lack of knowledge among teachers is more disturbing. (p. 455)

Elementary teachers do not specialize in history because certification in elementary education usually requires them to be generalists in all areas taught, rather than content specialists as is mandatory in most secondary education programs. Elementary teachers may have significant
content knowledge gaps that can impose difficulties in adequately teaching elementary students about important historical events (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Gillaspie & Davis, 1998; Goodman & Adler, 1985; Waring & Torrez, 2010; Yeager & Davis, 1994) like the US Civil Rights Movement. Elementary teachers might not be able to guide their students to make historical connections between present-day social issues and past events of the movement if they themselves have inadequate historical content knowledge (Journell, 2013).

**Protectionism**

Many American teachers approach social studies in ways that “sterilize history” (Puk, 1994, p. 231). Teachers often also hold a protectionist view of teaching (Farley, 2009; Loewen, 2007), rather than teaching from the standpoint of liberationism (Sturm, 1998). Sturm defines the differences between the two views stating, “Where the protectionist sees childhood as a time for total dependency, the liberationist argues that childhood is a time for autonomy” (p. 58). From a liberationist standpoint, students must explore history in developmentally appropriate ways supporting the full disclosure of historically accurate information. A teacher approaching instruction from beliefs of protectionism serves as a “gatekeeper” in the classroom, considering content and discerning what access students should have to knowledge (Thornton, 1991). Educators who approach the US Civil Rights Movement from a protectionist viewpoint may eliminate key areas of activism, rather than allow students to have full access to historically relevant information and materials.

**Nationalism**

Educators teaching from a nationalist point of view could choose to avoid topics placing the United States as a whole, or the government as an American entity, in a bad light. Rather than discuss the implications of decisions made in agreement or in disagreement with the
populace, teachers may evade discussion and simply hold on to beliefs supportive of a nationalist viewpoint that, “makes them feel good” (James, 2008, p. 196). In teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, one encounters historical events and actions involving conflicting viewpoints that should be addressed (Lucey & Laney, 2009; Tatum, 1999). Instead of encouraging inquiry and critical examination of various perspectives teachers may align their beliefs with the nationalist view their textbooks reinforce (Epstein, 2009; Loewen, 2007). Epstein explains that in, “teaching a disingenuous national history [consequently] millions of young people leave the public schools knowing a nationalistic perspective but not believing it, while those who accept it have no framework for understanding racism and other forms of inequality today” (p. 9).

It is possible teachers who continually reinforce overt nationalism may weaken their students’ conceptualization and contextualization of the US Civil Rights Movement. Further, nationalistic teaching may hinder critical opportunities for “dialogue, fellowship, and solidarity [that] are essential to human liberation and transformation” (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005, p. 42). If educators do not engage all students in these endeavors while simultaneously teaching students to unfailingly support every governmental or political practice in history, then how does this aid students? Looking at the US Civil Rights Movement from the top-down narrative (Frost, 2012) taught to reinforce a nationalist and patriotic version of a few events and few leaders fails to teach students historically accurate information (Loewen, 2007). The individual stories of the grassroots movement and the everyday actions of average citizens are a testament to the spirit of democracy and are often left out of the traditional narrative associated with the US Civil Rights Movement (Etienne, 2013). These are the very stories that should be told when teaching students about social justice, collective action, and emphasizing the equal rights of all people.
Teacher Discomfort with Topics Involving Race

Studies indicate white teachers often avoid the topic of race, are afraid to teach about it, and in doing so avoid topics in history intimately associated with race and race relations (Almarza & Fehn, 1998; Ladson-Billings, 2003b). Chandler and McKnight (2011) point out race within the social studies curriculum is “conspicuous in its absence in our formal and enacted curricula” (p. 217). A study by Chandler (2009) of two white male social studies teachers shows that though the teachers reported beliefs in social justice philosophy in many of their statements, in their classrooms there was an overall fear of teaching about race. In a study by Diane Hess (2002) with middle and high school students and teachers surrounding controversial public issues and the usage of them in discussions in the classroom, she finds “fear of community reprisal” led to the absence of rarity of classroom discussions involving social justice topics (p. 14). This fear of approaching discussions of race can deeply impact powerful teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, as history cannot be taught adequately without examining race relations for its historical context and connection to the present (Epstein, 2009).

Statement of the Problem

The Southern Poverty Law Center (2011, 2014) reports elementary school teachers may not be teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. There is further evidence that even when they are teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, they do so inadequately by relying on a decontextualized timeframe (Zarnowski, 2010) a top-down narrative (Frost, 2012), and a limited set of historical icons, most of whom are African American males (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Hall, 2005). Research also supports that citizenship education and social justice education are integral parts of elementary social studies curriculum (NCSS, 2010), and connections can be made between these areas and the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. Additionally,
there are data suggesting explanations for why teachers may not be teaching the US Civil Rights Movement including:

1. marginalization of social studies education in American classrooms (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006),

2. teacher deficits in historical content knowledge (Bond, 2011),

3. teachers’ protectionist (Farley, 2009) and nationalist beliefs (Epstein, 2009), and

4. teachers’ discomfort with topics involving race (Chandler, 2009).

Despite the aforementioned work, a large gap exists in the literature examining both elementary teachers’ beliefs about their own instructional practices regarding the US Civil Rights Movement and how they are implementing actual instructional practices in real elementary classrooms. The SPLC (2014) reiterates the existence of the gap in addressing that although there is now research examining standards in place concerning the US Civil Rights Movement “and the resources that states offer, it still leaves us to guess at how the civil rights movement is taught” (p. 13). Studies must examine what elementary teachers believe about their role as teachers of the US Civil Rights Movement. Further, how and why teachers implement or do not implement these beliefs into their teaching, mandated by state-curriculum guidelines, requires examination. Finally, it is essential to document practices present in actual classrooms where teachers should be incorporating elementary social studies standards involving the US Civil Rights Movement per their state standards.

The current literature related to the US Civil Rights Movement largely derives from (a) historical scholars (Bailey & Farber, 2006; Davis, 2001; Dunn, 2005; Frost, 2012; Hall, 2005; Lawson, 1991, 2003) (b) scholarly opinion pieces (Bond, 2011; Parker, 2014) (c) supplementary practical works (Lucey & Laney, 2009; Palmer & Burroughs, 2002; Pierce-Thomas, 2007; Stone,
2006; Zarnowski, 2010) and (d) sociologists’ analyses of teaching history (Isaac, 2008; Loewen, 2007; Robnett, 1997). Though these sources are useful, they have not comprehensively investigated current practices occurring within social studies instruction in elementary classrooms. The problem of this study, therefore, was the degree to which the US Civil Rights Movement is taught in Kindergarten-6 grade classrooms and the inadequacies of how it is taught when it is present in the curriculum.

**Purpose**

The primary objectives of this study were to describe the beliefs expressed by fourth-grade public elementary school teachers and the observed practices they incorporated when teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement. This research examined and documented examples of fourth-grade teachers’ beliefs that they articulated about their instructional practices related to the state-mandated instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement. Further, this study documented in-service elementary teachers’ instructional practices in fourth-grade social studies classrooms related to the state standards emphasizing US Civil Rights Movement content. By conducting a study based on the aforementioned objectives, the purpose of this work was to further add to the available empirical studies related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary classrooms in light of the major deficit existing in this area of research.

**Significance**

Locating robust empirical studies related to the problem of this study was difficult because of the current reported lack of emphasis on social studies education (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006), teacher deficits in content knowledge (Bond, 2011), teachers’ protectionist (Farley, 2009) and nationalist views on teaching (Epstein, 2009), and teachers’ comfort levels with discussions on race (Chandler, 2009). Thus, the results of this study may “raise new
possibilities, open up new questions, and stimulate new dialogue” (Creswell, 2013, p. 248) in the area of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to fourth-grade students. The significance, therefore, of this study was that it would add to the empirical data available on elementary teachers’ beliefs and practices in regard to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in state-mandated social studies curriculum to Kindergarten-6 students.

**Research Questions**

1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?

2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?

**Overview of Research Design**

The goal of this qualitative case study was to obtain information about fourth-grade teachers' beliefs about their practices and their actual practices when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Data was collected using the following methods: (1) pre-study individual semi-structured teacher interviews, (2) document analysis of lesson plans (3) CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews (4) classroom lesson observations, (4) post-interviews, and (5) informal and unstructured interviews. The information obtained was intended to provide understanding of instructional practices of teachers in elementary social studies classrooms and their relation or non-relation to their beliefs about what they are teaching and why they are
teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in American history. This study examined what rationale elementary teachers expressed about their instructional practices and the state-mandated teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. Further, this study investigated how these teacher beliefs were put into practice with instruction aimed at the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. Finally, this study documented demonstrated practices present in actual classrooms involving the teaching of elementary social studies standards relating to the US Civil Rights Movement per their state standards.

The case study design was chosen for its use in “identifying a problem in our field” and “designing a study in terms of particular times, spaces, and participants” (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). Yin (2009) proposes, “The case study strategy may be used to enlighten those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes” (p. 20). The usage of case study allowed for the emergence of data over time and for other methods of analysis to be employed such as a constructivist grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006) with coding, recoding, and final categorization of themes from observational field notes, interview data, and document analysis of lesson plan data.

**Definitions of Terms**

*Constructivist Philosophy* - a theory of learning in which students build knowledge through individual and cooperative experiences typified by the implementation of learning opportunities that are student-directed and student-centered (Chaille, 2008).
Constructivist Practices - teachers’ application of constructivist philosophy in teaching practices involving emphases on (1) creating meaningful contexts in which students can learn, (2) learner control and active learning, (3) presentation of information in varying ways, (4) problem-solving skills, and (5) relevant and meaningful assessment where learners are able to transfer knowledge to differing contexts (Ertmer & Newby, 2013)

Deep South -

The southernmost tier of states in the South: South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Before the Civil War, these states were centers of cotton production and slavery. All of them seceded from the United States before the firing on Fort Sumter. They are sometimes distinguished from the states of the Upper South (Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas), which contained proportionately fewer slaves prior to the Civil War and which seceded only after the firing on Fort Sumter. (Hirsch, Kett, & Trefil, 2002, p. 414)

Elementary Classrooms - Classrooms consisting of students in grades Kindergarten through sixth grade

Facilitating Discussions – an instructional practice by which teachers provide learning opportunities as they help students “construct meaning and transform experiences into knowledge through conversations” (Kolb, Baker, & Jensen, 2002, p. 51)

Higher-level Questioning - the elicitation of responses from students “requiring complex application (e.g., analysis, synthesis, and evaluation skills)” (Bo-Linn, 2006, p. 2) in order to for them to answer the queries
Historical Thinking - cognition of historical analysis around inquiry, empathy, and interpretation of secondary and primary sources (Pellegrino, 2013)

Inquiry-based Teaching - “The inquiry-based instructional approach adopts a bottom-up process that aims to have students construct their own understanding of a piece of knowledge” (Ku, Ho, Hau, & Lai, 2014, p. 253). Inquiry-based instructional practices actively and deeply engage students in the learning process as they develop knowledge based on investigation of evidence independently and collaboratively with their teacher and peers (Wiersma, 2008).

Lower-level Questioning – questioning involving the elicitation of student responses “at the knowledge, comprehension, and simple application level” (Bo-Linn, 2006, p. 2)

Questioning - process of teachers “asking, raising, and framing” (Shams-un-Nisa & Khan, 2012, p. 474) deliberate questions to elicit specific responses from students

Race - a social construct associating ethnicity and skin color directly to “social, economic, and political hierarchy” (Orelus, 2013, p. 578)

Role-play - “…dramatic activities in which character information and a scenario are provided to students. Some device is used so that the sequence of the drama is controlled, more or less, by the teacher” (Russell, Waters, & Turner, 2013, p. 178).

Simulation - “…structured decision-making activities in which students assume roles and then solve problems...The problem scenario, itself, which serves as the beginning point, may be based on some very real current or historical situation or on hypothetical one.” (Russell, Waters, & Turner, 2013, p. 186).

Social Justice Education - teaching directly related to the enlightening about and the elimination of disparities in the treatment of people based on their gender, race, sexuality, or class (Zhada, Majhanovich, & Rust, 2006)
Teacher Beliefs - conceptions teachers hold to be true that may determine the actions they take in their classrooms including decision-making and implementation of strategies for teaching and learning (Mahlios, Massengill-Shaw, & Barry, 2010)

Teacher-centered Practices –

Instructional practices involving a high degree of teacher direction and a focus of students on academic tasks…[that] vividly contrast with student-centered or constructivist approaches in establishing a leadership role for the teacher. Teacher presentation, demonstration, drill and practice, posing of numerous factual questions, and immediate feedback and correction are all key elements (Schug, 2003, p. 94).

Teacher (Instructional) Practices - the strategies and teaching methods demonstrated in action within in-service teachers’ classrooms

Teachers’ Personal Experiences - teachers’ own life experiences and former school experiences that can impact their teaching. “An individual's school experiences influence beliefs about teaching and learning in a school context” (Löfström & Poom-Valickis, 2013, p. 106).

Traditional Teaching - teacher-centered instruction placing students in a primarily passive role (Bolinger & Warren, 2007) typically involving tasks promoting rote memorization, rather than supporting critical thinking (Lucey, Shifflet, & Weilbacher, 2014). Traditional instructional practices involve, “…homework assigned from a textbook, review of assignments in class, extensive teacher talk (lecturing, clarifying, and explaining), recitation, and seatwork, interspersed with occasional use of audiovisual aids and field trips” (Cuban, 1991, p. 203).
US Civil Rights Movement - a period of social action sometimes typified from the 1950s to 1960s where equal citizenship under the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments for African Americans was demanded by citizens through grassroots efforts in the United States. The period has a long trajectory and relation to prior and subsequent actions is necessary for its historical understanding and context.

Assumptions

Because I am the primary and sole researcher of this study, my own individual understandings and socio-political, socio-economic and socio-cultural backgrounds have all undoubtedly influenced the work described here. In establishing this project, I was deliberately and inadvertently guided by particular assumptions. For the purposes of this research, assumptions are defined by Paul Leedy and Jeanne Ormrod (2010) as being “so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist” (p. 62). Because of the transparency required in true qualitative research (Moravcsik, 2014) it is imperative to disclose those assumptions here. It is first assumed that the research methods used in this study were adequate and helpful in investigating the research questions. It was further assumed that fourth-grade public school teachers would participate in the study. My other personal assumptions were as follows:

1. Teaching and learning about the US Civil Rights Movement are necessary and essential components of elementary social studies education.

2. Issues about race can be controversial or uncomfortable for teachers to teach (Almarza & Fehn, 1998; Chandler, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2003a, 2003b).

3. Teaching beliefs impact classroom practices.

4. Teachers’ personal experiences influence their teaching beliefs and practices.
5. There are sometimes differences in the beliefs teachers say they hold and what they implement in the classrooms.

6. Teachers are teaching content required of them by state standards.

7. Elementary teachers are teaching social studies in their fourth-grade classrooms.

8. Fourth-grade Alabama teachers are required to teach Alabama history and therefore, are teaching the US Civil Rights Movement (Alabama Department of Education, 2010).

9. Areas where race relations are openly volatile may create classroom environments where teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement is affected.

**Limitations**

Elementary teachers were observed twice in their classrooms. Because of the length of the study, more observations for each teacher were not possible. This served as a limitation in providing for a large set of observations to be compared using within-case analysis and across-case analysis.

Further, the period of study did not coincide with the teachers’ claimed times of teaching the movement in their academic calendars. This was a limitation in terms of seeing teachers’ use of instructional practices related to *Studies Weekly*, their described central instructional text, as the issue related to the movement was unavailable. *Studies Weekly* is a consumable text that has issues used weekly by the teachers and students and that functions with the same purpose as a classroom textbook. Though received weekly, the periodical does not include current events. Because the issues they obtained during the research period did not include content related to standards of the US Civil Rights Movement, the teachers in this case study were unable to use this text. These teachers described many of their central instructional practices as using the periodical for assigning readings, assigning activities and tests, and integrating language arts
skills within their social studies classes. Because the teachers were unable to use this resource, their demonstrated practices may not be wholly reflective of the social studies teaching that normally takes place within their classrooms.

**Organization of the Study**

This dissertation consists of three chapters. Chapter I provides background information on teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in US public schools, inadequacies in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, support for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, and reasons for inadequacies in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary classrooms. Additionally, Chapter I includes a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, key research questions, an overview of the research design, assumptions and limitations, and definitions of terms used in this study. Chapter II provides a review of relevant literature related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, the correlation to citizenship education and social justice education and the US Civil Rights Movement, and meaningful and powerful teaching beliefs and practices in social studies education related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 classrooms. Chapter III explains the research methodology that guided this study, including the research design and analysis methods used. Chapter IV includes the results of all the data collected throughout the three cases from lesson plans, interviews (pre- post-, pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR, informal and unstructured), and observations. These results include descriptions of the teacher backgrounds, classroom dynamics, lesson plans, and lesson observations. Further, a within-case analysis is included examining all of the themes that emerged for each case separated by research questions and sub-questions. Chapter V discusses the across-case analysis and in this final chapter conclusions, theoretical implications, and recommendations for future action and future research are given.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction and Overview of the Literature Review

Few existing studies provide empirical data from in-service teachers on the instructional practices they use when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary schools. Further, there is little research available regarding elementary teachers’ rationale for, or beliefs about, using specific instructional practices related to teaching the movement to elementary students. This study contributes to the literature regarding fourth-grade teachers’ instructional practices related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. This investigation was driven by two overarching research questions. The first overarching question was, “How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Two sub-questions were used to further clarify the first question. They were, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?” and “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?” The second overarching research question was, “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?”

This review of literature begins broadly with discussions of constructivism and historical thinking as a framework for teaching social studies in powerful and meaningful ways to elementary students. Research on historical thinking is included next as a vital part of students’ construction of the reasoning skills needed to understand and interpret history. The literature
then focuses on social studies education in elementary schools, including primary goals for students and ways that it shapes the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement as a pertinent topic in Kindergarten-6 education. Citizenship education, as a key objective of social studies education, is explored for how it frames the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. Justice-oriented citizenship education, or social justice education, is specifically examined as it is supported through historic analysis of beliefs, events, and actions of significant social movements like the US Civil Rights Movement. The review further narrows to include a review of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in understanding how teachers’ skills and knowledge affect instruction in the elementary social studies classroom and, in turn, how teachers teach the topic of the US Civil Rights Movement.

Several effective instructional practices document appropriate pedagogy for elementary social studies classrooms, as this research studied instructional practices involving the US Civil Rights Movement in fourth-grade social studies classes. Because this study included the examination of fourth-grade teachers’ beliefs regarding instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement, teacher beliefs applicable to social studies and to the movement are documented. Barriers encountered by teachers within elementary social studies curriculum and instruction are also included. This literature review targets ways the US Civil Rights Movement is defined and how those definitions impact social studies instruction. Precise requirements of mandates, or lack thereof, in social studies education for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement are specifically detailed. Finally, the present state of instruction involving the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education is established, along with known inadequacies
related to its teaching in elementary social studies education. In conclusion, a summary of the
literature review is given and gaps in the available literature and their bearing on this research are
stated.

**Theoretical Rationale**

**Overview of the Theory of Constructivism**

Constructivism has long been established as a particularly powerful philosophy of how
students learn. Its implications for teaching can be especially beneficial in social studies
instruction (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Schmidt, 2011; Sunal & Haas, 2011; Wiersma, 2008).
Constructivism differs from both behaviorism and cognitivism as constructivists’ perspective is,
“Humans create meaning as opposed to acquiring it” (Ertmer & Newby, 2013, p. 55). The
central point of constructivism when applied to instruction is to engage students in creation,
development, and acquisition of new knowledge through a method of construction that is
dynamic and active (Good & Brophy, 2008). Constructivist philosophy is typified by the
implementation of learning opportunities that are student-directed and student-centered (Chaille,
2008).

Because “constructivism is a theory of learning and not a theory of teaching”
(Richardson, 2003, p. 1629), the implications for classroom instructional practices are vast and
varied. Peggy Ertmer and Timothy Newby (2013) describe specific philosophies of
constructivism related to instructional design. In applying a constructivist philosophy to practice
with students, there must be:

- An emphasis on the identification of the context in which the skills will be learned
  and subsequently applied [anchoring learning in meaningful contexts].

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• An emphasis on learner control and the capability of the learner to manipulate information [actively using what is learned].

• The need for information to be presented in a variety of different ways [revisiting content at different times, in rearranged contexts, for different purposes, and from different conceptual perspectives].

• Supporting the use of problem solving skills that allow learners to go “beyond the information given” [developing pattern-recognition skills, presenting alternative ways of representing problems].

• Assessment focused on transfer of knowledge and skills [presenting new problems and situations that differ from the conditions of the initial instruction].

(p. 58).

The application of constructivism is seen in research on effective teaching techniques. Students who are actively engaged in learning while cooperatively participating with peers to develop meaning are more likely to retain knowledge, understand concepts more fully, and have autonomy within the process as opposed to students who are passively receiving knowledge from a teacher (Marlowe & Page, 2005). The theory of constructivism developed around two concepts, cognitive constructivism and social constructivism. Explanations of both are offered in the following paragraphs.

**Cognitive constructivism.** Cognitive constructivism refers to the theory that knowledge is constructed by the individual through a singular and personal construction (Powell & Kalina, 2009). The initial theory of cognitive constructivism has roots in the work of John Dewey (1916, 1938) and his premise that knowledge is constructed through experiential learning by the individual. Studies conducted by Jean Piaget (1947/1972) with inquiries into learning and
human behavior overlapped with Dewey’s work and broadened it through specific attention to cognitive studies, processes, and psychological development theories. Piaget’s (1932, 1936/1952) theories of cognitive construction are primarily concerned with understanding how learners acquire knowledge through building upon other constructions of knowledge within and throughout particular stages of development. Piaget (1947/1972) began his work in the area of cognitive constructivism with human behavior and continued with attention to cognitive development. In 1952, Piaget’s translated text offered his theory of cognitive development reporting that humans do not passively receive information and instantly comprehend and use for our own purposes; instead, humans must construct our own knowledge. Piaget (1958) further explored the ways in which assimilation and accommodation are beneficial processes learners move through in a constructive and active way to pass from concrete to formal operational thinking. Piaget later (1970, 1977) attended to the mechanisms of understanding that serve as the psychosomatic foundation for constructivism (Fosnot & Perry, 2005).

Because of the nature of cognitive constructivism, there is an innate link with developmentally appropriate practice (Piaget, 1936/1952). Piaget asserted learning could only occur active, whole, relevant, and real opportunities for cognition. According to Nelson (2000), “Unlike traditional practice, developmentally appropriate practice has positive effects on children's social and emotional development. Children in developmentally appropriate programs are more confident about their skills and motivated to learn than children in traditional programs” (p. 95). Piaget (1936/1952) believed that motivation for learning is largely constructed socially, occurs both extrinsically and intrinsically, and is influenced by context and environment. Piaget wrote, “The subject exists because, to put it very briefly, the being of
structures consists in their coming to be, that is, their being ‘under construction,’…There is no structure apart from construction” (Piaget, 1970, p. 140).

**Social constructivism.** “Socioconstructivism is a student-centered learning theory grounded in subjective epistemology that acknowledges social interactions as a key to the construction of knowledge within cultural settings, then internalized by individuals resulting in learner growth” (Sullivan, 2011, p. 25). Lev Vygotsky (1978) continued Piaget’s efforts aimed at explaining how learners acquire knowledge. Vygotsky’s social constructivism emphasizes cognition, but expands Piaget’s theories to include the interactions between learners and their environment with interest in resulting effects on cognition. Vygotsky stated, “Learning is more than the acquisition of the ability to think; it is the acquisition of many specialized abilities for thinking about a variety of things” (p. 81). Learning opportunities based on social constructivist philosophy are often characterized by social activities and inquiry-based opportunities for learning. Differing from Piaget, Vygotsky described two stages of cognitive development. These two stages include the actual level students are able to cognitively process individually and potential abilities possible with the assistance of peers and educators. This potential ability is referred to as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

“Social constructivism is a highly effective method of teaching that all students can benefit from since collaboration and social interaction are incorporated” (Powell & Kalina, 2009, p. 243). Teaching practices based in a philosophy of social constructivism involve problem-solving, higher levels of sophisticated thinking, and often involve students working collectively toward a common goal. As students work together toward mastery of collaborative projects, students begin to internalize their own understanding at individual rates based on their collaborative experiences (Powell & Kalina, 2009). Thus, the core of the responsibility for
learning is placed on autonomous students while the teacher serves as a guide and facilitator toward students’ understanding of subject matter as students construct knowledge with peers in a supportive environment.

**Defining Historical Thinking**

Historical thinking refers to cognition of historical analysis around inquiry, empathy, and interpretation of secondary and primary sources (Pellegrino, 2013). Teachers who intend to build historical thinking with their students must employ viable and effective means of teaching students history that specifically involves analysis and interpretation of historical evidence (Barton, 2012). Researchers contend developing historical thinking with students contextualizes history, aids in recognition of multiple perspectives, and allows more active and meaningful engagement in the teaching and learning of history (Barton, 2012; Drake & Brown, 2003; Lévesque, 2008; VanSledright, 2011; Wineburg, 2001, 2010). Lisa Hutton and Diane Hembacher (2012) explain,

> When students “do history” they move beyond reading a single account of what happened in the past from a textbook and they begin to investigate the past by asking questions, reading primary and secondary sources, and using the same “tools” as historians do to think deeply about history. (p. 30)

In their work, Keith Barton and Linda Levstik (2004) discuss the varied uses of empathy within the context of teaching using historical thinking and how it can be a useful tool in combination with perspective recognition. Not only does use of empathy foster students’ interests in forming connections with subject matter, it provides a reflective process for connections to be made with present events in a way learning history without care could not
employ. Samuel Wineburg (2001) explains that in implementing teaching that promotes historical thinking in classrooms,

Students need to be taught to ‘think like historians’ not because they will become professional historians but precisely because most won't. The goals of school history are not vocational but to prepare students to tolerate complexity, to adapt to new situations, and to resist the first answer that comes to mind. (p. 4)

**Development of Historical Thinking**

Learning history through memorization of dates, events, and people is typical in many social studies classrooms (Fertig, 2005). In 1976, the National Science Foundation (NSF) conducted a national study reviewed by James Shaver, O.L. Davis, and Elizabeth Helburn (1980) who found social studies education in the US heavily involved rote memorization, teacher directed lectures, recitation of answers, and content-centered instruction with little emphasis on inquiry-based instruction. Mugheer Al Khali (2008) explains his view that not much has changed in social studies education since the Shaver et al. review. He states, “Students are viewed as empty vessels that we must fill with content knowledge. We then expect them to memorize all they’ve learnt and write it down in exams” (cover page). This traditional method of teaching history does not incorporate analysis, inquiry, and reasoning required to foster historical thinking with students (Wineburg, 2001). The common practices of “lecture, note-taking, and test-taking, that are synonymous with traditional social studies and history teaching” (Waring & Robinson, 2010, p. 27) fail to teach students how to think conscientiously, analyze context, and recognize multiple views. In contrast, historical thinking incorporates higher-order processes like inferring, examining, and evaluating historical resources and constructing and considering historical narratives (Waring & Robinson, 2010).
Development of historical thinking is supported through authentic, constructivist practices in the social studies classroom by teachers who provide time for collaboration, inquiry, and analysis of historical events, decisions, and perceptions (Foster & Padgett, 1999; Maxim, 2006; Sunal & Haas, 2011). In developing historical thinking with students, social studies teachers must “promote inquiry-based instructional practices that shift student ‘habits of mind’ to authentic and discipline-based forms of historical thinking and understanding” (Keirn & Luhr, 2012, p. 493). The National Council for History Education (NCHE) (2013) specifies ten fundamental goals of historical thinking authored as *History’s Habits of Mind*:

- Grasp the significance of the past in shaping the present
- Perceive past events and issues as they might have been experienced by the people of the time, with historical empathy rather than present-mindedness
- Read critically, to discern differences between evidence and assertion and to frame useful and appropriate questions about the past
- Interrogate texts and artifacts, posing questions about the past that foster informed discussion, reasoned debate and evidence-based interpretation
- Recognize that history is an evolving narrative constructed from available sources, cogent inferences and changing interpretations
- Appreciate the diversity of cultures and variety of historical contexts, as well as to distinguish elements of our shared humanity
- Understand the impact made by individuals, groups and institutions at local, national and global levels both in effecting change and in ensuring continuity
• Realize that all individuals are decision makers, but that personal and public choices are often restricted by time, place and circumstance

• Negotiate a complex, often uncertain and ambiguous world, equipped with the appreciation for multiple perspectives

• Engage in patient reflection and constant reexamination of the past and present.

  (History’s Habits of Mind section, para. 1)

Teaching that promotes historical thinking involves “active investigative curriculum” (Burenheide, 2007, p. 57) where students have freedom to observe, source, make inferences, cite evidence, question, and corroborate (Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg, 2000). Students learn to think as historians do in environments where they may collaborate with their teacher and students in evaluating, discriminating, and analyzing historical “facts.”

**Implications of Constructivism and Historical Thinking on Instruction in Kindergarten-6**

Constructivist principles can and should be integrated into the Kindergarten-6 social studies curriculum to foster historical thinking. In many classrooms, however, constructivist principles are not utilized in the teaching of social studies, where memorization of dates and facts has become synonymous with the subject area (Sunal & Haas, 2011; Viator, 2012). Using rote learning methods for social studies teaching provides less student interaction, content interrogation, and cooperative learning which are all crucial parts of constructivist teaching. Kincheloe states a "nonconceptual, technical view of social studies teaching" is rampant and prevalent in United States social studies practices (2001, p. 19). The content of social studies curricula most often mirrors traditional values not aligned with our own thoughts and those of our students, but nonetheless, traditional curricula weaves throughout our practice (Meuwissen, 2006). As elementary social studies teachers overuse transmission methods of teaching
involving lecture, rote memorization, and repetition, lessons are largely filled with teacher-talk while students sit inactively and listen. In contrast, the social studies curriculum with a basis in constructivist philosophy, “recognizes the child as an active constructor of his/her own meaning within a community of others who provide a forum for the social negotiation of shared meanings” (Blaik-Hourani, 2011, p. 239). The benefits of such teaching are important in social studies aimed at promoting historical thinking among students.

An elementary social studies teacher employing constructivist theory to teach historical thinking must be prepared to use formative means of assessment. Constructivism necessitates that the teacher understand each student’s background knowledge and intellectual growth occurring over time. Researchers Katherine Powell and Cody Kalina (2009) discuss the necessities of frequent checks on students’ progress when stating formative assessment is the “allowing of students to discover knowledge, including question and answer periods after significant topics, as well as having the teacher be able to assess where students are formally through testing and informally through discussion or dialoguing” (p. 248). Such attention to students’ conceptualization and understanding through informal and formal formative assessment are clear models of applying constructivist principles to the teaching of historical thinking with Kindergarten-6 students.

The construction of relationships is another key principle of constructivist thought and one with relevance for the teaching of Kindergarten-6 students. Rheta DeVries (2004) explains the importance of planning activities that not only require historical thinking, but also foster relationships among students when she states, “The child’s construction of relationships is fundamentally important to constructivist teachers because relationships constitute the intelligence and underlie the construction of knowledge” (p. 422-423). Allowing students to
construct historical knowledge while building peer relationships is central to the application of social constructivism and an area Kindergarten-6 teachers must prepare for in their planning of social studies lessons for young learners.

Summary of Theoretical Rationale and Implications for Research

Using a social constructivist philosophy to encourage historical thinking in Kindergarten-6 social studies can promote student learning by fostering peer collaboration and interactions with an informed educator serving as a guide and facilitator. Social studies classrooms promoting historical thinking through constructivist philosophy engage in what the US Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan (2010), calls for in his open letter to Congress asking for teachers to use practices involving “engaging and personalized learning experiences for learners of all ages” (p. v). Those teachers instructing Kindergarten-6 students in the area of social studies should encourage the consideration and respect of many outlooks, using communication skills, and the application of higher-order thinking skills (NCSS, 2010). In addressing all of these areas, constructivist practices effectively meet the needs of both students and teachers in adequately and appropriately incorporating historical thinking. Furthermore, they should be considered within the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in relation to citizenship education and social justice education.

Kindergarten-6 Social Studies Education

Defining and Describing Elementary Social Studies Education

Social studies education in the Kindergarten through sixth grade involves diverse content and, depending on local decisions, is often taught in multi-discipline classrooms (NCSS, 2010). Various definitions of social studies education exist as many scholars have debated a central and defining concept (Zarrillo, 2012). William Stanley and J. L. Nelson (1994) defined social studies
as “the study of all human enterprise over time and space” (p. 266). Social studies education in elementary schools is described by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) as,

…the integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provides coordinated systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and natural sciences. (2010, p. 3)

Jere Brophy, Janet Alleman, and Anna Lise Halvorsen (2012) defined social studies, “…as a school subject organized to support students’ progress toward social understanding and civic efficacy goals” (p. xiv).

Social studies education is explained by Noffke (2000) in a slightly different way as the “living part of communities and social movements” connected to citizenship and justice (p. 78). This definition of social studies links racial and economic justice historically, and connects history to current events and dynamic realities as “living.” This conception of social studies curricula is more inclusive of a diverse citizenship and its role in history and within the interconnected world we live in today. Noffke elaborates that social studies contains, “voices in our history which reflect the struggle for social justice in and through education, often focusing on citizens in the midst of social struggle” (p. 80). This aspect of social studies education is discussed in the following section.

Aims of Social Studies Education for Kindergarten-6 Students

Social studies education with Kindergarten-6 students recognizes the importance of teaching youth the fundamental practices of citizenship while exercising its processes and skills
in connection to historical realities and current events. Elementary social studies also equips students with the abilities, understanding, and outlooks required to fully participate as citizens (Marri, Michael-Luna, Cormier, & Keegan, 2014). In 1994, NCSS described “The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world” (p. 3). Later, in 2010, NCSS expanded on the mission of social studies as “…the promotion of civic competence—the knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions required of students to be active and engaged participants in public life” (p. 9). Social studies education with young students not only seeks to establish a basis for engaged citizenship, but also to aid students in seeing the world through varied points of view and “approach their world nonsimplistically and thoughtfully” (Mindes, 2005, p. 17). The foundations of social studies education in the Kindergarten-6 curriculum aid students in building greater conceptual understanding in secondary education as they encounter increasingly complex issues related to self and society.

**Summary of Elementary Social Studies Education and Implications for Research**

Social studies education in the elementary grades constructs foundational knowledge of civics, economics, geography, and history in elementary school and builds inquiry skills needed for secondary and post-secondary education, as well as within the workforce (NCSS, 2013). According to Wayne Ross (2006), “social studies in the broadest …sense, is the preparation of young people so that they possess the knowledge, skills, and values necessary for active participation in society” (p. 18). In looking at social studies education for Kindergarten-6 students with the purpose of preparing future citizens for participatory democracy, Ross suggests students must have access to accurate and multifaceted views of history including diverse efforts and social movements. Because of this need for exploration of social movements from varying
viewpoints in order to build understanding of social action with elementary students, research must examine how and what elementary social studies teachers are teaching students about the US Civil Rights Movement.

**Citizenship Education**

**Defining and Describing Citizenship Education**

Citizenship education has several objectives for Kindergarten-6 students of which one is fostering three elements of democracy as, “political literacy, active community involvement, and social and moral responsibility for the common good” (Sunal, Kelley, Minear, & Sunal, 2011, p. 192). Within citizenship education, an implicit goal is building the valuable skills students need to function as adults in a democratic society. The National Council for the Social Studies states a key objective of social studies educators is to “teach students the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy” (About NCSS section, n.d., para. 1).

According to Haas and Laughlin (1997), “The fundamental goals of most social studies programs are developing citizenship responsibilities and handing on the cultural heritage of a nation to the next generation” (p. 7). This aim of social studies with Kindergarten-6 students, however, may neglect to consider all students, their backgrounds, and the diverse cultural contexts in which students operate. Rather than concentrating on a singular cultural heritage it is important to reflect on the vast and diverse heritages that have contributed to democracy both historically and presently as teachers instruct about citizenship in elementary education. Though citizenship education is central to many teachers’ social studies instruction, the realm of citizenship education in terms of teaching for democracy has been highly debated for its political, social, and moral implications (Connolly, 1983). As Knight Abovitz and Harnish
(2006) explain, citizenship is not a “natural” idea but an invented concept that shifts with economic, political, and social changes” (p. 654) further complicating its use for framing social studies education with youth. Additionally, research shows teachers entering the field of education have limited conceptualizations of citizenship education, which can lead to superficial teaching of participatory citizenship in social studies education (Conover & Searing, 2000; Gallavan, 2008; O'Brien & Smith, 2011).

The seminal work of Joel Westheimer and Joseph Kahne (2004b) suggests that the notions about the types of citizens educators believe they are trying to build are particularly important when looking at the educational implications of teaching citizenship to US students and the practices used to teach them. These researchers distinguish among three separate outlooks on citizenship including personally responsible, participatory, and justice-oriented citizens that vary in their descriptions, actions, and core assumptions (see Tables 1, 2, and 3). Citizenship instruction can be geared to one of these areas or to two or three areas within citizenship education and how educators construct their understanding of citizenship in each way can directly influence pedagogy and educational policy.
Table 1

*Personally Responsible Citizen*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sample Action</th>
<th>Core Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acts responsibly in his/her community</td>
<td>Contributes food to a</td>
<td>To solve social problems and improve society, citizens must have good character; they must be honest, responsible, and law-abiding members of the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works and pays taxes</td>
<td>food drive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obeys laws</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycles, gives blood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers to lend a hand in times of crisis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Kinds of Citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004b, p. 240).
Table 2: Kinds of Citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004b, p. 240).

**Participatory Citizen**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sample Action</th>
<th>Core Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active member of community and/or improvement efforts</td>
<td>Helps to organize a food drive</td>
<td>To solve social problems and improve society citizens must actively participate and take leadership positions within established systems and community structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizes community efforts to care for those in need, promote economic development, or clean up environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knows how government agencies work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knows strategies for accomplishing collective tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Justice-Oriented Citizen

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sample Action</th>
<th>Core Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critically assesses social, political, and economic structures to see beyond surface causes</td>
<td>Explores why people are hungry and acts to solve root causes</td>
<td>To solve social problems and improve society, citizens must question, debate, and change established systems and structures that reproduce patterns of injustice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeks out and addresses areas of injustice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knows about democratic social movements and how to effect systemic change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Kinds of Citizens (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004b, p. 240).
Aims of personally responsible citizenship education for Kindergarten-6 students.

Teachers who intend to instruct students to become personally responsible citizens focus social studies instruction on character building and community service endeavors. Citizenship education through personal responsibility alone is heavily vested in a traditional conceptualization of citizenship education (Knight Abowitz, & Harnish, 2006). Personally responsible citizenship as citizenship education is defined by rule-following, law-abiding, productivity and economic contributions, some level of volunteerism, and individual morality (O'Brien & Smith, 2011). This type of citizenship education is the most common, yet least action and change oriented. Personally responsible citizenship is narrowest in its definition of citizenship as it concentrates on socialization and conformity rather than social change or cultural understanding (Castro, Field, Bauml, & Morowski, 2012).

Aims of participatory citizenship education for Kindergarten-6 students. Teaching citizenship education as participatory citizenship varies slightly from citizenship as personal responsibility. Participatory citizenship education includes service education, civic engagement through leadership and organizational roles, and active participation in the political and democratic processes (Parker, 2001, 2003; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004b). Participatory citizenship education requires elementary students to “learn to exert certain kind of values, attitudes and behaviours and learn how to engage actively in political and social life” (Guérin, van der Ploeg, & Sins, 2013). Such education is considered to be a “progressive” (Parker, 1996, p. 12) form of citizenship education as it seeks to move beyond an individual’s singular role in society to begin to impact the collective through leadership and service. This take on citizenship
emphasizes instructing learners in ways to become active participants within community and governmental groups for the betterment of all citizens (Marri, Michael-Luna, Cormier, & Keegan, 2014).

**Aims of justice-oriented citizenship education with Kindergarten-6 students.** The targets of justice-oriented citizenship education with Kindergarten-6 students are clearly different from both personally responsible citizenship and participatory citizenship. Justice-oriented citizenship education, or social justice education, is an attempt at integrating socially relevant and culturally relevant materials into teaching and learning where students interact with one another and ideas affecting the world around them with regard to equity and civil rights for all people (Agarwal, 2011; Wade, 2001, 2004). In essence, justice-oriented education with Kindergarten-6 students moves beyond the basic duties, facts, knowledge, and skills of democratic citizenship education. It extends past basic democratic education by encouraging reflection and examination of current societal issues, their historical connections, and the action of others in addressing these matters through active and powerful educational experiences. In the work of Zhada, Majhanovich, and Rust, the researchers state, “Most conceptions of social justice refer to and are based on the principles of equality and solidarity, that understand and value human rights, and that recognize the dignity of every human being” (2006, p. 10). It is with this conceptualization of social justice theory that social justice education has made its way into elementary education by teaching students in developmentally appropriate ways to support practices called for through justice-oriented citizenship education (Henning, 2013; Journell, 2013). A more thorough analysis of justice-oriented citizenship is given a following section entitled “Social Justice Education.”
Current Status of Citizenship Education in Kindergarten-6 Education

“Citizenship education has been viewed historically as one of the principal obligations of public schooling” (Sears & Hughes, 1996, p. 123). In elementary schools citizenship education is elemental for building democratic foundations, including attitudes and skills required for life in a participatory democracy (Samanci, 2010). Researchers find unequal access to citizenship and civil education opportunities as elementary students move into middle and high schools (Kahne & Middaugh, 2008; Kahne & Sporte, 2008; Marri, Michael-Luna, Cormier, & Keegan, 2014). Because of this problem in secondary education and the many ways citizenship can be defined, there is a crucial need for refining and revitalizing citizenship education in elementary education (Phillips, 2011; Samanci, 2010) and empirical research studies examining such teaching (Sunal, Kelley, Minear, & Sunal, 2011).

According to Jennifer Hayden-Benn, “Equality, agency, empowerment, democracy, and liberation are among the goals expressed by our education system. Closer examination reveals, though, that school culture and curricula often perpetuate the very injustices they are trying to fight” (2011, p. 50). The present status of citizenship in Kindergarten-6 education is largely limited in nature and typically falls within the frame of character education and service learning pedagogy. According to Westheimer (2008),

Currently, the vast majority of school programs that take the time to teach citizenship emphasize either good character - including the importance of volunteering and helping those in need - or technical knowledge of legislatures and how government works…Far less common are school programs that teach students to think about root causes of injustice or challenge existing social, economic, and political norms as a way to strengthen democracy. (p. 9)
Though individual and personal responsibilities in citizenship are important facets of the lives of children and adults, framing citizenship education in this superficial manner is limiting for students. Rahima Wade (2004) states,

> While knowledge about our democracy and meeting community needs are important aspects of effective citizenship, the vitality of our democracy depends on its citizens' willingness to go beyond facts and service to examine current social problems, evaluate how they have developed over time, and consider new directions in creating a better society. (p. 64)

The use of critical thinking skills to evaluate structural inequities, provide social critiques, and make radical and drastic social and structural changes (Freire, 1970/1990) can and must be explored through justice-oriented citizenship education in social studies education with Kindergarten-6 students. Though justice-oriented citizenship uses the highest level of analysis out of the citizenship education standpoints, “it is the perspective that is least commonly pursued” (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004b, p. 242).

**Summary of Citizenship Education and Implications for Research**

Researchers agree on the importance of citizenship education in Kindergarten-6 teaching, yet the perspectives used to teach citizenship education in elementary schools indicate “conflicting priorities” (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004a, p. 243). The implications of these perspectives could be highly indicative of the beliefs teachers hold and the practices they employ in teaching elementary education social studies. Because of the varied purposes and beliefs teachers hold about citizenship education, these core beliefs could impact the ways teachers instruct their students about the US Civil Rights Movement. Teachers’ specific beliefs of
citizenship education as being personally responsible, participatory, or justice-oriented could structure their instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement in differing ways with elementary students.

**Social Justice Education**

**Defining and Describing Social Justice Education**

Social justice education in elementary schools has become an ever-increasing area of concentration due to more inclusive globalization and international education efforts (Apple, 2011) prompting education policy to expand its gaze beyond the local and national levels. Social justice as addressed within society has implicit ties to economic, political, and cultural realities, which affect education systems, and specifically, instructional practices related to social justice education (Zhada, Majhanovich, & Rust, 2006). Social justice education, however, is particularly directed at how efforts toward societal justice occur through historical, cultural, political, and social ties. Social justice education additionally explores the ways in which students are themselves agents of change as they become educated about practices of injustice through related historical and contemporary issues (Wade, 2004). Social justice education has an emphasis on learning through experiential activities surrounding aspects of anti-oppression, anti-dominance, and justice for all through civic engagement in social action for social advocacy (Wade, 2003). Social justice education is “concerned with basic human rights that all people are entitled to regardless of conditions of economic disparity or of class, gender, race, ethnicity, citizenship, religion, age, sexual orientation, disability or health” (Zhada, Majhanovich, & Rust, 2006, p. 11) and the active advocacy for those rights for all people. Particularly important in the teaching of social justice education is the attention to global, national, and local social movements that can serve as models of active democratic citizenship and social action (Loder-
Jackson, 2011; NCSS, 2009). The US Civil Rights Movement can serve as an explicit and relatable model from history for elementary students as they work to understand intricate social issues of diversity, equality, and justice. Teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement also provides accessible ways for teachers to involve students in examining various views surrounding social and governmental issues. The US Civil Rights Movement additionally serves as an example of the denial of civil liberties for citizens, even in democratic nations, and encourages examination of the ways citizens protest to demand their liberties (Ravitch, 2006). Further, the US Civil Rights Movement gives students an opportunity to explore the agency involved in individual and collective social action for the common goal of equality for all citizens.

**Theories of Social Justice Education**

In the seminal work of Paulo Freire (1998), he states, as educators, “Our job is not exhausted in the teaching of mathematics, geography, syntax, [and] history. Our job implies that we teach these subjects with sobriety and competence, but it also requires our involvement in and dedication to overcoming social injustice” (p. 58). It is upon this thought that social justice education as a theory is instituted by teachers of elementary education across the nation and globe. With dedication to the acknowledgment of historical injustices and their repeated perpetuation among our students and their co-citizens, it is the intent of educators for social justice to provide instruction that confronts racism, sexism, economic disparity among social classes, injustice, and oppression in applicable, meaningful, and appropriate ways for students. Rahima Wade (2004) explains that social justice education should be embraced by elementary schools and their curricula. She also recommends students’ experiences should be authentic, relevant, include their own lived experiences, and encourage examination of their own thoughts
and those of others while implementing change for the greater social benefit. Ira Shor’s (1992) theories of social justice education align with those of Freire as they both intend to empower students and teachers. Shor explains empowerment education is a,

student-centered program for multicultural democracy in school and society. It approaches individual growth as an active, cooperative, and social process, because the self and society create each other. . . The goals of this pedagogy are to relate personal growth to public life, to develop strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power, inequality, and change. . . (p. 15)

In using the concepts of social justice such as equality, equity, and fairness; social justice education uses instructional practices to implement ideals for teaching in two ways. First, social justice education is used in reaching marginalized and underserved populations of students through meaningful and targeted instructional practices (Chubbuck & Zembylas, 2008; Gregson, 2013). Second, social justice education teaches students about a responsibility to the service of others in ensuring equality and justice in whatever forms they may take within society by being advocates for all global citizens (Wade, 2003; Hayden-Benn, 2011; Lucey & Laney; 2009).

The significance of social justice education has been growing as countries become more interconnected and various cultures are represented in larger areas throughout the world, thereby influencing educational norms (Apple, 2000, 2011; Gough, 2000; Tarc, 2012). This interconnection and sharing of cultures is attributed, in part, to globalization. Globalization has resulted in shared cultures, economic interdependency, and denationalization (Tarc, 2012). Social justice education has been increasingly enacted in various countries in response to globalization efforts. Michael Apple (2011) explains, “The United States and a number of other nations are engaged in a vast experiment that has rarely been attempted before. Can we build a
nation and a culture from resources and people from all over the world?” (p. 222). It is the response to this question that leads schools to intensify efforts to make students’ of diverse backgrounds needs and voices heard, rather than to marginalize their cultures. With the diversification of student populations also comes an increased requisite for recognizing and empowering students of all backgrounds. Elizabeth Garber (2010) expounds on the empowerment of students by discussing how first, students must appreciate their own identity and community and then, they may move toward a multicultural view and an ability to recognize patterns of injustice that have reoccurred over time and throughout history.

Experiences within schools can inhibit or empower students based on their attempts to stifle or promote the teaching of social justice education. It is through this understanding of various attempts that have occurred in integrating social justice education that we can begin to form best practices in the field of social justice education. Further, these examples can inform elementary teachers of effective teaching methods in an overwhelmingly globalized world. “Teaching for social justice is teaching for the sake of arousing the kinds of vivid, reflective, experiential responses that might move students to come together in serious efforts to understand what social justice means and what it might demand” (Greene, 1998, p. xxx).

**Aims of Social Justice Education**

The aims of social justice education are discussed by Katy Swalwell, “The desired outcomes of this approach are that students will be aware of injustices, feel a sense of agency to address those injustices and, ultimately, choose to act by participating in social movements and organizing around these issues” (2013, p. 2). Major intentions of social justice education are explicitly stated by the Teachers for Social Justice of Chicago (TSJ-Chicago) as follows:
Curriculum and classroom practices should be:

1. Grounded in the lives of our students,
2. Critical,
3. Multicultural, anti-racist, pro-justice,
4. Participatory, experiential,
5. Hopeful, joyful, kind, visionary,
6. Activist,
7. Academically rigorous, and

Rahima Wade (2004) speaks to similar objectives of social justice education in her eight points outlining particular areas that should be addressed in social justice education as:

1. Student-centered,
2. Collaborative,
3. Experiential,
4. Intellectual,
5. Analytical,
6. Multicultural,
7. Value-based, and
8. Activist in nature.

Social justice education is concerned with the past and its effects on the present, as well as the processes that continue to allow oppression to exist and the collective action that can occur to force or encourage justice for all people. In looking at the many areas research suggests are
central to teaching social justice education in elementary schools, they all show a direct
collection with social constructivism. The linkage is clear through social justice’s tenets of
students’ understanding about their world, differing cultural dynamics, and social and political
power alongside constructivist principles of active, engaged, critical thinking and the
collaborative creation of knowledge.

**Social Justice Education in Kindergarten-6 Social Studies Education**

Research demonstrates social justice education in the area of social studies and history
with Kindergarten-6 students has great implications on students’ autonomy, attention, interest,
self-concepts, motivation, and engagement (McCall, 2004; Mitra & Serriere, 2012; Wade, 2001,
2004, 2007). Social justice throughout elementary education also involves higher-level cognitive
skills, active and authentic engagement with current events, and the advocacy for social change
by students and their collaboration with peers and adults. One way in which social justice in
elementary schools can be achieved is through meaningful and appropriate social justice
instructional practices in elementary education social studies (Barbre, 2012; McCall, 2004;
Wade, 2001, 2003, 2007) particularly in the area of Kindergarten-6 history. When elementary
students are actively engaged in historical inquiry and in relating historical actions to current
issues of social justice, then students are central to decision-making and change-making
dynamics of citizenship. By allowing and encouraging students to participate in powerful and
meaningful social justice education through the teaching of Kindergarten-6 history, social justice
education can be enacted with real and tangible change at the elementary level.

**Integrating Social Justice Education in Kindergarten-6 Curriculum and Instruction**

With the recent implementation of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (National
Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers,
2010) for reading and mathematics, the use of social justice education has been explored in various subjects for its benefits for students’ learning. This integration of social justice education in many subject areas has occurred through a focus on teaching processing and reasoning skills that the CCSS require along with the added incentives of relevancy and experiential learning that are fundamental instructional concepts used in social justice education. These areas all intersect in meeting many of the goals of the Common Core State Standards. In a study by Cunningham and Enriquez (2013) of first, second, and third grade teachers in four schools were observed for their use of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and the teaching of social justice education through picture books. These researchers identified the ways in which the teachers in the study were not adding onto their current curriculum but were, in fact, modifying their teaching to incorporate their beliefs of social justice education. The researchers concluded teachers could emphasize the standards within the CCSS and at the same time promote a more socially aware classroom while not having to sacrifice objectives to do so (Cunningham & Enriquez). These teachers were adjusting their teaching by meeting both the tenets of social justice education while simultaneously teaching the curriculum mandated by CCSS.

Integrating social justice education with social studies curriculum is especially appropriate as social studies often involves inquiry into civilizations’, establishments’, and individuals’ responses to domination and oppression within cultural norms in history (Agarwal, 2011; Wade, 2007). The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) has a commitment to the teaching of social justice as evidenced through its insertion in many of the national social studies standards (NCSS, 2010). Regarding social justice education and its importance, NCSS includes in its position statement a commitment to powerful and purposeful elementary social
studies stating students “need to participate in learning experiences that involve core values of democracy, including freedom of speech and thought, equality of opportunity, justice, and diversity. This learning transcends the simplistic ‘character virtues’ approach to values education in elementary schools” (NCSS, 2009, Value-based section, para.1). Because of the open nature of both the CCSS and the NCSS standards, there is a place for social justice educational philosophy in the teaching of elementary education curriculum, and undoubtedly within the teaching of elementary social studies standards for teachers who embrace and promote this type of teaching in their elementary classrooms.

Due to the existing interrelation of various content in the Kindergarten-6 social studies curriculum and mandates directed by the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), social studies integrates diverse content, skills, and knowledge through cross-discipline approaches. Judy Britt and Mandi Howe (2014) write, “The social studies experiences that many educators envision for elementary classrooms include teaching students to frame questions, read for information, and organize primary and secondary sources to share their knowledge with classmates” (p. 158). The Core State Standards for English Language Arts (CCSS-ELA) (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) now emphasize the integration of content area literacy skills and their instruction in elementary social studies curriculum. The National Council for the Social Studies (2013) has similarly recognized the relationship between the social studies and CCSS-ELA, with its authoring of the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework. The C-3 Framework notes the importance of inquiry in social studies and guides state departments and school systems in creating rigorous and appropriate standards for social studies while “fully incorporat[ing] and extend[ing] the expectations from the grades K-5 English Language Arts Standards…” (NCSS, p. 7).
With the advent of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in most US public schools, the integration of subject matter is increasingly important in order to meet all the key areas of the curriculum while fostering rigor and analytical skills in reading, writing, and history (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). The use of critical literacy integrated throughout the content areas, specifically in social studies allows teachers to incorporate reading skills, social justice principles, and social studies content knowledge and skills through primary sources and historical fiction. Children’s literature and historical fiction can help students experience the emotionality of social justice movements, recognize the difficult cultural and social realities of the time period of the movement, and to understand its impact on our culture today (Houser, 1999).

In a study by Jennings and O’Keefe (2002), parents were involved with their first and second grade children in a project on the US Civil Rights Movement related to literacy texts. The students wrote to their parents about their learning from texts related to the movement expressing their interests, telling them what they had learned, and asking questions. The researchers found “These conversations brought parents into the classroom discourse of inquiry and brought home important dialogue about justice, inequality, racism, and social action” (p. 413). In a study by Wilson and Wetzel (2005) with high school students in a world affairs class, students were involved in using historical fiction and writing activities to foster their understanding of the US Civil Rights Movement and to create a more personal connection with those directly involved in the movement at the time. These studies illustrate the intentions of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement using meaningful methods that impact students personally in ways relevant to their own experiences and connected to historical events.
Teaching Concepts Related to Social Justice

Two clear emphases in the literature on social justice education are on its value to students and the many forms it can take within schools. There are differences in how social justice education models are applied and for what purposes, but they all relate back to an increased need for social justice education and the ways it can be enacted with increasingly varying student populations. Fifth grade students in a study by Mitra and Serriere (2012) were able to determine their own goals with social justice efforts in advocacy measures for themselves and for their schoolmates in applying the ideals of civic efficacy in actions encouraged by a supportive faculty, staff, and administration. A report by Barbre (2012) indicates social justice can be integrated within history education if teachers realize the social capital being pushed within their resources, address this with their students, and adjust teaching methods accordingly. A Canadian elementary teacher showed the practical benefits of group discussions, real-world applications, and students’ interests in social justice combined with an awareness of issues like the poverty gap, capitalism and labor issues, and racial equality (Hayden-Benn, 2011).

Throughout social justice education, there is an emphasis on concepts of equality and justice for all people. For teachers, there is also a clear link in the social justice literature to relevant and meaningful instruction coupled with active social learning. For students and teachers, emphasis on justice-oriented education can have an impact on powerful social change and advocacy through action.

Summary of Social Justice Education and Implications for Research

The teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement can be explicitly tied to social justice education within the realm of justice-oriented citizenship education. By teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement, educators support the principles of social justice education in
demonstrating how actual events from the ground-upward efforts of everyday citizens changed structural inequalities and societal norms. In examining historical events and standpoints critically with elementary students, the Kindergarten-6 social studies teacher can be responsible for guiding students and facilitating discussion around the subjects of power disparities, those thoughts that challenged or challenge the status quo, and showcasing any examples of unfair treatment based on qualities like race, gender, and class recognized in history or in current events. The research indicates having students participate in inquiry-based historical analysis and also the examination of historical perspectives and current issues related to the US Civil Rights Movement promotes a justice-oriented philosophy of citizenship education within the elementary classroom.

**Teacher Pedagogical Content Knowledge in Elementary Social Studies**

**Defining Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

Lee Shulman (1986) coined the phrase, “pedagogical content knowledge” (PCK) to define subject matter or content knowledge teachers possess intertwined with teachers’ curricular and pedagogical knowledge necessary to communicate with students so learning takes place. Pedagogical content knowledge is not something that can be taught by specific content strategies alone. It exists in individual teachers as they blend content and pedagogy, take into consideration diverse abilities and interests, and consider how best to organize and communicate instruction (Shulman, 1987). Shulman states,

Within the category of pedagogical content knowledge I include, for the most regularly taught topics in one’s subject area, the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations--in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it
comprehensible to others. Since there are no single most powerful forms of representation, the teacher must have at hand a veritable armamentarium of alternative forms of representation, some of which derive from research whereas others originate in the wisdom of practice. (1986, p. 9)

Examples of most PCK research are primarily in the field of science (Aydın, Demirdöğen, Muslu, & Hanuscin, 2013; Brown, Friedrichsen, & Abell, 2013; van Dijk, 2014; Hanuscin, 2013); however, its impact has also been extended into other subject areas like mathematics, reading, and history (Harris & Bain, 2011; McCray & Chen, 2012; Spear-Swerling & Cheesman, 2012; Westhoff & Polman, 2007).

Pedagogical content knowledge refers to the necessity of teachers to know both the content of the subject they are teaching and the proper approaches to represent and teach the content (Thornton, 2001). Rowen et al. (2001) explained pedagogical content knowledge as:

(a) knowledge of how to structure and represent academic content for direct teaching to students;

(b) knowledge of the common conceptions, misconceptions, and difficulties that students encounter when learning particular content; and

(c) knowledge of the specific teaching strategies that can be used to address students’ learning needs in particular classroom circumstances. (p. 2-3)

The concept of pedagogical content knowledge and its implications have bearing on the field of social studies education in Kindergarten-6 instruction (Silva & Mason, 2003) and will be discussed specifically in following sections for its impact through appropriate social studies instructional methods and by culturally responsive teaching.
Describing Impact of Pedagogical Content Knowledge on Kindergarten-6 Instruction

According to Wineburg and Wilson (1991), how a subject matter is taught is dependent upon the teacher’s personal conceptualizations and understandings of the particular subject matter, as well as an understanding as to how students are receiving the knowledge. Wayne Ross (2006) states, “The teacher is the most critical element in the improvement and transformation of the social studies curriculum” (p. 18). It appears teachers who have a deep understanding of content and appropriate ways to show that content to their students are likely to be more effective history teachers (Wilson, 1991).

There are fundamental problems for effective instruction by teachers who do not have strong pedagogical content knowledge. Without solid pedagogical content knowledge in elementary social studies, “…teachers often teach as they are taught” (Helterbran, 2008, p. 126). Teachers lacking pedagogical content knowledge may defer to instructional models from their own schooling, regardless of whether those instructional strategies are effective for students’ learning (Lortie, 1975). Teachers without robust pedagogical content knowledge may overuse memorization and regurgitation strategies that are commonplace in the social studies classroom (Kincheloe, 2001). Even teachers who are aware of constructivist philosophy may not be able to employ its goals without knowledge of appropriate pedagogical approaches for its use in the elementary social studies classroom. Mordechai Gordon (2009) states, “Besides the fact that many teachers who use constructivist teaching practices have not fully internalized the concepts of this theory, there is also the issue that constructivist teaching is much more complex and unpredictable than traditional teacher-directed instruction” (p. 43). Elizabeth Bleicher (2011) explains, “Seeking such active involvement from students, however, is not an activity for the faint of heart” (p. 50). This vigorous engagement in constructivist teaching requires planning,
preparation, and student input and autonomy in the classroom that all entail deep pedagogical content knowledge for application with elementary students.

**Instructional Methods in Social Studies Education**

Meaningful social studies instruction with Kindergarten-6 students must involve varied methods and means of instruction that engage students and require them to think analytically. To maximize historical inquiry and social studies instruction, elementary teachers can incorporate inquiry-based instruction (Foster & Padgett, 1999; Fragnoli, 2005), varied perspectives and points of view (Bergmann, 2000), primary resources (Barton, 2005a; Barton & Levstik, 2004), multiple and varied resources (Barton, 2005a; Lucey & Laney, 2009), and culturally responsive teaching (Gay, 2000; Harmon, 2012; Ladson-Billings, 1992). All of these areas are vital to adequately and effectively teaching social studies concepts and skills.

**Defining and Describing Inquiry-Based Instruction**

“The inquiry-based instructional approach adopts a bottom-up process that aims to have students construct their own understanding of a piece of knowledge” (Ku, Ho, Hau, & Lai, 2014, p. 253). Inquiry-based instruction is heavily rooted in constructivism as students conceptualize and reconceptualize knowledge while constructing it on their own and socially with peers. By using history as a means to support inquiry-based approaches, students are no longer memorizing key facts and definitions, but are engaging with content, asking questions, promoting discussion and putting themselves deeply inside the learning process (Wiersma, 2008). Inquiry in elementary social studies moves the emphasis from retelling and memorization, and the learning that takes place concerns interpretation of varied sources, the analysis of choices, and the empathetic conceptualization of different events.
The C-3 Framework developed by the National Council for the Social Studies (2013) demarcates an “Inquiry Arc” above all areas and concepts in social studies education. This Arc “focuses on the nature of inquiry in general and the pursuit of knowledge through questions in particular” (p. 12). The C-3 Framework further establishes four “Dimensions” of social studies education that clearly outline inquiry-based instruction by calling for teachers to involve students in:

1) Developing questions and planning inquiries,

2) Applying disciplinary tools and concepts,

3) Evaluating sources and using evidence, and

4) Communicating conclusions and taking informed action. (NCSS, p. 12)

Students who work within social studies classrooms based on constructivist investigation and inquiry-based opportunities benefit from the exposure and practice with concepts and themes, rather than a regurgitation of isolated facts (Sunal & Haas, 2011). Laura Westhoff and Joseph Pollman state, “…expert historical knowledge is more than a body of facts, and that the discipline of history involves higher order cognitive processes that lead to verification of historical facts and interpretations” (2007, p. 3). Historical inquiry involves more than just factual assertions, as it additionally necessitates an understanding of the warrants behind the factual claims (Seixas, 1999). This type of deeper conceptualization requires teachers to implement instruction through inquiry-based approaches in elementary social studies to foster historical thinking.

**Presenting Varied Perspectives (Multiperspectivity)**

Historical reporting is always accounted for from someone’s position or perspective and is never simply “the objective mirroring of a past reality” (Bergmann, 2000, p. 26). Therefore, in
the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with Kindergarten-6 students, teachers must ask and assist students to consider context and perspective through varied and diverse historical accounts. Considering various perspectives in history and looking at history from alternative viewpoints can be referred to as revisionist or non-traditional history, in contrast to classical or traditional historical approaches (Thompson & Austin, 2011).

In a report prepared for The Council of Europe, Robert Stradling (2003) discusses the way “multiperspectivity” can be used in the history classroom by teachers to initiate higher-level reasoning that emulates the ways historians work with historical events. Stradling further explains the idea of teaching multiperspectivity in the history classroom originated in western and northern Europe in the 1970s with a dissatisfaction with the traditional teaching of history that includes:

- knowledge transmission;
- the weighting of course content heavily in favour of political and constitutional history;
- a focus predominantly on events and personalities;
- the construction of the syllabus around a content-rich, chronological survey of national history;
- and the underlying assumption that the national historical narrative mainly coincided with the history of the largest national grouping and the dominant linguistic and cultural community. (2003, p. 9)

Multiperspectivity acknowledges that there are many perspectives that have been largely ignored in school-based history education. These include those viewpoints of racial minorities, women, children, and people from lower socio-economic classes. Multiperspectivity additionally
recognizes the specific need to prepare students for a multicultural world with differences in cultures, ethnicities, religions, languages, and beliefs (Stradling, 2003).

Teaching students to think historically and to recognize varying points of view can be difficult through the singular use of mass-produced commercialized textbooks that tend to maintain the status quo and reinforce traditional interpretations (Loewen, 2007; Fitzgerald, 1979; Wiener, 1995). In order to promote multiperspectivity in the Kindergarten-6 classroom, the integration of varied resources is essential, along with the teaching and practice of higher-order thinking skills in the interpretation of such documents. Through the integration of varying materials, it permits students to consider different standpoints in history and can help avoid stereotyping and generalizing of groups of people. For students to consider multiple perspectives students must first learn about the cultures of particular groups of people that may differ from themselves. Fleming explains, “Learning about other cultures, their histories, and their beliefs gives students a basis for judgment that goes beyond generalizations” (2007, p. 57).

Using Primary Resources

Teaching that promotes historical thinking requires teachers to move beyond textbooks and integrate primary source materials. In addition to simply reading or referring to texts, students are engaged in exploring, interrogating, and examining resources as historians (VanSledright, 2002; Wineburg, 2001). Bertram supports using texts in this way stating, “Historical thinking focuses particularly on how students can engage meaningfully with historical sources to make sense of the past” (2012, p. 431). In Bill Tally and Lauren Goldenberg’s (2005) study of digitalized primary documents and historical thinking, these researchers concluded students need to “closely observe the documents' features, bring prior knowledge to bear, speculate about causes and consequences, make personal connections, and
use evidence to support their speculations” (p. 1). These skills are all needed in order to facilitate adequate and appropriate use of primary sources to promote historical thinking.

Using primary resources in the teaching of any social studies content aligns with an inquiry-based method of teaching social studies and specifically with the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. The use of primary documents, in particular, is crucial for teaching students about history and making the experience of learning about it relevant, engaging, and academically sound (Barton, 2005a; Barton & Levstik, 2004). Using primary documents can benefit students as they promote interest, engagement, and serve as a more concrete example of the varied views available beyond condensed chapters in textbooks (Potter, 2003). With the technological resources available now, teachers should have adequate opportunities and resources related to the US Civil Rights Movement in which to find and showcase primary sources through documents and visuals in Kindergarten-6 classrooms.

Moving beyond the textbook with supportive references can be useful in helping promote dialogical and dialectical thinking through examining primary resources. Because of the availability of videos, photographs, and individual activists’ audio stories, students have a unique opportunity to study actual artifacts from the time and discuss their significance and perspectives with peers and their teachers. Testimonial accounts in books, interviews, and essays “evoke an emotional response” and “raise enduring social issues that should not be ignored” (Zarnowski, 2010, p. 41). Though the use of textbooks in the teaching of Kindergarten-6 social studies education can be helpful for some purposes, textbook-centered instruction can be limiting and must be supplemented through various other real and reliable primary and secondary resources.

Primary sources, current events, and supplemental practice with multilogical thinking skills should be used with Kindergarten-6 students in delivering content. John Duffy (2008)
instituted work with primary documents and social justice scenarios for his high school students to have opportunities to discover whether or not the scenarios were true and to provide justification from primary sources as to ascertain the validity of his scenarios. Duffy additionally worked with students using strategies for uncovering bias in newspapers with social justice current events and finds students to be capable of making such inferences. Similarly, Angela Hines (2008) worked with eight and nine-year-olds in a multi-age classroom studying the Great Migration in two phases, with the second phase aligning with the classical era of the US Civil Rights Movement. The unit of study utilized both primary and secondary resources and culminated with a class-created newspaper modeled after the African American newspapers of the Great Migration eras. Wheat and Kapavik (2004) created a social studies unit for older elementary students that explored the US Civil Rights Movement through primary and secondary sources such as a photograph, a poem, and an oral history. The use of primary documents, reading for incorporating relevant current events, and the use of critical thinking skills like evaluating, analyzing, and synthesizing are all valuable parts of Kindergarten-6 social studies curriculum and are certainly applicable in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement.

**Multiple and Varied Resources**

Incorporating multiple and varied resources in the Kindergarten-6 classroom is imperative. In a study by Christensen, Kirkland, and Noblitt (2007), the researchers explored the importance of building foundational knowledge for creating a moral consciousness about and interest in the US Civil Rights Movement through film, children’s literature, and experiential field experiences. The combination of children’s literature within the social studies curriculum and the additional aspects of relevant film clips were found to be both useful in illuminating concepts surrounding the movement and in encouraging students’ interest and engagement.
Another pedagogical strategy appropriate for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in social studies is the incorporation of music and movement. Matt Foglino and Michael Freydin’s successful practices with diverse students and the US Civil Rights Movement have been shared with both the Smithsonian and the National Museum of African American History and Culture (Marching with the Civil Rights Movement, 2013). These teachers incorporated music, movement, video, and visual imagery to have students work through the US Civil Rights Movement from a personal perspective in a unit culminating in a simulated March on Washington. They found this way of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to be relevant for their diverse student population, many of whom were US immigrants, and helpful in connecting their students personally to the movement. Teaching using music can be useful for both teachers and students. For teachers, music can help explain the mood and climate of an era, while for students the music engages them and they learn through experiences with self-expression and emotionality (Werner, 2012; Wheat & Kapavik, 2004).

Finally, the creative arts can be used in the teaching of elementary social studies and the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. Lois Christensen (2006) suggests teaching history through art is effective in establishing an understanding of civil rights issues and particularly in teaching events and issues of 1965 in Alabama and throughout the nation. Thomas Lucey and James Laney (2009) state, “songs and works of visual art, expressions of social protest and social commentary from past and present” (p. 260) are all useful tools in working with social justice and economic disparities and would be applicable and beneficial in the teaching of justice-oriented social studies inquiry. Hilve Firek (2006) encourages personal and creative writing with social studies topics to engage students, to connect them individually and personally to the content, and to foster authentic learning. The incorporation of varied strategies such as writing,
art, music, and other creative and self-expressive activities within elementary social studies education can be beneficial for student motivation and self-efficacy through self-expression, freedom of choice, and artistic outlets.

**Culturally Responsive Teaching**

Culturally responsive teaching has been discussed in varying terms such as humanizing pedagogy (Freire, 1970/1990), culturally responsive pedagogy (Harmon, 2012), and multicultural education (Irvine & Armento, 2001). Culturally relevant teaching is a phrase originated by Gloria Ladson-Billings (1994) that refers to, “a pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (p. 17-18). Culturally responsive pedagogy “aims for students’ academic success and encourages critical consciousness” (Ullucci, 2011, p. 390).

Culturally responsive pedagogy embodies a professional, political, cultural, ethical, and ideological disposition that supersedes mundane teaching acts, but is centered in fundamental beliefs about teaching, learning, students, their families, their communities, and an unyielding commitment to see student success become less rhetoric, and more of a reality. Culturally responsive pedagogy is situated in a framework that recognizes the rich and varied cultural wealth, knowledge, and skills that diverse students bring to schools, and seeks to develop dynamic teaching practices, multicultural content, multiple means of assessment, and a philosophical view of teaching that is dedicated to nurturing student academic, social, emotional, cultural, psychological, and physiological well being. (Howard & Terry, 2011, p. 345-346)
Kindergarten-6 teachers using cultural responsive pedagogy understand students’ need for acceptance and incorporate instruction in which students may increase their self-concepts and self-esteem academically and socially (Gay, 2000).

Many educators are aware of their role in fostering justice-oriented education and increasingly implement instructional practices that adhere to educational theories promoting the elimination of injustice and oppression (Francis & le Roux, 2011). Tyrone Howard (2003) states, “U.S. schools will continue to become learning spaces where an increasingly homogeneous teaching population (mostly White, female, and middle class) will come into contact with an increasingly heterogeneous student population (primarily students of color, and from low income backgrounds)” (p. 195). As this great diversification of students and homogenization of teachers, or the “demographic divide” (Gay & Howard, 2001) continues, elementary social studies educators must teach in ways that are relevant to the needs and interests of all of their students.

A report by Michael Walzer (2011) discusses prior attempts at increasing attention to global needs related to social justice and cultural responsiveness through education and suggests teachers begin with local needs and move outward. In a study by Stephanie Baker (2011) with twenty-five students of exceptionally diverse backgrounds, she found that writing about relevant current events related to social justice issues helped her students make connections with Brown v. Board of Education. The students even began to design and implement their own social action projects. The value of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies was seen through her efforts to create a classroom community that allowed for self-expression about social justice issues among a significantly diverse student population. Emilee Camp and Heather Oesterreich (2010) expressed the importance of promoting and encouraging a multi-culturally
inclusive classroom by giving students opportunities to engage critically within society and current events and by having students reflect on social injustices, identify them, and target improvement of these injustices.

**Teacher Beliefs and Their Influence on Instructional Practices**

**Defining and Describing Teacher Beliefs**

Teacher beliefs are defined as, “understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996, p. 103). “Social studies instruction, arguably more than other subjects, is shaped by a confluence of teachers’ and students’ beliefs and identity” (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013, p. 1; see also Epstein, 2001, 2009). In a national survey conducted by Leming, Ellington, and Schug (2006), “Sixty-five percent (65%) of teachers stated that "all of the time" or "some of the time" their views on moral, political, and social issues influenced their approach to the teaching of social studies” (p. 324). Because teaching involves many aspects, areas, and cognitive processes, isolating singular teacher beliefs can prove to be challenging. Frank Pajares (1992) refers to teacher beliefs as a “messy construct [that] does not lend itself easily to empirical investigation” (p. 308). Pajares asserts that while “messy,” researchers must study teacher beliefs to understand how and why teachers employ certain practices. The study of teaching beliefs is crucial as these beliefs impact teachers’ goal setting, instructional methods, analysis and discernment of teaching events, and communication and response to teaching events (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; König, 2012; Reusser, Pauli, & Elmer, 2011; Ross, 2006; Thornton, 2004).

In Milton Rokeach’s (1968) analysis of beliefs he discusses the role of "connectedness.” He states the concept means “the more a given belief is functionally connected or in communication with other beliefs, the more implications and consequences it has for other
beliefs and, therefore, the more central the belief" (p. 5). This “connectedness” explains how teachers’ beliefs can permeate their teaching philosophy and as a result have significant associations with teaching methods, actions, and communication. Not only can teacher beliefs have implications for teaching actions, they can also impact students’ learning. In a study by Fritz Staub and Elsbeth Stern (2002) measuring teachers’ pedagogical content beliefs and their effects on students’ achievement, the researchers found students taught by teachers expressing beliefs aligned with constructivist philosophy scored higher on complicated word problems than those students having teachers who did not hold constructivist beliefs. Because teachers’ beliefs have such a significant connection to instructional practices and student achievement, it is imperative to look more carefully at teachers’ beliefs that may affect social studies education in the elementary grades.

**Teacher Beliefs about Perceived Controversial Topics**

Controversial public issues have been defined as “unresolved questions of public policy that spark significant disagreement” (Hess & Posselt, 2002, p. 284). Robert Stradling (1985) outlines controversial issues as, “those issues on which our society is clearly divided and significant groups within society advocate conflicting explanations or solutions based on alternative values” (p. 9). Teachers may consider certain topics to be controversial within the social studies classroom if there are opposing beliefs about the topic that contradict with their own personal views. The topic of the US Civil Rights Movement can be challenging for teachers as they approach subjects their students, or they themselves, may find to be difficult, controversial, or contentious in nature (Kelly & Brooks, 2009).

In a study by Hubbard, Swain, and Ross (2013), pre-service teachers described their apprehension in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement and other social justice issues because
of their empirical ties to discussions of race relations that could be deemed uncomfortable and unsettling for teachers, parents, and students. Participants in the study were particularly concerned with two areas: the first was teaching a violent historical era in a developmentally appropriate manner and the second was teaching in a way that was not controversial to parents. It is because of this anxiety expressed by pre-service teachers that teacher education programs must provide more experience for their students in selecting and using appropriate instructional practices to teach social justice topics (McDonald, 2005; Wade, 2003). Without these pre-service experiences in teaching perceived controversial topics, many in-service classroom teachers may avoid justice-oriented issues when teaching elementary students in their social studies classrooms.

Discussion of controversial topics with students must be a part of justice-oriented teaching aiming to explore civics and democracy; two areas ideal for engagement with controversial current events, political issues, and governmental decisions (Avery, Sullivan, Smith, & Sandell, 1996; Engle & Ochoa, 1988; Hess, 2002; Journell, 2013). Further, this type of issues-centered instruction can and should take place in the primary grades (Koeppen, 2001; 2003a, 2003b). The National Council for the Social Studies (2007) states, “The social studies teacher must approach [controversial] issues in a spirit of critical inquiry exposing the students to a variety of ideas, even if they are different from their own” (The Study of Controversial Issues section, para. 1). Additionally, NCSS (2007) identifies four abilities and aptitudes that the teaching of controversial subject matter related to social studies can provide.

1. The ability to study relevant social problems of the past or present and make informed decisions or conclusions;
2. The ability to use critical reasoning and evidence-based evaluation in the study and analysis of significant issues and ideas; this includes development of skills of critical analysis and evaluation in considering ideas, opinions, information, and sources of information;

3. The recognition that differing viewpoints are valuable and normal as a part of social discourse;

4. The recognition that reasonable compromise is often an important part of the democratic decision-making process. (Skills and Attitudes section, para. 1).

In other words, teaching about controversial issues in social studies education, “is not about resolution or agreement, but dialogue” (Waters & Russell, 2013, p. 86).

In a study by Thomas Misco and Nancy Patterson (2007), they found only 39% of pre-service teachers surveyed are comfortable discussing political conflict, 26% are comfortable discussing racial conflict, 24% are comfortable discussing sexual orientation, 16% are comfortable discussing sexual harassment, and 16% are comfortable discussing religious conflict. Another study of 205 primary and secondary teachers found 69% of respondents believe the national curriculum is unclear in how to discuss controversial topics, while 71% feel their schools’ expectations are unclear, as well (Oulton, Day, Dillon, & Grace, 2004). In the same study, remarkably only 12% of respondents believed they were prepared to teach controversial issues due to lack of training and official guidance. Because of these teachers’ beliefs about their inabilities to instruct students around controversial issues, how can they empower students to become “globally conscious, mobile, and empowered young people…[who will] refashion social and cultural networks, produce novel communicative and linguistic forms,
mobilize worldwide social movements, inspire political action, unravel regimes of governance, and shape the contours of cultural life worldwide?” (Finkelstein, 2013, p. 127).

**Protectionist Beliefs**

Many teachers feel a need to protect young children from controversial topics in elementary social studies. Some contend “early childhood should be a protected time, a time when adults need to shield the curious minds of children from the harsher aspects of the world they inhabit” (Schweber & Findling, 2007, p. 12). This need to avoid topics in elementary social studies that might upset or sadden young children may result in children understanding history under false pretenses or at superficial levels. “Ironically, the more intimate and important a topic in young people’s lives, the less likely it is to be studied in schools” (Evans, Avery, & Pederson, 2000, p. 298). Avoiding such topics for the sake of shielding Kindergarten-6 students lessens children’s autonomy and strips them of the agency that social studies intends to support. As stated by James Loewen (2007), “Startling errors of omission and distortion mar American histories” (p. 7). Teachers who believe in protectionism in their elementary social studies classes perpetuate these “omissions” and participate in these “distortions” until students are surreptitiously coerced into believing historical myths. Chuck Larsen (1986) explains this is damaging for elementary students because, “’When you build a lesson on only half of the information, then you are not teaching the whole truth” (Introduction for Teachers, para. 5). Rather than adopt a protectionist view toward history in elementary social studies education, teachers may instead teach from a standpoint of liberationism with Kindergarten-6 students. As opposed to protectionism, liberationism encourages students to be self-sufficient and independent (Sturm, 1998) as they build critical thinking skills, evaluate, and analyze key perspectives of historical events.
Nationalistic Beliefs

Nationalism, or creating a national identity, is defined by Keith Barton and Linda Levstik (2004) as, “the tendency to regard one’s own social group as inherently good, moral, and strong, and to believe the worst about other groups” (p. 62; see also Abrams & Hogg, 1990; see also Searle-White, 2001; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This definition relates to teaching in Kindergarten-6 education as teachers attempt to legitimize US historical actions through heroes’ tales, essentializing American values, and conveying historical myths and morality lessons from historical generalizations. Teachers who hold strong beliefs in nationalism build students’ sense of their country and of themselves as US citizens as overwhelmingly elitist. George Orwell commented on this nationalist elitism explaining, “The nationalist does not go on the principle of simply ganging up with the strongest side. On the contrary, having picked his side, he persuades himself that it is the strongest, and is able to stick to his belief even when the facts are overwhelmingly against him” (1945, p. 4).

A belief in “patriotism rather than scholarship” (Loewen, 2007, p. 325) is evident in this type of nationalist teaching occurring in social studies classrooms where teachers largely ignore controversy and conflict by omitting differing interpretations and perpetuating myths in the consideration of history. Patricia Hinchley from Pennsylvania State University states, “This whole business about why don't teachers just teach the content presumes there is an apolitical body of content, and there's not” (as cited in Manzo, 2008, p. 12). Everything that will be taught in social studies education is political and there is not a way that teachers can escape it, nor should they try to escape it.

Sociologist Emily Durkheim (1973) explains the treatment of history in a duality as “sacred and profane” forces students to believe in two types of history; the first learned in
Kindergarten-12 education involving sacred values of selfless people sacrificing themselves for the common good and the second in college education that profanely revolves around failings of society throughout history. “In the United States, the creation of a sense of national identity is at the core of the social studies curriculum from the earliest years of schooling through senior high” (Barton, 2005b, para. 3). The problems with this limited presentation of nationalistic history in Kindergarten-12 education is it creates a dissonance in views of history and students may find it quite jarring as they are confronted with an alternative history in later years beyond their compulsory education (Waters, 2007). Further, those who do not attend schooling beyond the Kindergarten-12 grades may have limited access to alternative historical conceptions.

Textbooks can also contribute to overt nationalism (Avery & Simmons, 2000; Lerner, Nagai, & Rothman, 1995; Loewen, 2007; Romanowski, 1996) and teachers’ beliefs in nationalism through information perpetuating the US as the savior nation of freedom and progress (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Influences beyond classroom instruction can similarly promote nationalism and skewed perceptions. These can occur from exposure to parental discussions, television and motion pictures, and national remembrances and holidays (Henry, 2011). National monuments and memorials can likewise contribute to nationalism and misconceptions about history, as well as complicate accurate historical instruction and understanding (Waters & Russell, 2013).

Discomfort with Issues of Race

Research indicates white teachers are uncomfortable with teaching subjects that broach the topics of race (Almarza & Fehn, 1998; Ladson-Billings, 2003a). This discomfort can result in ignorance and avoidance in teaching subjects related to race in American classrooms (Segall & Garrett, 2013). Specifically, social studies educators avoid the topic of race and its impact and
importance as an integral paradigm in American history (Chandler, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2003a). Gloria Ladson-Billings writes about a “discourse of invisibility” that has eliminated or isolated non-Europeans from the social studies curriculum (2003b, p. 5). She explains invisibility is a detriment for all students, but certainly for students who are unable to see themselves in history other than in an “incoherent and disjointed” (2003b, p. 5) manner when they are haphazardly mentioned within the curriculum.

“Whiteness” is a term used to describe “institutionalized power that privileges White Americans” (Martell, 2013, p. 67; see also Giroux, 1997; Kincheloe, Steinberg, Rodriguez, & Chennault, 2000; Sleeter, 2001, 2008) and is a concept intimately connected to the teaching of race within the social studies classroom. White teachers may be uncomfortable with teaching topics associated with race because this type of teaching requires acute and critical self-reflection (Howard, 2010; Smith, 2006). Issues of race and identity are likely to be challenging and potentially unpleasant for white people who may be unaware of their culture, as Whiteness is rarely discussed openly (Howard, 2010).

In a study by Prentice Chandler (2009), he concluded the two white teachers in his case study were apprehensive about discussing race within historical contexts in their social studies classrooms. They expressed anxiety out of the belief that they had to protect their students of color, ultimately showcasing a different form of protectionist beliefs with its own consequences. Almarza and Fehn (1998) found in their research with middle schoolers, Mexican American students were aware of the white-dominated discourses in their history class and responded with resentment of the subject matter and their teacher. In another study, Martell (2013) found the use of culturally relevant pedagogy in the social studies classroom had a positive impact on students of color and “ultimately, all students benefit from a US History curriculum that includes the
voices of all Americans” (p. 81). Tyrone Howard (2011) explains, “While research on the topic
[of race] is sparse, it remains clear that one of the pressing challenges in teacher education is the
largely White population of former teachers who serve as teacher educators, many of whom have
not problematized issues of race” (para. 6).

A study by Gloria Boutte, Julia Lopez-Robertson, and Beth Powers-Costello (2011)
particularly addresses elementary teachers and their work with anti-racism and anti-
colorblindness with second graders. Although many teachers often avoided the discussion of
race and racism with young students, students already had begun to form their own ideas
associated with the topics. This study concludes social justice education experiences with race
and early-elementary students “should be ongoing rather than brief, one-time events which can
inadvertently reinforce stereotypes and colorblindness. In order to move beyond superficial
coverage, it is best to find ways to integrate discussions about racism into existing curriculum
and instruction” when teaching young children through justice-oriented efforts (Boutte, Lopez-

Summary and Implications of Teacher Beliefs and Teaching the US Civil Rights Movement

“Conceptions that teachers have about their subject matter affect their curricular and
pedagogical judgments and decisions” (Yilmaz, 2008, p. 158). In essence, teacher beliefs can be
reflected as part of pedagogical content knowledge. Teachers may express their beliefs in being
apprehensive about teaching controversial topics (Misco & Patterson, 2007), about shielding
students from historical truths, about teaching from a place of nationalism, or about discomfort in
teaching about race (Almarza & Fehn, 1998; Ladson-Billings, 2003a) which all affect pedagogy
applied within their classrooms.
Developmentally appropriate teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement should encompass age-appropriate handling of content and represent the varied backgrounds of participants and key players. Resources used, and discussions held, should be illustrative of the period without being unnecessarily graphic in nature. Many teachers may believe they need to sanitize history and only teach a protectionist view of historical events that does not have a negative slant on the past choices and consequences in American history (Loewen, 2007; Puk, 1994). Also, many teachers may not approach issues of race and racism within their classes not because they are averse to the topic, rather it can be because they are unfamiliar with the content knowledge and the availability of teacher resources (Boutte, Lopez-Robertson, & Powers-Costello, 2011) to guide them through teaching a subject as multifaceted as the US Civil Rights Movement. In teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in a way that is both appropriate and truthful for students, teachers must address the harsher aspects of the movement with care, but with accuracy. Maintaining that balance is both a challenge and an essential aspect of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement with Kindergarten-6 students.

**Barriers to Teaching Social Studies in Kindergarten-6 Classrooms**

Many barriers impact the ways in which social studies education and thus, the US Civil Rights Movement as a topic in the social studies classroom, are taught. One large barrier in the teaching of social studies in elementary schools is the marginalization of social studies (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006; Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010; Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; McGuire, 2007; McMurrer, 2008; O’Connor, Heafner, & Groce, 2007; Rock et al., 2006; VanFossen, 2005). Additional and related barriers effecting Kindergarten-6 social studies education are the ramifications of the legacy of *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (Center on Education Policy 2007, 2008), neglect of social studies in the Common Core State Standards.
(Hermeling, 2013), and standardized testing (Au, 2007; Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014; Heafner, Libscomb, & Rock, 2006). Gaps in teachers’ content knowledge (Fantozzi, 2012) Journell, 2013), limited social studies methods courses in elementary teacher education programs (Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010), and decreased professional development for in-service teachers in the content area of social studies (Maryland Social Studies Task Force, 2010) may also be contributing barriers to teaching social studies in elementary classrooms. Students’ aversion to social studies could likewise be an additional causative factor of limitations in social studies curriculum in Kindergarten-6 education (Chiodo & Byford, 2006; Loewen, 2007). All of these areas that impact elementary social studies are discussed in greater detail in the following subsections.

**Marginalization of Social Studies**

The marginalization of social studies in elementary education refers to the lessening of instructional time and emphasis on the content area with a greater attention given to other subjects of the elementary curriculum. Social studies marginalization in Kindergarten-6 classrooms has been continually documented by many respected social studies researchers (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006; Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010; Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; McGuire, 2007; McMurrer, 2008; O’Connor, Heafner, & Groce, 2007; Rock et al., 2006; VanFossen, 2005). In most social studies classrooms, social studies education is treated as an enrichment class and serves as secondary in the curriculum to other subject areas (Evans, 2004; Houser, 1995; Manzo, 2005; Thornton & Houser, 1996). Researchers find social studies is often thought of as a “by-product” of reading where in the early elementary grades, educators claim to
teach social studies through basal readers stories and in the upper elementary grades, educators use social studies for reading comprehension (Boyle-Baise, Hsu, Johnson, Serriere, & Stewart, 2008).

One of the significant problems with increased time for the English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics, is it comes at the expense of the instructional time of social studies (Hargrove, Jones, Jones, Hardin, Chapman, & Davis, 2000). In a review of 17 years of statistical data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Paul Fitchett and Tina Heafner (2010) find the average time spent in social studies classrooms has decreased drastically since the 1980s, time spent on social studies education is far less than that of mathematics and literacy, and “even more staggering, reported social studies instructional time decreased by 0.80 hours or (forty-eight minutes a week) within the last ten years (p. 69).

A major study by the Center on Education Policy (2007) indicates the instructional time in elementary schools allotted for social studies education and other content areas beyond mathematics and literacy have decreased by 32% since 2001-2002. In the Center on Education Policy’s follow-up study (2008), it finds that, “more than half (53%) of the [districts studied] cut instructional time by at least 75 minutes per week in social studies. Phillip VanFossen (2005) suggests even within elementary education, instructional time can differ inside of the same school where time allotted for early elementary social studies is significantly less than time allotted for upper elementary grades four and five. Of particular concern is the “social studies squeeze” occurring “in schools serving poor students and students of color” (Wills, 2007, p. 1980).
No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

“Elementary social studies is on the periphery of core-tested content and fighting for instructional time; a trend accelerated by national policy movements” (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, p. 68). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (2002), issued by the federal government that attempted to tie federal funding to student achievement has had extreme consequences for the content area of social studies within the elementary curriculum. Paul Fitchett and Tina Hefner (2010) report social studies instruction in elementary schools has declined an approximate 30 minutes a week since the inception of No Child Left Behind. NCLB’s call for improved student achievement in the areas of ELA and mathematics (NCLB, 2002) created “high-stakes accountability mandates [that] have intensified the marginalization of social studies in public schools” (Pace, 2012, p. 329; Bisland, 2011). Following the implementation of NCLB, many schools responded to the pressures of standardized testing by increasing the amount of instructional time in the elementary grades for ELA and mathematics, and therefore, simultaneously reduced the instructional time allotted for social studies (Center on Education Policy 2007, 2008). Many lower performing schools, schools serving primarily students from low socio-economic backgrounds, and schools serving primarily minority students have been particularly affected by No Child Left Behind efforts and the great significant pressure to respond to high-accountability reforms (Pace, 2008, 2011, 2012; Wills, 2006, 2007).

Common Core State Standards (CCSS)

US Education Secretary, Arne Duncan (2011) writes about the need for a balanced curriculum in US schools where social studies is a core content area and is critically important for students and for democratic citizenship efforts. The standards that have been implemented for the teaching of social studies, nevertheless do not support Secretary Duncan’s concerns. The
Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers (2010), now implemented in most states have failed to include national standards addressing the fundamental content and skills in social studies that all teachers should teach and all students should learn. Social studies is mentioned in the CCSS; however, only in the context of ELA with social studies used primarily for the teaching of reading and writing skills (CCSS, 2010). “The Common Core State Standards say little about social studies as a core curricular subject. Instead, in the K5 standards, social studies are lumped within non-fiction reading and literacy standards, under the hard sciences and technical subjects” (Hermeling, 2013, What Common Core Means section, para. 1). This failure to include content areas in the Common Core Standards yet again reinforces the notion social studies is an enrichment area for teaching literacy skills (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, Houser 1995). Its absence in another national educational reform effort places an increased emphasis on the subject areas of English Language Arts and mathematics, thus further stigmatizing and marginalizing elementary social studies education.

**Impact of Standardized Testing**

With compulsory standardized testing in the areas of English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics, the allocated amount of instructional time for social studies has decreased (Levine, Lopez, & Marcelo, 2008). Tina Heafner and Paul Fitchett (2012) conclude, “over time, teachers responded to external policy mandates and testing pressures by emphasizing ELA and mathematics instruction while significantly reducing instructional time for science and social studies” (see Figure 1).
Figure 1. Decline of social studies instructional time (Source: Heafner & Fittchet, 2012, p. 69)
Additional research indicates the amount of time spent on elementary social studies instruction seems to be correlated to the standardized testing policies of individual states (Au, 2007; Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014; Heafner, Libscomb, & Rock, 2006) and state testing is a predictor for teachers’ reported time spent on social studies instruction (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014). Because of the mandatory standardized testing of other core subject areas, social studies has been reprioritized and marginalized in allowance of devoting more time and instructional efforts to tested subjects like ELA and mathematics (Brophy, Alleman, & Knighton, 2009; VanFossen, 2005).

**Administrative Pressures and Support or Lack of Support**

Teachers may feel pressured by administration to lessen the amount of social studies in order to improve text scores in other areas (Heafner & Fitchet, 2012). In a study of Florida administrators and teachers, Jones and Egley (2009) find that of the 708 elementary teachers and 325 elementary administrators surveyed, “Almost all teachers (96.7%) and administrators (98.5%) reported that the pressure they felt was between "some pressure" and "alot of pressure"” to improve students’ standardized test scores (p. 31). National studies show how a vast differentiation in instructional time between social studies and tested areas of ELA and mathematics are in part due to the manipulation of schedules by administrators and teachers protecting ELA and mathematics while diminishing time for the remaining content areas (Center on Education Policy, 2007, 2008). These accountability pressures trickle down from administration to teachers to students, while also passing on a sense of importance or unimportance for social studies. A survey given by the Maryland Social Studies Task Force (2010) found seven out of ten principals reported social studies is not a high priority in their elementary schools, while 9 in 10 elementary teachers in those same schools stated the same.
Derek Anderson (2014) finds in his case study of “outliers” who do teach social studies, administration, including principals, and district mandates were reasons for his participants to teach social studies, indicating how administration responds to pressures can effect teachers and their instructional time with social studies either negatively or positively.

**Teacher Content Knowledge**

Content knowledge is defined as knowledge of the subject and its organizing features (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008; Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989; Shulman, 1986, 1987; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987). Though content knowledge is not the sole indicator of effective teaching in elementary social studies (see prior discussion of PCK), “deep knowledge in a content area helps teachers to convey the important concepts in their discipline” (Fantozzi, 2012, p. 242). Wayne Journell (2013) states that because of the nature of civic education and its implicit ties to spontaneous teacher and student debates and deliberations, social studies “teachers need adequate content knowledge in order to raise issues for discussion, proctor student comments, and ask probing questions that force students to critically analyze their positions” (p. 318).

Research indicates teachers without strong content knowledge become overly reliant on textbooks and then use rote memorization activities (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Journell, 2013). One component of disciplinary content knowledge in social studies is understanding the “epistemological basis of historical knowledge” as “an interpretive and inquiry-based endeavor” (Barton & Levstik, 2004, p. 246). When teachers lack this level of deep historical understanding and limited content knowledge, they are unable to engage students in ways that foster critical skills in interpreting history and therefore, elementary teachers’ “content knowledge is immensely important to teaching and its improvement” (Ball, Thames, & Phelps, 2008, p. 404).
Few Social Studies Courses in Elementary Education Teacher Preparation

The marginalization of social studies in elementary schools has further impact as it affects the teaching and training pre-service teachers receive in the area of social studies in their teacher preparation programs (Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010) when greater emphasis is given to teacher training in literacy than the other content areas. This inadequate training in social studies continues the cycle of marginalization with elementary teachers graduating less than prepared to teach students social studies in meaningful and appropriate ways. “One common theme that emerges from research of social studies marginalization is the lack of preparation many elementary school teachers possess in teaching the content associated with the multiple disciplines that comprise the social studies” (Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014, p. 42). Wayne Journell (2013) explains, “Unfortunately, most teacher education programs loosely monitor whether preservice teachers possess adequate common content knowledge upon graduating” (p. 319). Teacher education programs must attend more to social studies content and practice for their elementary school candidates (Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010) in order to prepare them in ways to teach social studies methodically and effectively with elementary students (Sanchez, 2010) and to aid in avoiding social studies marginalization in the elementary curricula.

Current Lack of Social Studies Professional Development for In-service Teachers

Marginalization of social studies has affected the type of professional development teachers receive. With emphasis placed on ELA and mathematics in schools, professional development is impacted, as well, with priorities and financial funding aimed at literacy and mathematics continuing education efforts. The Maryland Social Studies Task Force (2010) finds since the implementation of NCLB, “teachers lack adequate access to subject-specific professional development opportunities. In recent years, elementary-level social studies, civics,
and geography have experienced an especially large decline in professional development time” (p. x). Because of the marginalization of social studies accompanied by a deficit in social studies professional development for early childhood and elementary teachers, the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Early Childhood/Elementary Social Studies (1988) created recommendations for school districts and their implementation of social studies professional development for their teachers. Professional development within the local school district should provide:

(1) a well-organized teacher development and evaluation program;
(2) support staff for instructional improvement;
(3) appropriate social studies materials and resources;
(4) a functioning social studies curriculum committee;
(5) a K-12, system wide, articulated social studies program that is regularly reviewed and updated;
(6) opportunities for teachers to participate in professional social studies organizations at a local, state, and national level; and
(7) a professional library that contains social studies periodicals, research studies, social studies texts, and related literature. (Section VIII, para. 3)

Though these recommendations by the only national social studies professional organization were created nearly 30 years ago, most recommendations go unfulfilled in the majority of school districts.

**Students’ Reported Dislike for Social Studies**

Students often consider social studies to be boring (Chiodo & Byford, 2006; Loewen, 2007). Students also claim to dislike social studies, claim it is irrelevant to their lives, and are
unaware of its importance (Schug, Todd, & Berry, 1984; Stern, 2002). The marginalization of social studies has reduced teaching time for the content and skills that engage students in higher-level inquiry. In a study by Zhao and Hoge (2005), elementary students across three school districts in Georgia were asked to provide their feelings about social studies. These researchers found that the students interviewed were disinterested in social studies and stated, “it is boring and useless,” “it’s reading the textbook,” and “it doesn’t apply” (Zhao & Hoge, 2005, p. 218). The researchers also found that, “These responses indicate that children like school subjects that are fun and challenging, involve hands-on activities, and relate to their lives. In the students’ view, social studies is far from such a subject” (p. 218).

The role of the teacher, his or her approach, and the learning environment impact students’ attitudes in relation to the content area of social studies (Haladyna & Thomas, 1979). A study conducted by Khaled Alazzi and John Chiodo (2004) with 48, eighth to eleventh grade students in Jordan found those students indicated the teachers’ role affects their perceptions of social studies and that most teachers use lecture methods and textbooks to guide instruction. William Russell’s and Stewart Waters’ (2010) survey of 480 students in sixth to eighth grades, concluded that when students were asked what they dislike about social studies instruction, the responses were, “74% - Lecture, 74% - Rote Memorization and Note-taking, 70% - Worksheets, 63% - Busy Work, and 63% - Assignments From the Textbook” (p. 11). Cited reasons for why many students dislike social studies are the very methods used by teachers with limited time and access to resources, both aspects of social studies marginalization.

**Summary and Implications for Research**

The barriers related to the teaching of social studies in elementary education have shown to have numerous implications for teaching Kindergarten-6 social studies and for training,
preparation, and continuing education of elementary teachers. *No Child Left Behind*, the Common Core State Standards, and standardized testing are all related in their responsibilities for the marginalization of social studies education. Particularly, the marginalization of social studies has wide-reaching and long-lasting effects on several areas such as the instructional time allotted for social studies and the priorities teachers and administrators place on social studies in the elementary grades. Because of these many barriers that exist in the teaching of social studies in elementary education, they ultimately result in decreased time and efforts spent in the elementary classroom on the social studies topic of the US Civil Rights Movement.

**Defining the United States Civil Rights Movement**

**Traditional versus Contemporary Definitions**

The traditional or “classical phase” (Rustin, 1971, p. 111) of the US Civil Rights Movement refers to the time period from 1954 to 1968 in US history where national media coverage forced the issue of racial injustice to the forefront of consciousness in America and across the globe. This traditional view of the US Civil Rights Movement is associated with the collective action of a selective time period involving marches, riots, and emphasizing the role of a limited set of historical icons. Jennifer Frost (2012) defines this traditional history of the US Civil Rights Movement, “as spanning the years 1954 or 1955- using either *Brown v. Board of Education* or the Montgomery bus boycott as the starting point- to the assassination of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., in 1968” (p. 439). In traditional teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement the limitation of the time period, the emphasis on a select and few well-recognized heroes, and decontextualizing the movement all fail to encapsulate the long view of the movement and its impact on the present. Clay Risen (2011) writes,
Until very recently, the study of the civil rights movement has limited itself to the roughly ten-year span between the Montgomery Bus Boycott of 1955 and 1956 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The dominant figure is Martin Luther King, Jr.; the dominant ethos is Christian nonviolent resistance. The terrain of battle is the South, primarily Alabama and Mississippi …The narrative proved remarkably compelling, and the first wave of civil rights historians were all too willing to play along… Such historians also ignored the issues that mattered—and still matter—to blacks inside and out of the Jim Crow South, and which were largely ignored during the movement’s classical era: equality in housing, health care, education, and jobs. (p. 108-109)

In trying to teach the US Civil Rights Movement to Kindergarten-6 students in a less superficial manner and in a way connected to justice-oriented education, it is fundamental to extend this definition to a more comprehensive vision of the movement.

Contemporary definitions of the US Civil Rights Movement connect the “classical phase” (Rustin, 1971) to pre- and post-classical events and serve to teach the movement in the sense of a “long Civil Rights Movement” (Hall, 2005). Teaching within a greater context “empowers students to examine how their own lives have been influenced by, and could contribute to, the many legacies of the long civil rights movement” (Slate, 2011, p. 591). Looking at the history of the movement from a historical and current lens widens and deepens the view of the movement to a more fully relevant and historical well-rounded conceptualization. Tomiko Brown-Nagin (2011), professor of both law and history at Harvard, explores the ways in which complicated and complex visions were at play prior to, during, and after the classical phase of the US Civil Rights Movement with varying beliefs about how equality was to be achieved. The Long Civil Rights Movement Initiative through the University of North Carolina’s Center for the Study of
the American South’s Southern Oral History Program (2014) states an “aim to challenge a “Brown to the Voting Rights Act” narrative that confines the civil rights movement to the South, to a single tumultuous decade, and to the limited goal of overthrowing state-sanctioned segregation” (para. 2). This contemporary shift in the examination of the many contributions of citizens across lines drawn by culture, race, gender, and socioeconomic status attempts to reframe and redefine the movement in a more sophisticated and holistic way.

**Summary of Traditional versus Contemporary Definitions and Implications for Research**

The Civil Rights Movement in US history has been largely limited to a single decade of events by well-known Civil Rights leaders. This view, however, has been revised by historians to include a more comprehensive picture of the ways in which the movements for equality have been initiated over centuries by diverse groups of people with complex and sometimes conflicting viewpoints. In extending the ramifications and continued efforts of the movement to contemporary events, it showcases both historical efforts toward justice and the implications of present realities on additional needs of striving for equity and equality. The implications of the shift in the definition of the US Civil Rights Movement has a direct impact on the way in which Kindergarten-6 teachers conceptualize and then teach the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. It is necessary to understand the ways in which elementary teachers define the movement, state their beliefs about the movement, and use that definition and beliefs to shape their instructional methods, plans, and practices with Kindergarten-6 students.

**Curriculum Standards for Kindergarten-6 Instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement**

Because there have been no directives adopted for social studies within the Common Core State Standards (2010), there are no particular national mandates applicable to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 social studies education. The National
Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2010) provides national standards, serving as curriculum guides, that suggest ways in which Kindergarten through twelfth grades should be taught. The NCSS standards, however, “do not represent a set of mandated outcomes or an attempt to establish a national social studies curriculum” (p. 7). The NCSS standards are not intended to outline particular subject matter that must be taught by teachers; rather, the standards “address overall curriculum design and comprehensive student learning expectations” (p. 4). These standards offer broad, holistic suggestions for teaching social studies including knowledge, processes, skills, and products that should be considered while planning, but leave specific curricular mandates to state and local school systems.

Though suggestions of the NCSS (2010) do not outline particular goals for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, there are four of the ten central themes of the national guidelines that do relate to teaching the movement in US History. These themes include “Culture; Time, Continuity, and Change; Individuals, Groups, and Institutions; and Civic Ideals and Practices. These guidelines are helpful for many state governments, school districts, and individual teachers for providing general guidance. The broad content areas, however, require teachers to make connections and integrate content within an expansive spectrum of skills, content, and strategies while making connections to state-required standards. Problematically, the national standards are only available in books purchased at the cost of those who order them, thus limiting the access to information for individual elementary teachers. Because of this lack of guidance from the national arena, there are no specific national mandates for the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement to Kindergarten-6 students in elementary social studies.
Limited or Absent Requirements in Most States

The requirements in most states for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 curriculum are limited or nonexistent. In 2011 a nationwide study by the Southern Poverty Law Center (SPLC) of the District of Columbia and the 50 states’ curriculum standards for social studies in grades Kindergarten-12 showed most states (n=35) failed (received a grade of F) in establishing instructional standards specifically related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. After the initial publication of the report by the Southern Poverty Law Center, some states took action to add, clarify, or revamp existing standards and therefore a second major nationwide study by the SPLC was conducted.

The second study by the SPLC expanded its gaze on the standards to allow self-reporting by states to include “programs, processes, and progress” surrounding the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, an additional look at their standards, and an inclusion of the resources teachers have access to that can support the US Civil Rights Movement in their states (SPLC, 2014, p. 8). This more comprehensive and exhaustive study finds though some states had made concerted efforts to include the US Civil Rights Movement in the past three years,

- Most states still pay little attention to the Civil Rights Movement: **20 states** received failing grades. (bold added for emphasis)
- There is a large gap between the states that do well and all other states.
- States that do try to cover the movement are weakest in acknowledging resistance to the movement and examining its causes.
- Supporting materials offered by some states are extremely valuable to teachers across the country. (SPLC, 2014, p. 8)
These reports by the SPLC (2011, 2014) provide evidence many states have limited requirements for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, while some states have none in place at all. Limited requirements related to the teaching of the movement in elementary social studies education coupled with the already marginalized teaching of social studies in most Kindergarten-6 classrooms drastically impacts instructional practices involving the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education.

**Specific Alabama Standards Related to the US Civil Rights Movement**

In the studies by the Southern Poverty Law Center, Alabama initially scored an A in 2011, while Alabama’s grade fell to a B in the second study in 2014. It should be noted that both grades were earned using the 2004 Alabama Course of Study for Social Studies (Alabama Department of Education, 2004). The standards discussed in this work here all relate to the 2010 Alabama Course of Study for Social Studies (Alabama Department of Education, 2010), which reflect the most current social studies requirements for Kindergarten-6 teaching in Alabama. In the SPLC’s (2014) second study, the Alabama state standards outlined include requirements for third grade. The third grade standards referred to in their study from the 2004 Alabama Course of Study for Social Studies are no longer mentioned in the 2010 Alabama Course of Study; thus, rendering lower standards at present than reported by the SPLC in their 2014 report.

The current Alabama state standards for social studies (Alabama Department of Education, 2010) for Kindergarten-6 that directly and explicitly require the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement are found in fourth and sixth grades. Other grade level standards for Kindergarten-6 mention terms that could be interpreted to include teaching related to the US Civil Rights Movement, such as “equality”, “justice”, “cultural differences”, “historical figures and celebrations”, and “local events” (Alabama Department of Education, 2010). These
standards, however, do not necessarily make mandated connections to the US Civil Rights Movement and are not considered as implicit directives for its teaching in those grades. Although standards in grades Kindergarten-6 could be related to the US Civil Rights Movement by teachers who choose to teach the movement to meet those standards, the only explicit references are included below in the direct standards from the 2010 Alabama Course of Study. The curriculum standards outlined in the 2010 Alabama Course of Study (Alabama Department of Education) are as follows:

Fourth Grade-

10.) Analyze social and educational changes during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries for their impact on Alabama.

Examples:

- social- implementation of the *Plessey versus Ferguson* "separate but not equal" court decision, birth of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)
- educational- establishment of normal schools and land-grant colleges such as Huntsville Normal School (Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical [A&M] University), Agricultural and Mechanical College of Alabama (Auburn University), Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute (Tuskegee University), Lincoln Normal School (Alabama State University)

- Explaining the development and changing role of industry, trade, and agriculture in Alabama during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, including the rise of Populism
- Explaining the Jim Crow laws
• Identifying Alabamians who made contributions in the fields of science, education, the arts, politics, and business during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

(p. 31)

Fourth Grade-

14.) Analyze the modern Civil Rights Movement to determine the social, political, and economic impact on Alabama.

• Recognizing important persons of the modern Civil Rights Movement, including Martin Luther King, Jr., George C. Wallace, Rosa Parks, Fred Shuttlesworth, John Lewis; Malcolm X, Thurgood Marshall, Hugo Black, and Ralph David Abernathy

• Describing events of the modern Civil Rights Movement, including the Montgomery Bus Boycott, the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church bombing in Birmingham, the Freedom Riders bus bombing, and the Selma-to-Montgomery March

• Explaining benefits of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and Brown versus Board of Education Supreme Court case of 1954

• Using vocabulary associated with the modern Civil Rights Movement,

  Including discrimination, prejudice, segregation, integration, suffrage, and rights.

(p. 32)

Sixth Grade-

9.) Critique major social and cultural changes in the United States since World War II.

• Identifying key persons and events of the modern Civil Rights Movement
Examples:

persons- Martin Luther King, Jr., Rosa Parks, Fred Shuttlesworth, John Lewis (Alabama)


Implications of Civil Rights Standards on Kindergarten-6 Social Studies Curriculum

The limitations on national and state curriculum mandates for the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement have a significant impact on the Kindergarten-6 social studies curriculum in elementary schools. Because there are few requirements for teaching the movement, many teachers are not teaching it at all, or are doing so inadequately (SPLC, 2011, 2014). Maureen Costello, Director of the Southern Poverty Law Center’s Teaching Tolerance Initiative states, “By having weak or non-existent standards for history, particularly for the Civil Rights Movement, [states] are saying loud and clear that it isn’t something students need to learn” (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2011, September 28, para. 4). Because state curriculum standards outline the minimum requirements for teachers to address in their Kindergarten-6 instruction, this neglect or intentional exclusion of the US Civil Rights Movement in standards in many states may suggest this topic is not minimally important to the curriculum for elementary students. If teachers do not find the US Civil Rights Movement listed in their required teaching topics, then it may be unlikely they would include it in their social studies teaching as this content area is already limited in its time and inclusion within the curriculum in many schools.
Summary of Mandated US Civil Rights Movement Curriculum and Implications for Research

There are no national mandates requiring that the US Civil Rights Movement must be taught in Kindergarten-6 education. Additionally, the comprehensive nationwide studies mentioned in this section indicate the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in social studies education is severely limited throughout the United States (SPLC, 2011, 2014). In the state of Alabama, there are only two grade levels in which teaching the US Civil Rights Movement is required in Kindergarten-6 education; fourth and sixth. Fourth-grade teachers are required to teach the US Civil Rights Movement as outlined in two different Alabama state standards. Thus, fourth grade teachers were chosen as participants for this research. It was expected that because the Alabama Course of Study (Alabama Department of Education, 2010) requires the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in the fourth grade, teachers in this grade level would have some beliefs about the topic they could express, some ideas of how they implemented instruction surrounding the topic in their elementary social studies classrooms, and observable practices related to the topic.

Status of Current Limitations and Inadequacies in Instruction of the Movement

Research indicates many states have either limited requirements set forth for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement or have none (SPLC 2011, 2014). Because of discrepancies in the standards for teachers and their instruction related to the US Civil Rights Movement, there are inadequacies in the amount and ways the movement is taught in Kindergarten-6 education. Coupled with the restrictions on requirements, the failure to use a more contemporary definition of the movement and instead reverting to teaching from a decontextualized time frame (Zarnowski, 2010) discussed previously, further confines the teaching of a “long civil rights movement” (Hall, 2005). Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (2013) explains “The American school system
is inexcusably treating the Civil Rights Movement, essentially, as if it never happened, part of a collective, general amnesia about African American history as a whole. And we cannot allow this to continue” (para. 4). Equally concerning is that even when there are some mandates in place for educating about the US Civil Rights Movement, instructional practices are often inadequate. Teachers often fail to provide discourse about resistance to the movement, examine the causes of the movement, and may even limit the movement to a regional issue or African American problem (SPLC, 2011, 2014; Payne, 1998; Gates, 2013, 2014). By teaching the movement, “…as a regional matter, or a topic significant to African American students only, the states failed to recognize the profound national significance of the movement. Their standards and frameworks sent the message that the movement could safely be ignored” (SPLC, 2014, p. 8).

There are several inadequacies in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement to Kindergarten-6 students that must be explored. These include instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement as a regional problem (Payne, 1998) or as only an African American issue (SPLC, 2011). Other limitations in the teaching of the movement involve teaching from a top-down master narrative (Frost, 2012) and teaching from a patriarchal or otherwise limited view of activists within the movement (Robnett, 1997). Each of these insufficiencies in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement to Kindergarten-6 students will be discussed in greater detail within this section.

**Limited to a Regional Problem**

Many teachers may be using instructional practices that perpetuate the myth of the movement as a “Southern problem.” Teachers may inadvertently teach from a “…comforting assumption, too often implied by dominant civil rights narratives, that institutional racism was
more or less exclusive to the South” (Risen, 2011, p. 112). Charles Payne (1998) refers to this regional view of the US Civil Rights Movement as a “Montgomery to Memphis framework” (p. 110) that ultimately confines the ways in which the movement is conceptualized by educators and taught to Kindergarten-6 students. Nico Slate addresses limitation stating, “Many students think of the Civil Rights Movement as limited to the South [and that the] traditional narrative of the Civil Rights Movement can be expanded both geographically and temporally” (2011, p. 591). The implementation of state requirements appears to follow this pattern as well. Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (2014) states,

…when you add up all the A’s and B’s, [referring to the scores on the SPLC 2014 study] seven out of 11 are former Confederate states, only reinforcing the dangerous misperception that black history is regional or only necessary where large pockets of African Americans reside. (p. 6)

The US Civil Rights Movement should be taught to all students, as it is relevant to all citizens, regardless of geographic region. Its significance as a movement that asserted fundamental liberties for all has importance for every student as an inspiring reality that changed the course of the nation as it is known today.

Even during the height of the classical period of the US Civil Rights Movement, it was never intended to be a solely Southern cause. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., (1960) stated, “The racial issue that we confront in America is not a sectional, but a national problem.” Aarushi Shah (2012) discusses an example in the history of the US Civil Rights Movement defying this regional encapsulation of the movement. She documented the ways in which Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) was established in Chicago, how the two sit-ins that occurred there by members in 1943 had a long-term and lasting impact on the whole country, and how this event
undoubtedly led to a ripple effect in the Southern states. The contributions of all citizens to bettering race relations throughout American history should be remembered; as should the organizations, actions, and pre-classical Civil Rights era events throughout our nation, not just the ones limited to the South (Sugrue, 2008).

**Limited to an African American Issue**

Teachers may inadequately instruct that African Americans are the only people involved in struggles against racial injustice and toward equal rights under the laws of the United States. They may also think that the US Civil Rights Movement has little relevance to students who are not African Americans. This rationale is very narrow and fails to recognize the significance of the many people of many races that participated and persisted in the struggles for equal civil liberties for all. The Southern Poverty Law Center (2011) explains,

> When students learn about the movement, they learn what it means to be an active American citizen. They learn how to recognize injustice. They learn about the role of individuals, as well as the importance of organization. And they see that people can come together to stand against oppression. (p. 10)

These lessons learned from the US Civil Rights Movement transcend ethnicity and serve to establish better-prepared, justice-oriented citizens aware of their own power in a democratic society; valuable lessons for any Kindergarten-6 student. The limited perspective of isolating the US Civil Rights Movement as an African American issue fails to connect it to other social justice efforts like the Women’s Movement, the Chicano Movement, the Gay Rights Movement, and economic equality activism in the long view of the US Civil Rights Movement (Bailey & Farber, 2006; Isaac, 2008).
Further perpetuating the myth of the US Civil Rights Movement as singularly limited to African American history is its isolation in being taught in schools chiefly and only during Black History Month and around national holidays. “Images of the movement appear and reappear each year on Martin Luther King, Jr., Day and during Black History Month” (Hall, 2005, p. 1233). Enid Lee, Deborah Menkart, and Margo Okazawa-Rey (1998) call for teachers to move “beyond heroes and holidays” in examining how the movement and the teaching of anti-racist and justice-oriented education can relate to students inside and outside of the classroom. After all, the US Civil Rights Movement and “black history …should not be relegated to one week or month in the calendar but taught as it was lived within the larger American story (Gates, 2014, p. 7).

Martin Luther King, Jr., explained the US Civil Rights Movement intended to, force America to face all its interrelated flaws - racism, poverty, militarism and materialism. It [was] exposing evils that [were] rooted deeply in the whole structure of society. It reveal[ed] systemic rather than superficial flaws and suggest[ed] that radical reconstruction of society itself [was] the real issue to be faced. (1986, p. 315)

When Dr. King spoke of the movement he did not restrict it to African Americans, but proposed all races to bear witness to their involvement or lack of involvement, empathy or apathy. Henry Louis Gates, Jr. (2013) discusses the importance of teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement with all students and said due to its absence and neglect in US schools, “…it’s not only black students who are suffering. You can’t have a “conversation about race” only among black people! This is American history, after all” (The Southern Poverty Law Center's Report section, para. 5). It is with the intention of teaching about our shared American history that all students regardless of ethnicity should have an awareness of the US Civil Rights
Movement and explore it for the value it had, and still has, on the systems in place at the time of the movement and their extension through today’s realities.

**Top-Down, Master Narrative**

The top-down narrative, or mater narrative, in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement involves instruction that the government, the historical icons, and the few idolized heroes of the movement were the leaders of a movement, the change-makers, and the revolutionaries rather than individual citizens through collective action (Frost, 2012). Robert Stradling (2003) states,

> History education has all too often been taught from a perspective that was monocultural, ethnocentric, exclusive rather than inclusive, and based on the assumption that the national narrative coincided with the history of the largest national grouping and dominant linguistic and cultural community. (p. 10)

Teaching the movement from a top-down narrative is in opposition to what most historical scholars indicate to be best for students when teaching about the US Civil Rights Era from 1948 through the 1960s when everyday citizens risked their livelihoods and lives to rally for common cause of equality (Frost, 2012; Lawson & Payne, 1998; Zarnowski, 2010). James Loewen (2007) discusses the dangers in perpetuating master narratives stating, “without casual historical analysis” (p. 171) we cannot truly understand historical events for their real purposes and will only superficially teach them accordingly. Charles Payne (1998) explains a risk in repeating the master narrative is it simplifies complexities of history and reduces the actions of the civil rights movement to simply a protest of well-known leaders. He further discusses that it is irresponsible to teach about masses of people in the movement in ways that are not distinguishable, as they were disparately different in terms of race, gender, class, cultural, and regional differences.
One reason it is key that the US Civil Rights Movement should be taught from a different angle than a master narrative is because of the absent counter narratives in textbooks. James Loewen (2007) discusses the importance of debating with textbooks, as well as the value in providing other resources and forms of accounts that do not, “reverse the leader and the led” (p. 240). Loewen uses this phrase to describe how textbooks often situate the US Civil Rights Movement as being initiated by the government for the people, rather than the works of people used to change the government. Zaretta Hammond (2014) explains “Traditional historical narratives have been written from a particular viewpoint and often eliminate, distort, or minimize the circumstances and conditions of people of color in this country” (p. 20).

The individual stories of the grassroots efforts and the everyday actions of average citizens are a testament to the spirit of democracy and are often left out of the traditional narrative of the US Civil Rights Movement in textbooks. Maureen Costello, Director of the Teaching Tolerance educational initiative funded through the Southern Poverty Law Center suggests most students’ central knowledge of the movement is simply surface level familiarity with Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King (Teaching the Civil Rights Movement, 2011). Though the key players in the US Civil Rights Movement should certainly be taught and examined for their remarkable contributions, it is not enough to simply state names of the most famous individuals and allow students to form opinions that the movement was centralized by only the few and well-known idolized figures. Tomiko Brown-Nagin (2011) states, “As important as the NAACP and its lawyers were, members of local black communities, in Atlanta and elsewhere, steered the movement’s course on a day-to-day basis” (p. 13). Using the top-down method many teachers rely on and many textbooks reinforce (Loewen, 2007) is insufficient in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. It also undermines and ignores the efforts of a
large collective citizenship, promotes gender bias in overlooking the more than 60% female leadership contingency, relegates the leadership inaccurately to a white, educated, and elitist perspective, and removes historical agency from whom it belongs rightfully (Payne, 1998).

Students can benefit from understanding ways in which the average populace leapt into action for the rights of the disenfranchised through social movements. The heroic and inspiring efforts of individuals and collective efforts of an active populace have gone unwritten and unrepeated in classrooms and textbooks. As Payne (1998) states,

> When Americans speak of the Civil Rights Movement, they are unlikely to be thinking of Harry T. Moore or A. Philip Randolph, Septima Clark, Ella Baker, J. A. Delaine, Charles Hamilton Houston, or Fred Shuttlesworth. They and the struggles they represent are not a part of American history as it is normally taught, with its streamlined, homogenized version of the movement. (p. 122)

Only recently has it become more common for those individuals who were active in the movement to be asked to teach at universities where their efforts and stories could be appreciated for their contributions to equality and justice, both legally and in everyday life (Watson, 2012). As the fiftieth anniversary of key events of the movement has recently passed, some activists have become incapacitated through illness and many have died, often rendering their stories untold. The experiences of activists frequently pass away with them, as many are unrecorded in history books or on video or audio tape. It is imperative educators seek out resources that are available from activists to share primary accounts with students before the opportunity is missed and the counter-narratives are lost.
Patriarchal and Other Limited Views of Activists

Teaching the US Civil Rights Movement must encompass the many and wide-ranging actions of well-known and highly-documented leaders. It is likewise important to include the actions of individuals from diverse ethnicities, ages, genders, and social classes, as opposed to only well-known African American males generally discussed in historical texts (Barnett, 1993). According to Machtinger (2002), teachers must instruct students about the varied contributions of women within, prior to, and post classical era of the US Civil Rights Movement to avoid a patriarchal view of activists’ contributions. Belinda Robnett (1997) interviewed African American females associated with the US Civil Rights Movement and examined the many roles of women activists. She finds that countless African American women became leaders within the US Civil Rights Movement, though they are often egregiously overlooked in historical portrayals of only African American male leaders. LaVerne Gyant (1996) reiterates this emphasis on acknowledging African American female activists in the movement stating “Middle class, rural, domestic, professional women, educated and uneducated- all were involved in the civil rights movement. They shared their resources and talents and faith to work together for the cause- freedom and equality” (p. 633). African American female educators were particularly instrumental in their contributions to the US Civil Rights Movement, both pre- and within the classical phase of the movement, as they emphasized empowering their students through education and activism (S. K. Baker, 2011; Feldman, 1999; Loder-Jackson, 2012). Even within the foundation of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), women have significantly contributed as social activists, but have been ignored largely for their contributions by the heroification of male leaders (Moore, 2013).
Other activism frequently overlooked in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement is the role of African American students. The role of African American students of all ages in the movement was vital to the cause; however, these examples are largely absent in the teaching of the movement to elementary students. One of the most compelling examples of student and youth activism occurred in Mississippi in the Freedom Schools of 1964 (Hale, 2011) in what is known as Freedom Summer (Belfrage, 1990; Etienne, 2013; McAdam, 1988), though the teaching of this pivotal student action is seldom examined through elementary social studies. The important role children played in the movement toward equality is often left out of textbooks, though the oral histories and primary resources accounting their contributions can be powerful learning tools for today’s students (Levine, 1993).

According to Dernoral Davis, activists engaged within the US Civil Rights Movement “represented all strata of American life. Whites joined blacks in the struggle, Southerners as well as Northerners agitated, midwesterners and westerners participated, women along with men protested. Elderly and young Americans were active in the movement as well” (2001, para. 1). The diversity of those involved in the movement beyond the well-known historical icons was purposely considered and recognized in the establishment of the US Civil Rights Memorial in Montgomery, Alabama designed by Maya Lin. Virgil Ware (13-year-old African American male from Birmingham), Viola Liuzzo (39-year-old Caucasian female housewife from Detroit), Johnnie Mae Chappell (35-year-old African American wife and mother from Jacksonville, Florida), Paul Guihard (30-year-old Caucasian male French journalist), and Roman Ducksworth (28-year-old African American military police officer from Mississippi) are just a few of the names listed on the memorial as civil rights martyrs. According to the SPLC, those recorded as being martyrs, “include activists who were targeted for death because of their civil rights work;
random victims of vigilantes determined to halt the movement; and individuals who, in the
sacrifice of their own lives, brought new awareness to the struggle” (SPLC, n.d., “Civil Rights
Martyrs,” para. 1). These civil rights martyrs are a small sampling of names inscribed on the
memorial illustrating the diversity of the movement; yet, finding their names in an elementary
social studies text or being taught in an elementary social studies class is uncommon.

**Summary and Implications of US Civil Rights Movement Instruction on Kindergarten-6 Curriculum**

If college students are entering classrooms at respected universities with such limited
knowledge as scholars suggest (Bond, 2011; Loewen, 2007; Frost, 2012), and students in high
school are unable to answer basic questions about the period of American history most innately
tied to social justice (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011; SPLC, 2011, 2014) then
elementary educators must do their part. Kindergarten-6 educators can and should do their best
to see students do not leave elementary classrooms without an awareness of the major issues
associated with the movement. Teachers must help students understand the efforts of
individuals, organizations, institutions and their contributions toward or against equality and
justice throughout the movement. Appropriate teaching also involves helping students to build
the capacities to analyze, examine, evaluate, and critique the multiple complexities that are the
US Civil Rights Movement.

If elementary educators do not teach the US Civil Rights Movement, or do not teach it
adequately (SPLC, 2011, 2014), this can “rob students of the opportunity to see for themselves
how this was not only the 20th century's greatest public demonstration in the belief in American
democracy, but part of a grand tradition that is linked to the country's inception” (Williams,
2011, Schools Must Teach the Civil Rights Movement section, para. 12). It is with no doubt
such a rich and important part of history cannot go ignored or cast aside. Kindergarten-6
educators have both a duty and obligation to share the collective history of the US Civil Rights Movement with future generations about the legacy of unsung activists from whom all citizens have benefited greatly.

**Chapter Summary**

The current body of research is substantial in terms of the availability related to the theoretical framework of this study of constructivism (Doolittle & Hicks, 2003; Ertmer & Newby, 2013; Hu, 2011; Schmidt, 2011; Sunal & Haas, 2011; Wiersma, 2008) and historical thinking (Barton, 2012; Drake & Brown, 2003; Lévesque, 2008; VanSledright, 2011; Wineburg, 2001, 2010). Further, there exists a great deal of work with justice-oriented citizenship (Agarwal, 2011; Chubbuck & Zembylas, 2008; Gregson, 2013; Wade, 2001, 2004) and the importance of teacher beliefs and their influence on teacher practices (König, 2012; Reusser, Pauli, & Elmer, 2011; Ross, 2006; Thornton, 2004).

The recognition of multiple barriers to the teaching of social studies are documented including social studies marginalization (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006; Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010; Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; McGuire, 2007; McMurrer, 2008; O’Connor, Heafner, & Groce, 2007; Rock et al., 2006; VanFossen, 2005), the impact of the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* (Center on Education Policy 2007, 2008), the neglect of social studies in the Common Core State Standards (Hermeling, 2013), and standardized testing (Au, 2007; Fitchett, Heafner, & Lambert, 2014; Heafner, Libscomb, & Rock, 2006). Gaps in teachers’ content knowledge (Fantozzi, 2012; Journell, 2013), limited social studies methods courses in elementary teacher education programs (Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010), decreased professional development for in-service teachers in the content area of social studies (Maryland Social Studies Task Force, 2010), and students’ aversion to social studies (Chiodo & Byford,
2006; Loewen, 2007) are likewise all evident and prolific in the literature available regarding the teaching of social studies.

There is also a large body of work related to the US Civil Rights Movement from historical scholars (Bailey & Farber, 2006; Davis, 2001; Dunn, 2005; Frost, 2012; Hall, 2005; Lawson, 1991, 2003), scholarly opinion pieces (Bond, 2011; Parker, 2014), supplementary practical works (Lucey & Laney, 2009; Palmer & Burroughs, 2002; Pierce-Thomas, 2007; Stone, 2006; Zarnowski, 2010), and sociologists’ analyses of teaching history (Isaac, 2008; Loewen, 2007; Robnett, 1997). The literature available on the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students, however, is highly limited in relation to research-based articles and is substantially comprised of non-fiction informational texts and relevant children’s and adult literature.

There are many practical documents for and by teachers such as lessons, resources, and ideas for teachers concerning the US Civil Rights Movement with Kindergarten-6 students. In contrast, the field is significantly limited in terms of empirical studies specifically linked to elementary teachers’ described and demonstrated social studies instructional practices with teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Further, there is little work available in regard to elementary teachers’ rationale for, or beliefs about, using specific instructional practices related to teaching the movement to elementary students. After working through a substantial body of literature in relation to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, there are many capacities in which studies of this topic in elementary social studies education would be helpful for clarification and analysis. Thus, this research presented here was essential for growth in those areas.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

Introduction

This chapter outlines the case study method used to investigate three, fourth-grade teachers’ instructional practices and supporting rationale and beliefs regarding their teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education. This investigation examined the following research questions:

1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?

2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?

This chapter serves as an overview of the methods used to answer the research questions through a collective case study approach.

First, qualitative inquiry as an integral area of educational research and as the framework for this study is explained. Next, case study inquiry is reviewed for clarity and for its impact on this particular work. Third, boundaries of the research investigation are stated and the setting of the study is elucidated for its effect on this project. Then, participants are described along with
the methods for their selection and inclusion. Fifth, data collection methods are discussed as a
general overview then divided into subsections with an in-depth review of procedures, sources,
and methods. Sources for this study are narrowed and deliberated further to describe the
particular uses of interviews, observations, and artifact analysis. Methods are introduced and
explanation of the constructivist grounded theory approach used for qualitative analysis in this
study is given. The techniques to ensure trustworthiness of the study are explained, and finally a
summary is given as a conclusion to review the content of the methods addressed within the
chapter.

**Qualitative Inquiry**

Qualitative research involves a focus on people, their interpretations, and their
personal constructions of the natural worlds in which they live (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, 2011;
Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Merriam, 2009). Qualitative research is less concerned with cause
and effect analysis and more interested in the interpretation of participants’ understandings of
phenomena through their assigned meaning (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative research methods are
described by Creswell as, “inductive, from the ground up, rather than handed down entirely from
a theory or from the perspective of the inquirer” (2013, p. 22). Because of its inductive process,
qualitative research must be flexible and can pull from varying theoretical perspectives as data
emerge to adequately describe the phenomena occurring (Maxwell, 2013). Further,
“…qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means
that qualitative researchers study phenomena in natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or
to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln,
2005, p. 3). Qualitative research does not attempt to separate lived experiences from their
contextual world (Creswell, 2013), rather it aims to interpret context through analysis of data
documenting those lived experience, in this case through interviews, artifacts, and observations.
This research study examined characteristics that emerged at the intersection of teachers’ conceptualizations of their practices and beliefs about teaching the US Civil Rights Movement within elementary social studies education and actual practices occurring in their classrooms. Qualitative research methods were chosen for this study because of the possibilities they allowed for explaining the intricate ways in which teacher beliefs and instructional practices are intertwined. This qualitative research aimed for detailed analysis of collected data through a collective case study as explained further in following sections.

**Case Study Research**

Case study is a “distinctive form of empirical research” (Yin, 2009, p. 14). The field of case studies, however, has long been filled with differing definitions and determinations of what constitutes a case and appropriate means of establishing a research framework in that vein (Ragin, 1992; Stake, 2005). Depending upon divergent philosophies of researchers, the nature of case studies and their usage are varying and vast (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Robert Yin, an expert in case study research, provides “a two-fold technical definition of case studies” (2009, p. 18) that follows. He states,

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that
   - investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when
   - the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

2. The case study inquiry
   - copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
• relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
• benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis. (p. 18)

For the purposes of this qualitative and collective case study, the definition given by George Kamberelis and Greg Dimitriadis (2005) is most appropriate. These experts state case study research can involve “concrete and practical efforts to change the social world for the better through improving shared social practices, shared understandings of these practices, and the material conditions in which these practices occur” (p. 43). Because this study sought to address teaching practices related to the US Civil Rights Movement and in return add to the body of knowledge that may be useful for classroom teachers, this case study intended to promote this type of change.

Predominate modes of representation and analysis in case study are those that Yin references as being “the six sources of evidence” (2009, p. 101). These are the most common sources used within case study research and include, but are not limited to, “documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant-observation, and physical artifacts” (p. 101). Each of these sources of evidence, except for archival records, was used in this research study. All sources are discussed with greater depth in later sections. Allowing for multiple sources of evidence is a strength of case study research and aids crystallization, a necessary and key component of qualitative and case study research (Ellingson, 2009; Richardson, 2000).

This research investigation extends beyond a single case study and is considered a collective case study. Collective case studies involve multiple-case, or cross-case comparisons
(Yin, 2009) that aim to study a central issue or phenomenon in several, varying contexts (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 2009). Within collective case study, analysis is essential for researchers to “try to get a sense of the recurrent flow of routine events” (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, p. 28). It is imperative that the researcher finds patterns, themes, contradictions, and similarities within and among the multiple cases and draws analysis through all of the cases surrounding and addressing the central issue studied (Baxter & Jack, 2008). Multiple case study design is often considered to be a stronger and more thorough framework than single-case study design, as it can serve as a more compelling forum for the arguments made within the work (Yin, 2009; Herriott & Firestone, 1983). Using multiple cases was suited for the purposes of this research and was chosen in order to illuminate data that would not arise in a single case study design alone.

**Researcher Positionality**

Gavin Flood (1999) stated that, “Without some degree of reflexivity any research is blind and without purpose” (p. 35). Reflexivity refers to the way in which researchers examine their own backgrounds, biases, and ontological and epistemological leanings while recognizing how this impacts their research as they actively participate with it (Kleinsasser, 2000). Because qualitative researchers believe that reflexivity is essential for acknowledging the ways in which the researcher himself or herself affects the research design, process, and participants (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995; hooks, 1984; Milner, 2007), it is necessary for qualitative researchers to establish and share researcher positionality statements in their works. My own researcher positionality was included here for full disclosure and transparency throughout the process, as well as to acknowledge that reflexive practices were conducted throughout the data collection and analysis phases of this work.
Prior to the Study

Prior to beginning my research, I recognized that my own experiences as a former student of, and teacher in, one of the two schools in which this research was conducted may have influenced my choice in locating part of the research study in that site. My personal experiences as a student lacking formal instruction with the US Civil Rights Movement in a public school context also initiated the curiosity for this research and for setting it in this location. I knew that choosing to focus this research in this setting of “my own backyard” could have had implications on this study and on me personally (Malone, 2003).

Additionally, my role as a former teacher of US Civil Rights Movement content and my personal interactions with students, teachers, and parents related to its teaching impacted the way I viewed the importance, necessity, and sometimes controversial nature of the subject matter within elementary social studies in the Deep South. As a former elementary teacher, I was intimately familiar with the marginalization of social studies. I understood from firsthand experiences its effects on instructional time and the lack of emphasis on social studies curriculum within the elementary schools. My educational training in my undergraduate and post-graduate experiences with an emphasis on constructivist practices and my former employment at a constructivism-based school all influenced the way in which I believed appropriate instructional practices were chosen and implemented in the early childhood and elementary grades. I knew that my own teaching beliefs influenced my teaching practices and the instructional choices I made in my classroom; however, I conceded that on occasion my own teaching beliefs did not parallel the instructional practices evident in my classroom.
During the Study

As the study began, I sensed that the teachers were slightly nervous to be a part of a research study, as they had not had such involvements prior to my work in their classrooms. I began to feel that because of my educational and life experiences and my position as a researcher were dissimilar than that of my participants, it was necessary to continually promote rapport and maintain appropriate power dynamics within the context of this study. Their openness in interviews was apparent as they began to feel more comfortable with my presence in their classrooms over time and as they engaged in multiple sessions of interviews.

The teachers would at times ask, “Are you seeing what you want?” or “Are you getting what you need?” from the study. Continual reassurance that this study intended to obtain data from real teachers in existent classrooms teaching actual fourth grade students, seemed to ease apprehension. To make sure teachers were not performing in ways they perceived to please me, I continually reminded them that all I wanted or needed was their descriptions of instructional practices related to teaching the movement along with their beliefs and rationale using those instructional practices for teaching that movement. I told them all I wanted or needed to see was their real, demonstrated practices of teaching the movement in fourth grade social studies. I explained that it was not helpful for them to contrive anything, and that it was important to actually tell about and show how real elementary social studies teachers teach the US Civil Rights Movement. It was apparent in their interviews and observations they accepted this notion of their work as important documentation of existent practices, rationales, and beliefs in regard to teaching the movement in elementary schools; thus, they provided honest and trustworthy data to be collected. In consistently voicing the purpose of the work to the teachers, it also kept the intent of the study at the forefront of my mind and guided my purposes as the researcher, as well.
As a Caucasian, Southern, female, former elementary and early childhood teacher, I knew it was necessary to continually revisit my own biases, assumptions, and experiences throughout the research. I began to note some areas that had to be addressed. Because I consider myself to be a constructivist educator and have specific ways of describing my own teaching, it was difficult for me when the three experienced teachers within this collective case study were unable to describe their teaching beliefs and rationale clearly. I began to note that I needed to take particular care to describe their teaching beliefs and rationale as the provided information about these areas in other ways than stating their philosophies directly. As I conducted the research, I realized the teachers in this study began to state differing opinions than I hold, and therefore, I needed to be sensitive to how they described their beliefs influenced their teaching while recording their descriptions without bias. As they began to state their comments of how they were not prepared or discomforted by teaching topics related to politics and current events in teaching of the movement to students, I needed to accurately convey their thoughts and reasons although they differed from my own practices. Though my gender, race, and socio-economic status were similar to the participants’, I soon realized that they used language and positioned themselves and their students in differing ways than I had in my own elementary classrooms and with my former elementary students. Because of this it was essential to note their ways of describing race and their students in their own words without editing from the researcher. All of these areas were revisited throughout the study because of the reflexive nature of true qualitative research.

**After the Study**

After all data was collected and after analysis had occurred, the reporting of the data caused some difficulty for me. As I tried to write about the thematized data, it was difficult to
separate the analysis of the findings from my interpretation of those findings. As I continually revised and edited with help from experts in the field of educational curriculum and instruction and research conducted there within, this separation was possible. I was able to isolate the findings from the interpretation and have presented both in a way that aims to explain the results first and then display my elucidation of those findings later. Because of this reflective and continual process, it is hoped that the readers of this work are able to draw conclusions from the work presented without being led by my own interpretations. Persistent and specific attention through reflexive practices was taken to ensure that this could occur.

Boundaries of the Study

This research study sought to examine topics guided through investigating the research questions outlined in the introduction of this chapter. Participants, setting, and time were boundaries that contextualized the research from multiple cases surrounding a central issue into one multi-case study (Yin, 2009). The research participants involved in this study were three, fourth-grade elementary teachers. The setting of the study was limited to two elementary schools in two separate and differing school systems within one county in Alabama. This collective case study was bounded within the time frame of the fall semester of the 2014-2015 school year.

Settings of the Study

The two elementary schools that served as data collection sites for this research were located in the southeastern region of the State of Alabama. The two schools were from two differing school systems, but were located within the same county, and were within thirteen miles of one another. These two school systems were chosen because of:
1.) The contentious racial climate that exists within their county-

Evidence of the schools’ community environment is included in news articles detailing recent events that occurred within the county where both schools are located. These articles include the display of a President Barack Obama effigy and threat, a cross burning, and racial equality public solidarity attempts (see Appendix A).

2.) The resegregation that is occurring as predominately white families are moving their children from the Azalea School System to the Magnolia School System-

Evidence of school resegregation includes variance in the racial demographics of the student population from the Azalea School System to the Magnolia School System (see four later sections documenting demographics of Azalea and Magnolia School Systems and Sky and Carmine Elementary Schools).

3.) Their close proximity to key locations of major events in the Civil Rights Movement-

Both schools were located within approximately 85 miles (1.5 hours travel time) of Montgomery and within 175 miles (3 hours travel time) of Birmingham.

4.) Their predominately white faculty

Demographic information revealed that few African American faculty members were employed in either of the schools selected for this study (Sky Elementary School, n=2, Carmine Elementary School, n=1).

Names and other identifying factors have been excluded from all materials related to the sites of this study. The names of the news stories’ authors in the appendices have been included to give them credit for their work, though their affiliations and some names and organizations within the articles have been replaced with asterisks. Additionally, these news sources have not
been cited in the reference section with their sources included. Omissions were made to avoid compromising the anonymity of the research setting’s location and to avoid identifying participants in this study. The news articles were not included to represent the actions and views of all people in this location. They were incorporated to provide documented evidence of the setting’s current racial climate, which could have impacted this research.

**Sky Elementary School (pseudonym) in Azalea School System (pseudonym)**

Sky Elementary School was one school in the Azalea School System. Azalea School System consisted of one all-kindergarten school, two elementary schools serving grades 1-5, one middle school serving grades 6-8, a high school serving grades 9-12, and an alternative school serving select students from grades 6-12. All schools within this school system were considered Title I schools due to the low-socioeconomic status of the student population served by all of the schools. Two of the schools within the district had significant ties to the US Civil Rights Movement and desegregation era as both were previously all-African American schools and were named for local, esteemed African American educators. Particularly, the middle school in this school system had a strong alumni base that regularly celebrated the rich historical heritage that surrounded this once all African American school through their reunions and community events.

All further demographic data was supplied by Azalea School System and reflected the statistics for the 2014-2015 school year. The school system employed 189 certified personnel for its 2,196 students. Student demographics were 47% female (n=1,042) and 53% male (n=1,154). Ethnicities in the school system were comprised of 48% African American (n=1,051), .2% American Indian/Alaskan (n=5), 1% Asian (n=23), 46% Caucasian (n=1,021), 3% Multi-Race (n=70), and .05% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (n=1). Of the 2,196 students
served by the Azalea School System, 59% (n=1,294) qualified to receive free lunch, 5% (n=109) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 36% (n=793) students paid for lunch.

**Carmine Elementary School (pseudonym) in Magnolia School System (pseudonym)**

Carmine Elementary School was one school in the Magnolia School System. Magnolia School System was comprised of seven schools. The seven schools included three elementary schools. One elementary school served Kindergarten-4 students, and the other two elementary schools served Kindergarten-6 students. This system had one middle school serving grades 5-8. There were two high schools in Magnolia School System; one high school served grades 7-12 and the other high school served 9-12. The school district also had one school that served all grades Kindergarten-12. Five of the seven schools within the system were Title I schools. Carmine Elementary School was not one of the five Title I schools.

All further demographic data was supplied by Magnolia School System and reflected the statistics for the 2014-2015 school year. Magnolia School System employed 215 certified teachers and served 3,063 students. Student demographics were 49% female (n=1,486) and 51% male (n=1,577). Ethnicities in the school system were comprised of 17% African American (n=519), .3% American Indian/Alaskan (n=8), .5% Asian (n=16), 77% Caucasian (n=2,365), 2% Hispanic (n=76), 2% Multi-Race (n=72), and .2% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (n=7). Of the 3,063 students served by the Magnolia School System, 52% (n=1,608) qualified to receive free lunch, 7% (n=203) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 41% (n=1,252) students paid for lunch.

**Sky Elementary School**

Sky Elementary School was a small, grades 1-5 elementary school with a 2014-2015 population of approximately 304 students. According to the National Center for Education
Statistics (2014), this school was considered “Rural, Fringe” which means it was, “Census-defined rural territory that is less than or equal to 5 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is less than or equal to 2.5 miles from an urban cluster” (New Urban-Centric Locale Codes Section, para. 10). All demographics discussed below were reported by Sky Elementary School for the 2014-2015 school year. The demographics for this school included 44% female (n=133) and 56% male (n=171). Ethnicities in the school were comprised of 54% African American (n=165), 0% American Indian/Alaskan (n=0), 2% Asian (n=7), 38% Caucasian (n=117), 4% Multi-Race (n=12), .3% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (n=1), and .7% Not-Specified (n=2). Of the 304 students served by Sky Elementary School, 68% (n=206) qualified to receive free lunch, 5% (n=16) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 26% (n=78) students paid for lunch. Note that only 300 students’ lunch statuses were reported. Four students’ lunch statuses were not reported by Sky Elementary for the 304 enrolled students. There were 21 certified faculty members employed within this school for the 2015-2015 school year, with a demographic make-up of 9.5% (n=2) African American faculty and 90.5% Caucasian (n=19) faculty.

**Carmine Elementary School**

Carmine Elementary School served Kindergarten-6 graders. The student population was 475 students in the 2014-2015 school year. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2014), this school was considered “Rural: Distant” which means, “Census-defined rural territory that is more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster” (New Urban-Centric Locale Codes Section, para. 11). The demographics for this school included 49% female (n=233) and 51% male (n=242). Ethnicities in the school were
comprised of 7% African American (n=34), 0% American Indian/Alaskan (n=0), 0% Asian (n=0), 90% Caucasian (n=426), .6% Hispanic (n=3), 1% Multi-Race (n=5), .2% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (n=1), and 0% Not-Specified (n=0). Note that the number of ethnicities (n=469) does not reflect the total number of students (n=475). Six students’ ethnicities were not accounted for in the data supplied by Carmine Elementary School. Of the 475 students served by Carmine Elementary School, 43% (n=202) qualified to receive free lunch, 10% (n=47) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 48% (n=226) students paid for lunch. This faculty for the 2014-2015 school year was comprised of 33 certified faculty members with a demographic makeup of 3% African American (n=1) and 97% Caucasian (n=32).

Participants

Participants for this study were selected using mixed purposeful sampling, indicating that a combination of purposeful sampling choices occurred, including criterion and homogeneous sampling. “Purposive sampling techniques are primarily used in qualitative studies and may be defined as selecting units (e.g., individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study’s questions” (Teddlie & Yu, 2007, p. 77). Purposeful sampling designates that participants were selected intentionally because of their ability to address particular areas of study that might not be addressed from other selections of participants (Maxwell, 1997). Purposive sampling took place prior to the beginning of the study, and selection was largely dependent on the judgment of the researcher (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

Criterion sampling defines the selection of participants based on “picking all cases that meet some criterion” (Patton, 2002, p. 243). Participant selection was impacted by Alabama state curriculum standards specifically mandating that instructors teach the US Civil Rights Movement in certain grade levels. It was necessary to narrow the scope of grade levels studied
because there are few grade levels in Alabama in which teachers were required to teach topics associated with the US Civil Rights Movement. Fourth grade was selected for investigation, as it had the greatest amount of emphasis placed on the US Civil Rights Movement within the state standards. Fourth-grade teachers are required to teach the US Civil Rights Movement according to state social studies required teaching standards. Thus, fourth-grade teachers were chosen for participation.

It was expected also that because the Alabama Course of Study (Alabama Department of Education, 2010) requires the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in the fourth grade, participating teachers from this grade level would have some beliefs about teaching thus topic in their social studies curriculum. They would also be familiar with related instructional practices that they could share and that could be observed in their social studies classrooms. Because of these established criteria, criterion sampling occurred in participant selection for this collective case study. Criteria for the sampling was based on the school systems in which teachers were employed (location), subject matter they taught (elementary social studies), and the grade level in which they taught (fourth grade).

Homogeneous sampling occurred next. After the participants were selected according to the aforementioned criteria, the sampling focused on two particular settings that included the participants. Homogeneous sampling occurred when participants were selected specifically for the need to describe a small, similar, and “particular subgroup in depth” (Patton, 2002, p. 235). A homogeneous sample was established because all three of the participants in this study included every fourth-grade social studies teacher in the two elementary schools, but not all fourth-grade teachers in the systems of the setting sites.
After initial contact was made with the participants, they were asked to sign a letter of informed consent that allowed research to be conducted within their classrooms (see Appendix B). Additionally, the two elementary school principals at the two setting sites were asked to sign a letter of consent making them fully aware of the research taking place in their schools (see Appendix C). Finally, the superintendents of both school systems signed a similar letter of consent (see Appendix D) giving the researcher permission to conduct the collective case study in the two different school systems. Participants were not compensated monetarily for their participation in this research, though after the conclusion of the research project, the participants each received several social studies teaching resources. These resources included books, lessons, ideas, activities, and other teaching aids related to the instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students.

**Defining Characteristics of Instructional Practices**

Instructional practices, as defined by the Library of Congress (2015), are “the specific teaching methods that guide interaction in the classroom” (Best Instructional Practices section, para. 1). According to the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Social Studies in the Middle School (1991), instructional practices are vitally important to students’ learning outcomes, as “the instructional practices the teacher selects are as important as content selections” (Social Studies Instructional Practices section, para. 1). Social studies instructional strategies run on a continuum from traditional practices involving lower-level student engagement and higher teacher control, to experiential and inquiry-based practices fostering higher-levels of student engagement and lesser teacher control. Traditional teacher practices in social studies involve knowledge transmission to students (Stradling, 2003), often involve the
reading of a central text (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Loewen, 2007), and frequently use social studies
to teach language arts skills (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012; Houser, 1995).

Elementary social studies teachers frequently use traditional practices of whole-group,
teacher-centered instructional strategies including lectures with an emphasis on remembering
facts as opposed to more student-centered instructional practices (Lucey, Shifflet, & Weilbacher,
2014). Other instructional practices pervasive in elementary education include “…homework
assigned from a textbook, review of assignments in class, extensive teacher talk (lecturing,
clarifying, and explaining), recitation, and seatwork, interspersed with occasional use of
audiovisual aids and field trips” (Cuban, 1991, p. 203). Practices like “these relatively passive
types of learning…may be inadequate for development of ideas, values, and perspectives”
(Bolinger & Warren, 2007, p. 76).

Since the implementation of Common Core Standards’ adoption, or at least inclusion,
into states’ standards, there has been a greater push for more engaging, active, and student-
centered instructional practices in elementary education (National Governors Association Center
for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010). This has occurred because
education leaders realized “When students are allowed to be more autonomous in directing their
learning, self-initiated inquiry can lead to a deeper understanding of the content and extend
connections to existing schema” (Lucey, Shifflet, & Weilbacher, 2014). The College, Career,
and Civic (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards, written partially in response to
Common Core recommendations, calls for high-engagement instructional practices to promote
critical thinking skills and foster students’ inquiry with social studies content (NCSS, 2013).
Instructional practices supported by the C3 Framework challenge teachers to, “…think about
how the meaningful concepts and skills of civics, economics, geography, and history play out across an inquiry arc” (Grant, 2013).

The C3 framework specifies particular instructional practices to support meaningful learning with social studies skills and content (NCSS, 2013). These practices include teacher actions that foster students’ engagement over four dimensions including:

- **Dimension 1- Developing questions and then planning inquiries**
- **Dimension 2- Applying disciplinary concepts and tools**
- **Dimension 3- Evaluating sources and using evidence**
- **Dimension 4- Communicating conclusions and taking informed action (NCSS).**

This framework of teaching social studies makes a shift from traditional approaches to more inquiry-based instructional practices (Herczog, 2013). This shift compels teachers to use practices that: (1) place inquiry at the center of instruction, (2) maintain integrity to the discipline of social studies while fostering interdisciplinary connections, (3) engage students in taking informed action and applying knowledge in real contexts, and (4) frame learning on an instructional and inquiry continuum (Herczog, 2013).

For the purposes of this research, instructional practices were characterized as strategies teachers used for conveyance of curriculum standards related to the US Civil Rights Movement. Because this study aimed to explore instructional practices as they were described and demonstrated, it was necessary to define the characteristics that delineated instructional practices to be observed. Essentially, what were teachers doing so that their students could learn? In this study, characteristics considered to be indicative of observable instructional practices included teachers’ classroom behaviors, chosen methods of communication, approaches used to involve students in lessons, and the particular structuring and creating of tasks for students to perform.
The practices were identified through what teachers’ actions were in their classrooms, the strategies they employed related to students’ learning, and the ways in which they engaged students during lessons with material related to the movement.

**Data Collection Methods**

According to Yin, “A major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use many different sources of evidence” (2009, p. 114-115). For this collective case study, data collection involved multiple sources of the most common forms of qualitative data collection including interviews, observations, and document analysis (Patton, 2002). “Most scholars agree that qualitative research involves….observational data [and] interview data” though there are numerous ways to analyze and interpret these types of data through varying qualitative methods (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005, p. 18). The adapted use of the CoRe and PaP-eR (Loughran, Mulhall, & Berry, 2004; Mulhall, Berry, & Loughran, 2003) format of instrumentation was utilized also for its contributions to qualitative research and specifically for its usefulness in this collective case study. Each of these areas of data collection is discussed individually and with further detail in following sections. They are outlined in the overview of research investigation (see Table 4) and within the prospective data collection timeframe (see Table 5). Table 4 condenses specific elements included in this collective case study. Components incorporated into Table 4 are the investigation questions informing the study, data collection methods to be used, data analyses approaches, and a short description of participants. Table 5 displays an abridged timeline of the eight week study. This table includes the specific weeks for the study along with methods of data collection for those weeks. Additionally, Table 5 outlines the amount of sources that were collected within the timeframe for this research investigation.

In the development of this multi-case study, patterns and themes from all sources were analyzed to develop the case fully and to represent many and varied aspects of teacher beliefs.
and practices corroborated through these data collection sources. According to Minichiello and Kottler (2009) “…qualitative methods embrace and honor subjective experience…” (p. 8). Because of this connection to personal and individual experiences, it was necessary to employ data collection methods that reflected the expressions of individual teachers and their particular beliefs and instructional practices. By collecting varied samples of these beliefs and practices regarding instruction related to the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies, the patterns and themes that emerged could be examined for their relation to the research questions of this study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Collection Methods</th>
<th>Data Analyses</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement? | - Semi-Structured Formal Pre-Interviews  
- CoRe and PaP-eR Pre-Observational Interviews  
- Artifact Collection (Lesson Plans)  
- CoRe and PaP-eR Instrument  
- Jottings  
- Field Notes  
- Semi-Structured Formal Post-Interviews | - Constructivist Grounded Theory Approach  
- Constant Comparative Analysis  
- Emergent Theoretical Sampling  
- Within-Case and Across-Case Comparison  
- Open-Coding  
- Analytic Memoing  
- Axial Coding  
- Selective Coding | 3 (Fourth-Grade) Elementary Teachers |
| 1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement? |                                                                                          |                                                                              |                                   |
| 1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement? |                                                                                          |                                                                              |                                   |
| 2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms? |                                                                                          |                                                                              |                                   |
Table 5  
*Data Collection Timeframe*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weeks</th>
<th>Method of Data Collection</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early October  (Weeks 1-2)</td>
<td>Semi-Structured Formal Pre-Interviews</td>
<td>1 semi-structured formal interview per participant (3 total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid and Late October- Early November (Weeks 3-6)</td>
<td>Collection of Lesson Plan Artifacts</td>
<td>2 lesson plans per teacher (6 total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Observational (CoRe and PaP-eR) Interview 1; Observation 1 (Jottings and Field Notes)</td>
<td>2 pre-observational interviews per participant (6 total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-Observational (CoRe and PaP-eR) Interview 2; Observation 2 (Jottings and Field Notes)</td>
<td>2 observations per participant (6 total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid to Late November (Weeks 7-8)</td>
<td>Post Interviews</td>
<td>1 per participant (3 total)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interviews

Interviews are an essential component of any qualitative research project aiming to elicit in-depth and intimate forms of knowledge that are unlikely to be stimulated from more quantified methods (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008). “Undoubtedly, interviewing is the most commonly used method of data collection in qualitative research…” (King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 1) for its abilities to elucidate data from participants’ personal experiences and points of view. Interviews served as the first of the three primary data sources in this research. Interviews as conducted within this study involved pre-interviews, adapted CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews, post-interviews, and informal and unstructured conversational discussions. All data obtained from any of these interview formats throughout the study were audio-recorded and transcribed as precisely as possible for accurate, valid, and trustworthy data analysis. Each of the particular interview types utilized in this study are discussed with more detail in the following subsections.

Semi-structured formal pre-interviews. Pre-interviews for this study involved one formal semi-structured interview (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008; Merriam, 2009) with each participating teacher, resulting in three, formal, semi-structured interviews using the interview protocol (see Appendix E). The questions established in the interview protocol were intended to stimulate data that would be useful in answering the research questions. Though the open-ended interview questions were outlined specifically within the interview protocol, further probing ensued also as needed to provide more information related to this investigation’s research questions. These formal interviews took 30 to 45 minutes and were scheduled at the convenience of the participants prior to any observations of teaching practices. Interviews took
place at the schools in which participants were employed and occurred at the end of the school day after students were released and during planning periods while students were not present.

**Pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR adapted interviews.** An adapted CoRe and PaP-eR format instrument (Loughran, Mulhall, & Berry, 2004; Mulhall, Berry, & Loughran, 2003) (see Appendix F) was used for pre-interviews prior to observations in this study. It was slightly modified for its application to the particular research aspects of this study involving prompts specific to elementary social studies and the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, as opposed to its original use in the content area of science. Because the CoRe and PaP-eR instrument was administered prior to all observations within this study, it was implemented with each of the three teachers on two separate observations. This resulted in six short pre-interviews using the CoRe and PaP-eR instrument. The nature of the CoRe and PaP-eR instrument has implicit ties to examining teachers’ actual practices and the rationale behind their instructional choices. For this reason, the instrument served to answer the research questions related to teachers’ beliefs and practices concerning the US Civil Rights Movement.

The CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews asked particular questions and used prompts geared to lessons, regarding the US Civil Rights Movement, that participants planned and then taught to their fourth-grade students. Pre-observational interviews took place after the participants had planned their lessons and submitted the artifacts for analysis, but before observations of the lessons occurred. These CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews lasted 20 to 30 minutes and took place at the schools in which the participants were employed after school and during teacher planning periods. No students were present during any of the CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews.
The CoRe and PaP-eR instrument is a two-part method that uses the Content Representation section (CoRe) in combination with the Pedagogical and Professional Experience Repertoires (PaP-eR) to examine aspects of teachers’ Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and its application in practice to instructional methods used in the classroom. The Content Representation Instrument (CoRe) is an instrumentation method developed by Loughran, Mulhall, and Berry (2004) as a way to “help codify teachers’ knowledge in a common way across the content area being examined and, through this, to identify important features of the content that…teachers recognize and respond to in their teaching of such content” (p. 376).

According to Pamela Mulhall, Amanda Berry and John Loughran (2003),

A CoRe (Content Representation) provides an overview of how teachers approach the teaching of the whole of a topic and the reasons for that approach - what content is taught and how and why - in the form of propositions. Importantly, a CoRe refers to the teaching of a particular topic to a particular group of students. (p. 6)

The PaP-eR component of the CoRe and PaP-eR instrument is a more in-depth and narrative personal description of a teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) that refers to a precise and specific area of content, rather than a broad range of related ideas (Loughran, Berry & Mulhall, 2012; Loughran, Milroy, Berry, Gunstone, & Mulhall, 2001; Loughran, Mulhall, & Berry, 2004).

A PaP-eR is designed to purposefully unpack a teacher’s thinking about a particular aspect of PCK in that given content, and so is largely based around classroom practice. PaP-eRs are intended to represent the teacher’s reasoning; that is, the thinking and actions of a successful…teacher in teaching specific aspects (Loughran, Berry & Mulhall, 2012, p. 19).
This part of the instrument was used in the transcription and coding of pre-observational CoRe interviews that isolated differing and particular ideas teachers selected as being key US Civil Rights Movement concepts they taught.

**Post-interviews.** Post-interviews were conducted with each participant after all pre-interviews, pre-observation CoRe and PaP-eR interviews, classroom observations, and artifact analyses of lesson plans had taken place. Post-interviews served as a time for member checking and clarification of prior unanswered questions or additional explanation of prior observations and interview data. Questions for these interviews were not formalized and predetermined as no intervention was included in the research that necessitated the protocol for post-interviews to be the same for all teachers. Questions for the post-interviews arose naturally through data collection. They were established throughout the study and as coding transpired. The questions originated organically in order to facilitate post-interviews with appropriate queries that helped clarify the study and allowed for participants’ perspectives to be explored in final ways.

**Informal and unstructured interviews.** Informal occasions for discussions with teacher participants arose throughout this research process. Because of the nature of this qualitative research and its attention to teachers’ beliefs and practices, there were occasions within the study where informal conversations surrounding these topics transpired naturally during data collection. In the event of notable exchanges relevant to the research questions, these encounters were recorded through jottings to be included in the analysis along with other pertinent data. Such informal conversations were incorporated in the data analysis when information from the discussions was germane to the components of the research, though all information in such interactions did not necessitate jottings and their future analysis.
Lesson Plan Documents as Artifacts

Each participant in this study was asked to plan and teach two lessons based on the Alabama Course of Study (Alabama Department of Education, 2010) standards for fourth-grade social studies involving the US Civil Rights Movement. All lesson plan artifacts were collected by the researcher prior to the observations. The lesson plans were all collected in hard copy format by the discretion of the participants. These lessons were representative of instruction that the three teachers believed to be adequate examples of appropriately conveying the content knowledge and skills related to the US Civil Rights Movement. These lesson plans were considered artifacts and collected in addition to the data from interviews and observations to supplement, verify, or contradict the findings from those sources. Ian Hodder (1994) referred to artifacts in qualitative research as “intended and unintended residues of human interactions” (p. 394). As the lesson plans were collected as empirical materials that could be examined for their constructions of “human interaction”, they served to substantiate or challenge the beliefs, rationale, and practices espoused in the interviews and observations of the participants who wrote these plans.

Observations

Observational data served as the third of the three primary sources of data for this collective case study. Observations are one of the most typical and useful methods of data collection in qualitative research (Esterberg, 2001; Maxwell, 2013; Patton, 2002). By using observations in combination with interviewing, researchers are privy to more robust data including tone, setting, and other contextual information that can offer more complex analysis than just interview analysis alone (Biklen & Bogdan, 2006). The observations in this study were aided by the use of jottings and field notes, that later were used to construct analytic memos. Information regarding these data sources is outlined in subsequent paragraphs.
The observations in this study aimed to examine how teachers’ beliefs correlate, or do not correlate, to practices enacted within their elementary classrooms in relation to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in social studies. Additionally, observations identified pedagogical practices these elementary social studies teachers used to instruct their fourth-grade students about the US Civil Rights Movement. The participants and researcher scheduled two observations (n=6 observations total for the study) considering the schools’ calendar and allowing for the feasibility and convenience in each teacher’s classroom. The observations all occurred in the participants’ school settings during weeks three through six of the eight week study. The time frame for each observation ranged between 30 minutes to one full hour of instruction per lesson observed. Data were collected only in the form of handwritten accounts, as no videotaping or audiotaping took place in any of the observations.

**Observational jottings and field notes.** During the course of all six observations, copious and detailed observational jottings were recorded under the categories of descriptive account and researcher considerations and questions (see Appendix G). Jottings were written to “…jog the memory…”, “…enable the fieldworker to catch significant actions, and to construct evocative descriptions of the scene” (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995, p. 20). These jottings from the six observations were recorded in the form of bulleted notes, incomplete sentences, and complete thoughts. All jottings were written during the observations of the fourth-grade teachers, as they instructed lessons about the US Civil Rights Movement. All initial jottings were fleshed out later into extensive field notes and analytical memos that were further detailed and that extended the comments, thoughts, and annotations from the observations.

According to Cassandra Wells, Anna MacLeod, and Blythe Frank (2012), “Fieldnotes are written accounts filtered through the lens of the researcher, of what others in the research context
do and say and form the basis for later analysis” (p. 121). The elaborated field notes comprised of initial jottings served as a substantial body of data that aimed to illuminate the actual and real teacher practices happening in the elementary social studies classrooms. All field notes were used in the compilation of analytic memos and all levels of coding during the data analysis process (see “Grounded Theory Approach to Qualitative Analysis” section) sought to thematize and analyze the field notes for relevant information to answer the study’s research questions.

**Grounded Theory Approach to Qualitative Data Analysis**

A grounded theory approach was used for analyzing all of the data collected from interviews, observation, and lesson plan artifacts. “Grounded theory is a research methodology that has an enormous appeal for a range of disciplines due to its explanatory power” (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006, p. 7). This research study approached grounded theory from Charmaz’s (2006) constructivist framework, slightly differing from its original more positivist-leaning and traditional conceptions by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Constructivist grounded theory assumes that both the data and the analyses of the data are socially constructed, as well as contextually situated in time, space, culture, and situation (Charmaz, 2006). Recognizing the grounded theory approach as a constructivist process allows for its implementation as “flexible guidelines” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 17) in analyzing qualitative data sources for social research. Additionally, constructivist grounded theory avows that as researchers, “…we are part of the world we study and the data we collect. We construct our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices” (p. 19). Being aware of researcher reflexivity is essential in qualitative research and is a measure of the trustworthiness for which this study aims.

Qualitative research and constructivist grounded theory further recognize that analysis is an ongoing, constant, and cyclical practice (Creswell, 2013). Juliet Corbin and Anselm Strauss
(1990) explain that in grounded theory, “data collection and analysis are interrelated processes” (p. 6). Because of this interrelationship, data analysis began in this study with the first data collection of the formal semi-structured interview and continued throughout the research process. In using a grounded theory approach, this research study employed inductive methods of coding (Patton, 2002). The codes in this research study emerged as the data were sorted through categories and themes internal to the data, rather than operating from prior knowledge or arguments (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Constant comparative analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was conducted requiring all data from all sources (e.g., interviews, observations, lesson plan documents) to be analyzed against one another to compare codes’ and themes’ dissimilarities and likenesses. Additionally, emergent theoretical sampling (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978) took place compelling the researcher to make choices about data selection “on the basis of their potential manifestation or representation of important theoretical constructs” (Patton, 2002, p. 238). Both within-case analysis and across-case comparison (Ayres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003) were applied to develop essential categories and themes for further investigation.

The first layer of analysis using this approach was initial coding of the data obtained through all data sources. As coding occurred, analytic memos were made to note gaps in coding, to allow questions to emerge for future data collection, and to make note of tensions, contradictions, and correlations within and among the data sources (Charmaz, 2006: Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This writing of memos was in itself considered another layer of analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Provisional or open coding (Charmaz 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 1990, 2008) of data chunks took place, with the understanding that the early codes were subject to change as
more data were revealed. Next, axial coding was used to point out associations or
disconnections noted from the open coding (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, 2008). After this
disaggregation of the data, selective coding was used finally to isolate the central ideas noted
throughout and among all the data sources once theoretical saturation of the data developed

Because constructivist grounded theory is an emergent process, these phases described
were not meant to be linear in nature and were applied by the researcher as the data dictated
(Charmaz, 2006, 2008). The “flexibility of constructivist grounded theory guidelines can frame
inquiry and further imaginative engagement with data” that other analyses methods made not
provide (Charmaz, 2008, p. 168). In using grounded theory as an analysis methodology for the
qualitative and collective case study, the goal was to arrive at empirical findings rooted in the
core data explored. These findings were documented in a narrative form that offers a cohesive
theory related to the original research questions and are communicated through interrelated
concepts grounded and apparent in the data.

**Trustworthiness**

Many techniques were used throughout this research to ensure the trustworthiness of this
study. First, crystallization of the data occurred through recognition of several perspectives (all
participants and researcher), through multiple data sources (transcripts, CoRe and PaPeR
instruments, jottings, field notes, analytic memos) and through multiple data collection methods
over a lengthy time frame (interviews, lesson plan document artifacts, and observations).
Second, researcher reflexivity (Kleinsasser, 2000) as well as theoretical sensitivity (Glaser &
Strauss, 1967) were acknowledged over the course of the study. The researcher’s positionality
statement and assumptions are included in this chapter. Additionally, reflection continued
throughout the collection and analysis portions of the study by continual examination and
reexamination of the researcher’s personal role and impact on the research. Third, member checking ensued as participants were asked informally through unstructured conversations and formally in post-interviews to clarify, contextualize, explain, and verify researcher interpretations of the data. Fourth, negative cases found in the data that appeared through axial coding were acknowledged. Fifth, “thick descriptions” (Geertz, 1973; see also Ryle, 1971) were offered and attended to in order to provide conceptual and contextual information throughout the study. A final method to ensure trustworthiness in this qualitative collective case study was the peer review process that took place as a dissertation committee comprised of respected researchers in the field of education reviewed and assessed this body of work.

**Chapter Summary**

Chapter III has offered the methodology for this collective case study about teachers’ beliefs and instructional practices related to the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary education social studies. An overview was presented for the use of qualitative inquiry and case study research. Boundaries for this research investigation were documented that included detailed descriptions of the setting, participants, and timeframe of the study. Three primary sources of data collection methods were thoroughly explained within the sections discussing interviews (in the forms of semi-structured formal pre-interviews, pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR interviews (Loughran, Mulhall, & Berry, 2004; Mulhall, Berry, & Loughran, 2003), post-interviews, and informal and unstructured interviews), lesson plan documents as artifacts, and observations (including field notes and jottings). Data analysis methodology was explained as a constructivist grounded theory emergent approach to qualitative inquiry (Charmaz, 2006, 2008) including inductive methods of multi-layered coding and constant comparative analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Finally, trustworthiness and the measures used to ensure it were summarized in discussions of crystallization and the implementation of
member checking. Further measures of researcher reflexivity, recognition of negative cases, the use of thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973; see also Ryle, 1971), and the peer review process were explained.
CHAPTER IV
RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter reports results from a qualitative case study of three fourth-grade teachers’ instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement. The data collected in this chapter were obtained from lesson plan artifact analysis, interviews (semi-structured formal pre-interviews, CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews, post-interviews, and informal and unstructured interviews) and observations. The results reported here address the two main research questions and two sub-questions guiding this investigation:

1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?

2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?

Data examined in this chapter are separated by the three cases using teachers’ pseudonyms. First, each case begins with the teacher’s background. Second, an account of the teacher’s specific classroom dynamic is provided. Third, the lesson plans designed and written by each teacher are presented followed by the observational data of those lessons in
demonstration. Fifth, a within case analysis of emergent themes is included, separated by each case and relayed according to the two main research question and two sub-questions. Sixth, a chapter summary is given.

Teacher 1 - Mrs. Archer

Teacher Background

Mrs. Archer was a female Caucasian fourth-grade teacher in her mid-forties. She was married with a child in college who formerly attended the elementary school in which she taught. Her degrees included both a Bachelor’s and a Master’s in elementary education from the same college located in the region where she taught. Mrs. Archer had been teaching for nearly 20 years, having experience in both early elementary and upper elementary classrooms. Except for three years, she had taught at the same school. Roughly half of her time had been spent in teaching early elementary with the other half in upper elementary, though Mrs. Archer stated “Fourth grade’s my love. I just love the age of the kids. They’re very independent and they have an opinion but, I just love the age.”

When asked if she enjoyed teaching Alabama history and social studies, Mrs. Archer stated, “Oh, I love it!” Explaining why she enjoyed teaching social studies, she said, “Well, I’ve always, I even liked it in high school. And, at one point, I even thought about majoring in history and teaching at the high school level. But then I thought, I can’t deal with high school children! (laughing)” Though she has been to “some different workshops,” Mrs. Archer explained she had not received much professional development in social studies or Alabama history at her school. She believed she had adequate content knowledge for teaching social studies and Alabama history to her fourth graders. She stated,

I won’t say that it’s the strongest in the world but I do have some background and I try to, if I find something when I’m researching to teach a topic. If I find something that I don’t
know, I’ll pull it in and I’ll research some more and, I’ll put it in the lesson because I think they need to know it as much as I need to know it.

Description of the Classroom Dynamic

Mrs. Archer taught in a departmentalized structure where her instruction had a social studies focus. In this structure, she was solely responsible for teaching Alabama history to all of the fourth graders in three different classes (n=68) in the afternoon, separated by homerooms. The class time for social studies was 45 minutes allocated per class. Throughout the morning, Mrs. Archer taught one fourth grade reading class.

In the fourth grade at Carmine Elementary there were 68 students, all receiving social studies instruction from Mrs. Archer. Of those 68 fourth grade students, 33 (49%) were female and 35 (51%) were male. Four students (6%) were African American, 63 students (93%) were Caucasian, and one student (1%) was Hispanic. Of the 68 students, 30 (44%) qualified to receive free lunch, four (6%) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 34 (50%) students paid full price for lunch. No data were provided for fourth grade regarding the number of students receiving special education services including gifted education.

In the sample social studies class time observed for the purposes of this research, the class demographics included 24 students. Of those 24 students, 11 (46%) were female and 13 (54%) were male. One student (4%) was African American, 22 students (92%) were Caucasian, and one student (4%) was Hispanic. Out of the 24 students, seven (29%) had been identified as gifted and received specific instruction once a week for two to three hours outside of their regular classrooms. No (0%) students in the class were identified as receiving special education services under an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). No data were provided for the number of students receiving free, reduced, and paid lunch for Mrs. Archer’s social studies sample class.
When asked about the demographics of the school in her pre-interview Mrs. Archer stated, “Well the school in general is primarily white. I mean we, when we go to a football, any athletic event, they’ll say ‘are y’all a private school?’ And we’re like, ‘No.’ So it’s very, I would say, let me think…” Mrs. Archer paused, trailed off from her sentence, and did not elaborate any further about the demographics of the school. She was given time to elaborate, but it appeared the conversation had made her uncomfortable and that she wished to move on to a different question.

Mrs. Archer’s classroom was organized in various arrangements on different occasions. Sometimes, the students were arranged in pairs, at other times rows of desks were positioned with the desks touching, and then sometimes students were placed in groups of four. The location of the desks was moved and used according to the various instructional strategies and lessons taught in the room. Mrs. Archer confirmed that she rearranges the room and the assignment of students’ seating frequently to engage students and to “change it up” so students are interested in the lessons and can work with different peers.

Mrs. Archer referred to the use of technology in her classroom as “limited” noting she had only three computers and an iPad for students’ usage. The school had a computer lab, but at the time of the interviews and observations, there had been no opportunities for teachers to reserve and use the lab with their own students for teaching extensions and learning opportunities. She described the computer lab as used by the computer lab teacher to cover the technology standards. When asked if there was any opportunity for teacher collaboration on students’ use of technology to integrate with social studies curriculum she explained, “If they [students] are through with what they are working on as far as what she [the computer lab teacher] has to cover, then she will work with us as to something that we have to do.” The students worked in the computer lab for 30 minutes weekly. As far as using technology in her
classroom, Mrs. Archer was able to show video clips and internet sites through the use of a
to her ceiling toward the whiteboard serving as a screen. She said the
projector worked for her lessons sometimes, but she, “would love a Smart Board” so students
could interact more with technology in her social studies lessons.

**Lesson Plan 1**

Mrs. Archer’s first lesson was entitled “What is a Civil Right and Rosa Parks: How I
Fought for Civil Rights.” The lesson was later found by the researcher to be taken offline from a
lesson planned by Kristin Lovenberg and posted to teachers.net on April 25, 2011 (Lovenberg, 2011). There were other similar sources on the internet, but Ms. Lovenberg’s appeared to be the
lesson plan Mrs. Archer submitted with slight modifications. This is assumed as no citation for
the source was given to indicate Mrs. Archer did not create the plan. It was not discovered by
the researcher that this was not an original plan until Teacher 2, Mrs. Beckett, taught a similar
lesson which initiated an internet search for confirmation that the plan was not created by either
of the teachers. This lesson was actually an adaptation of the “Blue Eyes-Brown Eyes” exercise
conducted by Jane Elliott with her class of third-graders in 1968 (Elliott, Yale University,
WGBH, & PBS DVD, 2003). This learning opportunity involved students in simulated
segregation through experiential activities involving eye color to illustrate group prejudice.

Mrs. Archer’s lesson planned (1) to demonstrate the inadequacies in many of the African
American schools of the pre-Civil Rights Movement era and (2) to involve students in an
experiential activity where they would empathize with schoolchildren of these segregated
schools with limited resources. Students would be separated into two “schools” as they entered
the classroom. All students receiving a pink card were in the pink school and were required to
give their school supplies to the green school’s students, those receiving a green card. Each
green school student had a textbook and all needed supplies. The name of the textbook was not provided. The pink school students had only one textbook and one pencil for all to share. The lesson plan indicated students in both schools would be assigned the same task: having ten minutes to research the US Civil Rights Movement and list 15 facts. It was assumed students would conclude it was much more difficult to complete the task without necessary resources, thereby simulating the lack of resources in many all-African American schools prior to desegregation.

The plan indicated discussion of fairness and treatment of people would occur post-simulation. Students would be asked about their understanding of civil rights and if they felt the simulation interfered with the civil rights of the pink school students. Following the discussion, the lesson plan specified a video clip from the internet about the Montgomery Bus Boycott would be played. The plan did not state what would occur after showing the video. No connections were stated indicating what students should conclude from all the sources: the simulation, discussion, and video.

Mrs. Archer included four objectives for the first lesson plan that were not on the online lesson plan serving as a model and resource:

1. Students will learn about civil rights.
2. Students will understand all people are created equal (sic) and deserve equal rights.
3. Students will learn about individual people who shaped history by reading stories and researching the time in which they lived.
4. Students will gain insight into the Civil Rights Movement.

The objectives were largely broad and non-descriptive as to what specifically students would be expected to accomplish within the lesson. The objectives, also, were inadequate in describing
what students should have been able achieve by the end of the lessons and not measurable in terms of how they would be assessed. Using the verbiage, “will learn”, “will understand”, and “will gain insight” did not allow for specific outcomes that could be measured with specific assessments. Mrs. Archer’s intentions of having students experience the inequalities of pre-integration schools were not reflected in any of the objectives. Reading stories and researching were included in the third objective; however, students were only briefly using these skills in the lesson as part of a simulation, rather than for obtaining information about the US Civil Rights Movement. The purpose of using these skills was for experiencing feelings of success or failure with completing a task due to availability of adequate or inadequate resources and not for actually learning about the movement from the texts.

**Observation 1**

During the first observation of Mrs. Archer’s lessons, the desks were arranged in horizontal rows with the desks touching. The teacher divided the class as they entered the room by giving them a card that was either pink or green. The students were seated with peers having a matching color card. As they were seated, Mrs. Archer asked the students with green cards to give all of their school supplies and textbooks to the students with the pink cards. After the students complied, she gave the green school students one pencil, one piece of paper, and one textbook. She stated, “Today our class will be in two separate schools, but you will be treated equal (sic).” Even though, you are separate, you will be equal.” After that, all students in the class were given the task of writing ten facts about the US Civil Rights Movement in ten minutes. The students in the green school began to note the unfairness and complain about their task stating, “I’m gonna make a zero!” and “It isn’t fair” and “We are not being treated equally!” They tried to work together with the one pencil and one textbook, but Mrs. Archer corrected
them by saying, “You have to stay in your own desk.” and “You can’t work together.” As this was happening, the pink school’s students were working quietly on listing facts they found using the supplies the green school’s students had given them. The pink school students were observed completing the task successfully. As the green school students’ outrage ensued, the teacher quietly monitored the class and responded to the green school’s students’ complaints stating, “You have the same supplies that the pink school has. They have pencils, you have a pencil. They have paper, you have a paper. They have books, you have a book.” The students in the green school became increasingly frustrated as noted by their exasperated expressions, noises, and verbal complaints.

After ten minutes, Mrs. Archer stopped the activity and said, “I need you to put your pencils down. Before we go on, would you like to continue to treat this classroom as two separate schools?” The students responded with a mixed reply of “yes” and “no.” Mrs. Archer began to ask probing questions, “Why?” and “Why not?” The students from the green school stated that, “It was mean.”, “You don’t have the same kind of freedom.”, and “Our teacher’s not fair!” The class became slightly unruly and some students were answering the question with unrelated information. Mrs. Archer attempted to gain control and asked for students to settle down. She called on individuals, who responded with connections to the US Civil Rights Movement without prompting by stating, “I don’t think it’s fair. It’s like Rosa Parks and the black schools and white schools.”, “This is racist.”, “Our teacher’s racist!”, and “You treated us like Rosa Parks.” Mrs. Archer did not respond to students’ statements and again asked, “Do you think I treated the green school as fairly as I did the pink school? Was I fair?” The students began to settle to the issue at hand, responding that the treatment was unfair. The pink school
students who had the advantages in the lesson were slower in agreeing that the practice put into place by the teacher was unfair to the green school’s students.

Mrs. Archer stated, “You were two separate schools, but at the beginning I told you you were treated equal (sic). Were you treated equal (sic)?” The students said they were not treated equally even though they were told that they were. Mrs. Archer responded, “You might be in separate schools, but you were not treated equal (sic). During the Civil Rights Movement this is how schools were.” One student responded, “Is this just for white people?” Mrs. Archer did not respond to clarify the student’s question or give a response. She went on, “You had schools for white children and schools for African Americans. This is what people said then. The schools were separate but they had the same stuff, but people said the schools were equal even though they were not.” No further discussion was held and no more connections to pre-integration were discussed.

Mrs. Archer changed directions asking the students “What is a civil right?” Students gave varied responses such as, “The rights that were made during the Civil War.”, “an African American’s rights”, “freedom”, “when people are not treated equal”, and “rights that every person has.” Mrs. Archer gave a definition of civil rights and wrote it on the board: “Civil rights are the personal rights protected and given by the law.” Mrs. Archer went on to make connections with previous lessons about the Bill of Rights in the Constitution. She then stated, “Some of our rights are listed in the state constitution and some are protected by federal laws.” Students were able to give examples of personal freedoms. After students failed to recall freedom of religion, Mrs. Archer asked the question, “How many of you go to church?” Many students raised their hands. Mrs. Archer then asked, “Did anyone tell you that you couldn’t?”
The children responded with a collective response of, “No.” Mrs. Archer went on to state, “You have freedom of religion. Nobody can tell you that you can’t go to this church or that church.”

One student at this point asked, “Freedom of slavery?” Mrs. Archer did not address the question or ask for further elaboration from the student. Mrs. Archer went on to say, “You also have the freedom to be discriminated against…” It is assumed that she meant you have the freedom from being discriminated against, but this was not clarified. She finished,

…whether you are American, African American, Mexican, Hispanic, boy or girl, young or old, disabled or not, civil rights are freedoms you enjoy whether they are written down or not. Some are written in the US Constitution’s Bill of Rights. Civil laws are the laws of nature, not generated by government.

Mrs. Archer began to give statements she believed to be illustrations of her point,

At one time only men could vote. It was once legal to discriminate against people just because they were African American. Not only were women discriminated against by not voting, African Americans were discriminated against and they were placed in separate schools.

Mrs. Archer next returned to the initial activity, asking, “How were your civil rights violated, green school?” The students answered that their supplies were given to the pink school and that they could not complete the assignment like they were expected to do. Mrs. Archer then went back to her initial question to the students prior to the discussion based on civil rights by asking, “Were both schools treated fairly?” The students demonstrated restless behavior at this point and many were talking and laughing among each other. Some students did respond with “No.” Mrs. Archer stated,

You didn’t have the same things the pink school had, but you were expected to do the same work. Again, this is what happened during the Civil Rights Movement when people kept saying that the separate schools were equal, but they weren’t.

Mrs. Archer asked for the supplies to be given back to their owners and for students to settle into their seats to watch a short video clip about Rosa Parks’ life. She then stated, “We are
no longer separate schools.” The students were shown a video from the Biography Channel on YouTube. There was no introduction given about the video, its purpose, or what students should look for as they watched. The video chosen featured Manning Marable, Professor of African-American Studies at Columbia University, who used words like “decision she made” and did not suggest Rosa was overtired. The video called her “a role model of courage in the face of racial injustice.” The narration described Rosa’s involvement in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) prior to the bus boycott and mentioned other African American women who had demonstrated resistance to the unfair bus practices prior to her protest. The video discussed her works with Congressman John Conyers, after the bus boycott, as an advocate for social justice and her efforts supporting the anti-apartheid movement in South Africa. Later in the video, Maya Angelou indicated Mrs. Parks said, “I’m not moving, my feet hurt;” a statement contradicted by Mrs. Parks in her own words on numerous occasions in press and in her autobiographical account (Parks & Haskins, 1992). After the video, no discussion was held about the images shown or information told through the film. Mrs. Archer explained, “Tomorrow we will be moving forward and looking at how Rosa Parks helped the Civil Rights Movement.” The students began to pack their supplies and one student said, “We can’t tell the other classes” at which point, Mrs. Archer addressed the class and stated, “No. Keep your mouths shut.” The students then left the classroom.

Lesson Plan 2

Mrs. Archer’s second lesson plan did not have a title so the intended topic could not immediately be identified. The main events included in the second lesson were (1) a discussion of whether people are ever justified in breaking the law, and (2) discussions of that question in relation to Rosa Parks and her actions as the impetus for the Montgomery Bus Boycott of 1955-
1956. The teacher planned to review the video of the Montgomery Bus Boycott from the prior
day and then involve students in discussing the central question of whether people are ever
justified in breaking the law. Mrs. Archer next would read the children’s trade book, *If a Bus
Could Talk* by Faith Ringgold (1999) to the class. Following the reading of the text, she planned
to ask the questions, “How would you feel if someone treated you unfairly because they thought
they were better than you?” and “Would you have given up your seat?”

After the reading of the Ringgold (1999) book and discussions, the class would be
divided into small groups. The groups would read articles about Rosa Parks and discuss why
Rosa Parks was, or was not, justified in breaking the law. The names, nor their sources, of the
articles were provided in the plan. The groups would be tasked with writing a short paragraph
explaining their reasons for or against the justification. After completing the paragraph, a whole
class discussion would take place centered on what Rosa Parks could have done instead of
breaking the law and whether other actions would have resulted in similar or dissimilar results.

Mrs. Archer’s second lesson plan indicated students would write a one page paper about
what they would have done if they were in Rosa Park’s situation and provide reasons for their
choices. Students would be given the choice of writing from the perspective of Rosa Parks, the
bus driver, or another passenger (black or white) who was on the bus that day. Finally, the plan
indicated students would engage in a class discussion to revisit the teacher’s initial question “Are
people ever justified in breaking the law?”

The objectives from Mrs. Archer’s first lesson plan were again used for this lesson:

1. Students will learn about civil rights.

2. Students will understand all people are created equal (sic) and deserve equal rights.
3. Students will learn about individual people who shaped history by reading stories and researching the time in which they lived.

4. Students will gain insight into the Civil Rights Movement.

The objectives were largely broad and non-descriptive as to what specifically students would be expected to accomplish within the lesson. The objectives, also, were inadequate in describing what students should achieve by the end of the lessons and not measurable in terms of how they would be assessed. Using the verbiage, “will learn”, “will understand”, and “will gain insight” did not allow for specific outcomes that could be measured with specific assessments. Mrs. Archer’s intention of having students consider appropriate or necessary actions of an individual citizen in prompting social change during the US Civil Rights Movement was not apparent in the objectives as they were written.

Observation 2

For the second observation, students were arranged in groups of four. As they entered the classroom, Mrs. Archer asked students to sit in their class seats according to their student numbers. Mrs. Archer began the lesson by saying, “Before we start with today’s lesson, the activity we did yesterday, hopefully you had time to talk about it with your parents and have had time to think about, was that activity fair?” The students looked around at their classmates, as it was apparent several students had not discussed the lesson at home with their families. Students responded with a collective “No.” Mrs. Archer asked them to elaborate on why they said “no” and students responded that they were not treated equally, as the green school had less materials with which to complete the lesson in the way expected. Mrs. Archer stated, “What I am hearing is that the green school didn’t have what the pink school did. When they were discriminating against the African Americans they said it was supposed to be separate but equal. Was that true
or false?” Students seemed confused as to how to answer. Mrs. Archer tried to clarify by asking, “Did we prove you can be separate, but equal?” The students then collectively answered, “False!” Their responses were confirmed with Mrs. Archer stating, "That was false" and following up by asking, "What is a civil right or an example of a civil right?" The students stated voting, freedom of religion, and freedom of speech. One student was called on and said, “A civil right that everyone in the United States has.” Mrs. Archer repeated the student’s response to the class.

Mrs. Archer stated, in this lesson, they would be talking about a lady named Rosa Parks. She asked, “Was Rosa Parks justified in breaking the law or is it ever okay to break the law?” The students responded with, “No.” One student stated, “No, you might get in trouble or hurt someone or yourself.” Another student responded, “Yes, Rosa Parks broke the law and changed history. It’s okay to break the law to make a difference.” Mrs. Archer said, “Okay, so we have some yeses and nos.” One student asked, “What if you were being rushed to the hospital?” Mrs. Archer asked, “What about it?” The student stated, “The speed limit.” Mrs. Archer said, “That’s what I mean. You have to think. You are going to think about it when you work with your groups.”

Mrs. Archer told the class she was going to read the fictional children’s trade book, *If a Bus Could Talk* by Faith Ringgold (1999). As Mrs. Archer read the story, the book established Rosa Parks as the patroness of the US Civil Rights Movement and said bus segregation was the worst form of segregation. It mentioned the Ku Klux Klan and used the term, “white sympathizers.” Mrs. Archer did not stop to discuss any of the terms or ideas in the book to clarify points or to elicit questions from the students. The children did not ask questions either. As she finished reading the story, the students all clapped. Mrs. Archer stated, “We know from
the book that Rosa Parks was treated unfairly. How would you feel if someone treated you unfairly because they thought they were better than you?” One student answered, “Mad.” A second student said, “That’s like taking food out of someone’s mouth.” Mrs. Archer asked the first student, “Why would you be mad?” The first student answered, “I don’t see where that’s right to mistreat someone.” Mrs. Archer did not acknowledge this response with any further comments, nor did she recognize the second student’s comment. A third student said, “Sad and mad.” Mrs. Archer asked, “Why would you be sad?” The student did not give a response and then Mrs. Archer moved on with her lesson. She told the students, “Rosa Parks wouldn’t give her seat because she was standing up for other African Americans.” She then asked, “Would you have given up your seat?” The students responded with, “Yes, I would. It is the nice thing to do, but I wouldn’t want to go to jail.” Another student said, “No, I ain’t going to jail!” Mrs. Archer told the class,

Some of you say you would and some say you wouldn’t, and that’s fine. There’s not a right or wrong answer. In your groups, you will receive some articles. I want you to think about, was she justified in breaking the law? Was she right to break the law? As you read, write a short answer for your group. One of you will read it aloud to the group.

Mrs. Archer distributed the articles to the groups. The articles were not sourced within the lesson plan, but when asked during a pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR interview, Mrs. Archer explained she had selected the articles from the Scholastic online magazine website (Scholastic, 2014). She stated they included, “…one about the actual, when Rosa Parks was arrested. There was another about the boycott itself. There’s another one about Dr. King’s speech.” In each group, one student read as the others listened to the short articles. After students heard the articles read, they began to write their answers as to whether or not Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law. Some groups argued about which group members would read and write and settled those negotiations among themselves before writing. After the student
groups had time to work, they shared their responses with the class. All student groups decided Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law. Their responses were, “She was brave and changed the world for her fellow African Americans.”, “God wouldn’t have made people different colors if he didn’t want people to get along.”, and “I paid for the seat, and I would punch someone.” Mrs. Archer asked, “Were they protesting violently or non-violently?” The children responded, “non-violently” and then Mrs. Archer stated, “So you wouldn’t be punching anyone in the head.”

Mrs. Archer asked the students to confer with their groups and discuss if Rosa Parks had given up her seat, would the US Civil Rights Movement have been any different. She asked, “How did what Rosa did effect the Civil Rights Movement?” and “Would it have mattered if she had acted differently?” The students conferred in their groups. Students responded with, “Blacks might not be able to go to school with us.” The African American student in the class responded with irritation. Her body language and facial expression showed agitation and she said something aloud, but it was unintelligible to the researcher. Mrs. Archer heard her comment and responded directly to her. Mrs. Archer, stated, “He’s not being ugly, Shelly (pseudonym).”

Mrs. Archer told the students that if Rosa Parks had not reacted in the way she did on the bus,

Our schools might still be separated. Things could have been totally different. She knew she would be arrested and she knew she might go to jail. So, now I am going to ask my first question again. Was Rosa Parks justified in breaking the law?

Mrs. Archer gave students time to think about their answers to the questions before she began taking responses aloud from students. The responses were varied, including, “Yes, because she was standing up for herself.”, “Yes, because he could have sat beside her.”, “Yes, because even if she broke the law and I know she’s a black and I’m a white, but we have the same heart.”,
“Yes, if she didn’t do that again.”, and “Yes, she didn’t stand up for Whites, she stood up for them.” Mrs. Archer did not respond to any of the statements her students made.

The lesson concluded with the question, “What is one thing that you will remember from this lesson?” One student responded with, “Rosa Parks changed history.” Mrs. Archer did not respond to the student’s statement. She said, “This is not the last time we will talk about this. We will talk again about this around the month of February. We will talk about how it started, the outcome, more events, and more people.” She thanked the students for their participation and their attention and dismissed them to change classes.

Teacher 2 - Mrs. Beckett

Teacher Background

Mrs. Beckett was a female Caucasian fourth-grade teacher in her mid-forties. Mrs. Beckett was married and had children who attended school within the Azalea School System. She held a Bachelor’s degree in early childhood/elementary education and a Master’s degree in elementary education from two different universities within the state where she taught. For more than 20 years, Mrs. Beckett had taught in public schools. Her primary teaching experiences had been in resource intervention teaching where she taught students who struggled with literacy skills, but were not receiving special education services. Mrs. Beckett was one of two fourth grade teachers at Sky Elementary and she was responsible for teaching all subjects.

Description of Classroom Dynamic

Mrs. Beckett was accountable for teaching social studies to her homeroom students (n=25). She stated in fourth grade, Alabama history was the subject taught during social studies instruction. When asked how much time, daily, was allotted to this social studies instruction, Mrs. Beckett reported, “On a regular day, it’s whatever we have time left to cover. That’s the
honest truth. You know if we have 30 minutes left, then we hit what we can in that 30 minutes.”

Because her homeroom, reading, and math classes were tracked, she primarily taught students who were lower performing in math and reading in her social studies class. Mrs. Beckett called this “teach[ing] all of the remedial subjects…to just a variety of, you know, of kids.” No particular evidence was given to support this claim other than her statement that a majority of students with behavioral and academic issues were purposefully placed in her homeroom by administration. Mrs. Beckett was additionally responsible for teaching one whole class of reading and one whole class of math each day to students needing remedial math and reading interventions. Most of these students were already in her homeroom. Students in her homeroom who performed on or above grade level traveled to the other fourth grade teacher for math and reading instruction, but stayed with Mrs. Beckett for social studies and science. These students had a schedule in which they moved from class to class for tracking purposes.

In the fourth grade at Sky Elementary there were 52 students. Of those 52 fourth grade students, 27 (52%) were female and 25 (48%) were male. The demographics of the grade included 30 students (58%) who were African American, two students (4%) who were Asian, 17 students (33%) who were Caucasian, and three students (6%) who were Multi-Race. Eight students (15%) received gifted services. Two students (4%) in the fourth grade were identified as receiving special education services under an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Of the 52 students, 34 students (65%) qualified to receive free lunch, two (4%) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 16 (31%) paid full price for lunch.

In the sample social studies class time observed for the purposes of this research, the class demographics included 25 students. Of those 25 students, 12 (48%) were female and 13 (52%) were male. The demographics for the sample class included 16 (64%) African American
students, one (4%) Asian student, and eight (32%) Caucasian students. Out of the 25 students, two (8%) of the students were identified as gifted. One student (4%) in the class was identified as receiving special education services under an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Of the 25 students, 15 students (60%) qualified to receive free lunch, two (8%) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and eight (32%) paid full price for lunch.

Due to the large number of students in her small classroom, Mrs. Beckett’s students were grouped in rows, with some desks closer together in side-by-side arrangements with the desks touching. Mrs. Beckett confirmed she liked to use group work, but the limitations in the classroom’s space hindered group work at times. Though space was an issue, she stated she included group collaborative projects and activities in her social studies instruction.

Mrs. Beckett had two student computers in her classroom. Additionally, she had one computer her students did not regularly have access to because she used it primarily for administrative tasks like grading, taking attendance, and planning. In her classroom, she had a Smart Board used primarily for showing videos and websites. Mrs. Beckett stated she principally integrated technology into her lessons with her use of the Smart Board as a teacher tool, rather than student use of the technology. She stated,

Well I use, like, some websites. Especially the APT+, or Learn 360, or whatever they are now. I use a lot of that. And, Teacher Tube will sometimes pull in some of those kinds of things, but mostly just videos. There’s not a whole lot of interactive… maybe in math sometimes we’ll play, like, the games or that kind of thing.”

Mrs. Beckett explained that the school had a computer lab, and that she took her class there once a week for a 30 minute period. When asked if she used that time for social studies instruction and technology integration in her Alabama history lessons, Mrs. Beckett stated, “We do have the once a week computer lab where we go for 30 minutes. And I usually try to use that time for research you know just take advantage of that.” When asked to elaborate on whether she used
the computer lab time for social studies instruction, she stated, “Usually it will be science, I’ll be honest. That [is] usually where we try to pick up the slack there because that’s really been our focus.” She explained science had been the professional focus of the school in the past year as the students’ standardized test scores were lower in science, “because we had neglected it.” She stated, “I would say it would be even worse in social studies.” When asked why she thought the focus was not on social studies, she stated, “Because it’s not tested, to be honest.”

**Lesson Plan 1**

Mrs. Beckett’s first lesson had the objective listed as “Students will understand and interpret the meaning of segregation in relation to the Civil Rights Movement.” Mrs. Beckett’s plan include an attached copy of Kristen Lovenberg’s lesson posted online to teachers.net on April 25, 2011 (Lovenberg, 2011) to demonstrate the segregated schools of the 1950’s. In Mrs. Beckett’s lesson, she indicated she would use Ms. Lovenberg’s activity of giving students a card and grouping them according to the color of the cards they received, either yellow or green. Mrs. Beckett planned that students with the yellow cards would be given a seat at the front of the classroom while students with the green cards would sit in the back of the classroom. She explained she would give incentives to the yellow school and that the green school would get no incentives, though these incentives were not outlined specifically in the plan.

Following this activity, a whole group discussion would involve students in acknowledging how these yellow and green schools were unfair. Mrs. Beckett would then give the definition of segregation and discuss segregation with students. Mrs. Beckett expected to talk with students about the ways people are still segregated today including at school, church, in their communities, and other places. Students would be told that in years past, people in Alabama were segregated according to race and students would be asked to discuss this issue.
After the discussion, Mrs. Beckett would show a US Civil Rights Movement video to the class and after the video, students would discuss the content of the video in a whole group format. Following that discussion, students would be placed into collaborative groups according to assigned numbers labeled on their yellow or green cards. After being divided into groups, students would discuss why it is important to treat all people equal (sic) and fairly. Students would then be asked to give three reasons, established within their groups, that all people should be treated equally. To culminate all of these activities within the lesson, the teacher would lead the class in a concluding class discussion.

Observation 1

To begin the first lesson observed, Mrs. Beckett explained, “We will do a little bit of social studies and if we have time, we will finish our science. We need to listen. We will do things differently today.” The students appeared to be a bit unruly as they had been to the book fair in the library prior to the lesson, had brought their books and trinkets with them back to their classroom, and their attention was focused elsewhere. She continued, “We are going to talk about things we will learn about later and things that happened in the ‘60s with the Civil Rights Movement.” One student responded with “Like Martin Luther King and all that?” and another student asked the question, “Back in the day with Martin Luther King and Rosa Parks and them in the 1960s?” Mrs. Beckett did not address these students but responded with, “It is part of Alabama history. We will get to a part where things are not like they are now.” She continued with telling students she would give each of them a card, and they should await further instructions.

Mrs. Beckett began to pass out yellow and green cards that also had numbers on the back and asked the students to place the cards on their desks. Mrs. Beckett wrote the term
“segregation” on the board. Mrs. Beckett then stated, “It means when things are separate. I want you to get in your segregated groups. If you have a yellow card, come to sit in the front, and if you have green, go stand in the back.” The students moved to sit in the areas of the room as instructed based upon the colors of their cards. The teacher told the students if they had a yellow card, then she was going to give them a cookie, a soda, and allow them to watch a movie. The green school was told they would get to watch a movie. Students began to react with verbal responses. Mrs. Beckett told students to talk to their card group and decide if this was fair or not. One student said, “We protest!”

Mrs. Beckett heard their protests and stated,

Let’s talk a little bit about why it would not be fair or equal for yellow group to get cookies, a soda, and sit in front while we watch a movie, while the green group sits in the back with no treats. You all were gonna stand up and protest because it is not right. Okay, so you’re thinking about how this is like the US Civil Rights Movement. You have some background knowledge.

Students responded with, “It’s like Martin Luther King’s speech,”, “They want cookies and Coke, too,”, and “We are friends with students back there and we don’t want to hurt their feelings.” Mrs. Beckett asked further, “Why is it not fair for me to do this in our class?” One student made a comment to relate this experience to Rosa Park’s protest. Mrs. Beckett responded with, “Tell me how you know about this. I can tell you are knowledgeable,” but the students were not responsive. To get more response, Mrs. Beckett stated, “Raise your hand if you feel that this is not fair to separate.” Most students raised their hands. A student asked, “Did the Whites have more privileges because our founding fathers were white?” Mrs. Beckett stated, “Those were just the laws back then. It caused the Civil Rights Movement. We had to stand up and say, we won’t allow it to be separate but equal. That’s just the way things were back then.”
Mrs. Beckett changed subjects and stated, “Let’s take a look at the video.” The video discussed the US Civil Rights Movement. It started with the Civil Rights Act of 1865 and the topic, Jim Crow 1876 to 1965. When a picture was shown of a sign that said, “Colored”, Mrs. Beckett stopped it and stated, “See there were restrooms for Whites, restrooms for Blacks, a movie theatre for Whites, restrooms for the Blacks…” The film went forward discussing Coretta Scott King, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Malcolm X, stating, “Self-defense and violence used when necessary” were supported methods by Malcolm X. Mrs. Beckett did not stop the video at this point.

The video went on to show Rosa Parks, the Montgomery Bus Boycott, and Martin Luther King, Jr. Mrs. Beckett stopped it and stated, “When we go to the state capital, we will see some of these things.” She started the video, which went on to show John F. Kennedy was killed before the Civil Rights bill was passed. Mrs. Beckett again paused the video and said, “LBJ means Lyndon Baines Johnson, and he became president after Kennedy was killed.” It was started again showing the Civil Rights Act of 1964 being signed and Mrs. Beckett allowed the video to end. After the film explained the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Mrs. Beckett said, “When the Civil Rights Amendment was signed, things became like they are now. When it was signed it said segregation was illegal. Things have come a long ways (sic).”

Mrs. Beckett asked the students to take a look at their yellow and green cards and see what numbers were on them. She asked students to get with like numbered students into groups: 1, 2, 3, or 4. After they got into groups with their same numbers, the students were asked to talk with their group members and tell how they were the same. The students responded with, “We are all people”, “We are all white and black”, and “We all have hair.” Mrs. Beckett then asked students to take time to discuss how they were different. The students responded with, “We have
different card colors”, “We have different families”, and “We have different heights.” Mrs. Beckett asked, “Does that matter?” The students responded with, “no” and then Mrs. Beckett asked, “Can we still all get along?”

Mrs. Beckett stated, “Listen up. This is what you are going to do. I am going to give each group a chart paper and you will write a list of why we should not be segregated, be separated, based on our color.” One student asked, “Isn’t prejudice the same thing as racist?” Mrs. Beckett responded, “Right now we are talking about segregation. Back in the civil rights days or before the Civil Rights Movement, people were separated.” Mrs. Beckett then stated,

Now take your paper and talk with your groups to come up with a reason…Get with your group and write three reasons why it is important to treat people equally. You and your groups are writing at least three reasons why people should be treated equal (sic) and fair (sic) and should not be separated (paused for a long period) based on color or any other reason…Why you should always be treated equally. If your group does not have a list, you will not get a cookie.

Students began to work and talk with one another and Mrs. Beckett walked around to hear what students were saying.

The students began to ask questions about places in which people are still separated today. Mrs. Beckett approached the class with this question, but stated, “I don’t mean by color, because I know we aren’t now. We may not all go to the same church, but that doesn’t mean we are not allowed to.” One student said, “One reason that people are separated today is because of popularity.” Another student said, “It can create drama.” Mrs. Beckett agreed that separation could create problems and drama. One student said students are sometimes separated into “a smart group or a not smart group.” Mrs. Beckett responded with, “Sometimes that is to help people learn, but can that be a problem?” A student stated, “Some people want to be smart and not bad. Last year I was in the slow class.” Mrs. Beckett asked, “How did that make you feel?” The student responded it made him feel badly. Mrs. Beckett asked, “But did it help you?” The
student responded, “Yes.” Mrs. Beckett then said, “See, and now you are in a good fourth grade class.”

Mrs. Beckett then turned to the class and stated, “Separation is not always bad, but we don’t want to be separated by color. Why is it important for all people to be treated equally?” The students stated, “We have different types of friends”, “It’s good we can get along”, and “We should all get to do things.” Mrs. Beckett explained to students, “Everyone should have a chance to do the same things, not just the popular people or the smart people.” A student said, “Some white people want to be their friends, but black people don’t want to…” Mrs. Beckett interrupted, “Okay, so we need to be friends with everybody.” One student commented, “Some people are bullied…” Mrs. Beckett elaborated some people are sometimes separated and sometimes are bullied because they are separated. She then told the students that they all could get a cookie and proceeded to hand them out to the students.

Mrs. Beckett next instructed students that Martin Luther King, Jr., “played a big part in desegregation” and told the students they were going to watch a video of someone reading the book, Martin’s Big Words (Rappaport, 2001). At this point, a teacher came in to get students to go with her to attend a math intervention group. The students objected, but were instructed to leave with the teacher. Mrs. Beckett then put on the YouTube video of someone reading Martin’s Big Words (Rappaport). After the conclusion of the short video of the reading of the trade book, Mrs. Beckett stated, “As you can see, the story told us that Martin Luther King, Jr., played a big part in desegregation. It was not a good thing back then and is sometimes not a good thing now if it is not used in the right way.” The “right way” to “use” segregation was not explained.
Mrs. Beckett said tomorrow the class would talk about Rosa Parks. Mrs. Beckett asked if the students had any questions. One student said, “Did the person who shot Martin Luther King go to jail?” Mrs. Beckett paused for a long time, seemingly unsure of the answer, and then stated, “I do believe that he did.” Another student said, “I am so glad that Martin Luther King did that.” Mrs. Beckett replied, “Me, too. I think that it would be a whole different world. Think about all of our friends and the people we love. It would be a bad world.” Another student told the class John F. Kennedy stood up for African Americans and then was shot. A different student asked, “Why was he shot?” Mrs. Beckett responded with, “They didn’t like the fact that he was standing up for the African Americans. He had worked on the Civil Rights Amendment before he was killed.” Another student asked, “Weren’t black people slaves?” Mrs. Beckett responded, “Yes, they were. Back in the olden days, not only Blacks were slaves, Whites were, too.” One student asked, “Black people made white people slaves?” Mrs. Beckett said, “No. Anything else? Okay. We are running late and you have to be ready for the nine weeks tests.”

Lesson Plan 2

Mrs. Beckett entitled her second lesson “Rosa Parks and the Montgomery Bus Boycott.” For this lesson, there were two objectives:

1. Students will learn about Rosa Parks and the Montgomery Bus Boycott.

2. Students will create a dramatization of Rosa Parks’ refusal to give up her seat on the bus in Montgomery, Alabama.

The lesson would begin with a question posed to the class, “What do you know about Rosa Parks and the Montgomery Bus Boycott?” Students would then respond in writing and engage in a class discussion about their answers.
Mrs. Beckett stated she would discuss information about Rosa Parks with the students entitled “Rosa Parks: The Story Behind the Bus” found on a website (The Henry Ford, 2014). Following the lecture of this information, a video of Rosa Parks and the Montgomery Bus Boycott would be shown. After the video, the students would then be asked questions, “How did it feel to be Rosa Parks on the bus?”, “How did Rosa react when the man asked for her seat?”, “How do you feel about her reaction?”, and “How would you have reacted?” Students would share their responses and then Mrs. Beckett would have students think of some ways to stay calm, even when people treat them badly. Following students’ responses, Mrs. Beckett wanted students to answer with how the Montgomery Bus Boycott helped create equality for African American people.

Post-discussion, students would participate in a role-playing activity. Students would create a short dramatization of Rosa Parks and her protest on the bus in one of two scenarios. One group would “dramatize the wrong way to have handled the event,” and then another group would dramatize the way Rosa Parks actually protested. For evaluation of students’ progress, Mrs. Beckett planned to observe students’ participation in the dramatization. Further, she would then ask students to write one important thing they learned about the Montgomery Bus Boycott.

Observation 2

The second observation of Mrs. Beckett’s teaching began with the students seated in their regular spots with desks in rows side by side with some desks touching. Mrs. Beckett told the class they would be working with partners today with the people in their rows. She told the class they would continue with the US Civil Rights Movement and Rosa Parks and her important role in the Montgomery Bus Boycott. She asked the groups to write anything they already knew about these subjects. She asked the students to begin talking to their partners. Students paused,
but she then further told the students, “Briefly jot down anything you know. If you don’t know anything you don’t have to write anything down.” She additionally asked students, “What is anything you know? One or two things, not a long list.”

As students began talking within their groups, she monitored behavior and off-task students. Many students were not participating in the conversations according to the teacher’s directions and were talking about other subjects to their group members, playing with items in their desks, and laughing and playing with classmates. She stated again, “You are going to share your thoughts about what you already know about Rosa Parks and the Bus Boycott.” Students started to record statements and then Mrs. Beckett asked groups to share their familiarity with the topic aloud. The students commented, “She was brave”, “She was taken to jail”, “She met Martin Luther King, Jr.”, “She was asked to get up, but didn’t and was arrested”, and “She died.” Mrs. Beckett responded, “As you can tell, you have good knowledge. You have great ideas, but we are going to learn about more.”

Mrs. Beckett started a video on the Smart Board about Rosa Parks that was narrated by children. Rosa Park’s own voice was incorporated into the video, as well. After the video, Mrs. Beckett said, “That was not the video I had originally pulled. She would not give up her seat on the bus. That gave you some information. Talk to the person beside you about how would you (sic) feel if you were Rosa Parks?” The students responded to the prompt, “Sad”, “I wouldn’t move”, “The law wasn’t letting everyone have their freedom”, “Upset”, “Disappointed”, and “Mad.” Mrs. Beckett went on to ask, “How would you feel if they had asked you to move?” Before students had time to answer she added,

Rosa was asked to get up. She said no. She didn’t fight. She didn’t fuss. She handled it calmly with no fighting. She just said, ‘No, I am not getting up.’ Now we will watch another video about the bus boycott.
Mrs. Beckett turned the video on to show the Montgomery Bus Boycott. The video presented original footage of Martin Luther King, Jr., speaking about Rosa Parks. For the first time in the lesson, students were completely quiet. The word, “Negroes” was used on the video, and two students became visibly upset and began to mumble and scowl. One student asked if all the people were walking. Mrs. Beckett responded, “They all walked. They refused to get on the bus.”

After the video, Mrs. Beckett addressed the class by saying, “Think of things that have happened to you every day. What are ways you can handle the situation like Rosa did, calmly quietly, not fussing?” She then asked students to list with their groups, one or two ways they could handle conflict calmly. Mrs. Beckett asked, “How can you handle things calmly rather than fighting back? How can you handle things like Rosa?” Students began to talk together and make a list as a group. While students were working, Mrs. Beckett asked,

If there was a situation, how could you handle situations calmly? I want you to think of things in your day. If someone makes you mad, what could you do? What are some ways you can handle a problem or conflict calmly?

The students responded to this part of the lesson by stating ideas listed with their groups. The students and teacher had the following conversation:

Student 1: You can talk it out.

Mrs. Beckett: Okay, good. Okay, so walk away instead of fighting.

Student 2: You could say I was here first.

Mrs. Beckett: You don’t wanna smack or talk back.

Student 3: Say sorry, don’t go around huffing and puffing.

Student 4: Say, I don’t want to be mean to anyone.
Mrs. Beckett instructed, “We are gonna do a dramatization. You are gonna portray it a wrong way. You will act out how it should not be done and then how Rosa Parks did it the correct way to handle the situation.” Mrs. Beckett then asked students to move into the role-playing activities by choosing students to participate. She said, “You are gonna come up front. Is there anyone who wants to be the bus driver?” An African American male student was chosen by Mrs. Beckett to be the bus driver. A Caucasian student exclaimed, “But he’s colored!” Mrs. Beckett replied with, “This is just a dramatization; we aren’t picking people based on color. We really don’t know if the driver was white or black do we?” The students replied with yes and no after this question about the driver’s race. Mrs. Beckett called more students to act as passengers on the bus in the role-play. She did not address the use of the term, “colored” or that some of the students’ responded they did know the race of the bus driver.

Mrs. Beckett said to students, “This scenario is not going to be handled like Rosa did. This is happening the wrong way. You have to be safe though, you can’t hurt anyone.” The students went through the role-play with Rosa Parks kicking and screaming at the bus passengers and bus driver. The teacher then added, “So that was the wrong way to handle conflict. Why was that the wrong way?” The students responded with, “She kicked him.” and “She fought back.” The teacher then asked the other students who had not participated in a skit to come forward to the front of the room to act out the Rosa Parks scenario in a different way. She stated, “This group will show how Rosa Parks really did this.” The teacher asked who wanted to play the certain parts. A male student wanted to play Rosa Parks. The teacher stated, “You need to be someone else. You can be the bus driver.” Then students created the skit in the traditional sense of how the Rosa Park’s protest took place. After the skit concluded, Mrs. Beckett stated, “They did it nicely. They handled it without conflict. They did not fight back.”
Mrs. Beckett changed directions and said she was going to give the students an exit slip of paper so they could write one thing this lesson helped them to understand better. She then reiterated the directions that students were to complete an exit slip, but this time said students needed to write one thing about Rosa Parks or the Montgomery Bus Boycott that they now knew. It was not clear as to what prompt the students actually ended up answering, or if Mrs. Beckett knew she had asked for two different responses from students on their exit slips.

**Teacher 3 - Mrs. Collins**

**Teacher Background**

Mrs. Collins was a Caucasian female fourth grade teacher in her mid-forties. She taught fourth grade at Sky Elementary and was responsible for teaching all subjects. Mrs. Collins had children who attended school within the Azalea School System. Her degrees included both a Bachelor’s degree and a Master’s degree in elementary education from the same regional college within the state where she taught. With over 20 years teaching experiences, all of her years had been in teaching upper elementary grades. She had taught fourth and fifth grades at four different schools in the same school system. She was accountable for teaching all subjects.

**Description of Classroom Dynamic**

Mrs. Collins was responsible for teaching Alabama history during her social studies instruction. Because her fourth grade classes were tracked, she primarily taught students (n=27) who performed at or above grade level in math and reading and who had few behavioral issues. Mrs. Collins also taught one class of reading and one class of math each day to students needing on-grade level instruction or above-grade level accommodations in math and reading. Most of these students were already in her homeroom. No particular evidence was given to support this claim other than her statement that a majority of students without behavioral and academic issues
were placed in her homeroom by administration. The few students in her homeroom who performed below grade level traveled to the other fourth grade teacher for math and reading instruction, but stayed with Mrs. Collins for social studies and science. These students had a schedule in which they moved from class to class for tracking purposes.

In the fourth grade at Sky Elementary there were 52 students. Of those 52 fourth grade students, 27 (52%) were female and 25 (48%) were male. The demographics in the fourth grade included 30 students (58%) who were African American, two students (4%) who were Asian, 17 students (33%) who were Caucasian, and three students (6%) who were Multi-Race. Eight students (15%) were identified as receiving gifted services. Two students (4%) in the fourth grade were identified as receiving special education services under an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Of the 52 students, 34 students (65%) qualified to receive free lunch, two (4%) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and 16 (31%) paid full price for lunch.

In the sample social studies class observed for the purposes of this research, the class demographics included 27 students. Of those 27 students, 15 (56%) were female and 12 (44%) were male. The demographics of the sample class included 14 students (52%) who were African American, one student (4%) who was Asian, nine students (33%) who were Caucasian, and three students (11%) who were Multi-Race. Out of the 27 students, six (22%) of the students had been identified as gifted. One student (4%) in the class was identified as receiving special education services under an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). Of the 27 students, 19 (70%) students qualified to receive free lunch, zero students (0%) qualified to receive reduced price lunch, and eight (30%) paid full price for lunch.

Mrs. Collins’ classroom was arranged tightly due to the large number of students in a small classroom. The students were grouped in small clusters with some desks closer together in
side-by-side arrangements with the desks touching. Mrs. Collins explained she liked to use
group work, but the limitations in the classroom’s space along with the large number of students
in her class hindered group work opportunities. She stated, “This is a big class, but they can
handle it. They can handle working in small groups with each other if I wanted them to work on
a project.” Mrs. Collins explained she tried to include collaborative work in her Alabama history
instruction with her fourth graders.

With regard to technology integration in social studies, Mrs. Collins explained that in her
classroom, technology was scarce. Mrs. Collins had two computers that students had access to
regularly, and there was one computer for her personal use. Mrs. Collins stated there was a class
set of 25 tablet mobile computers purchased for school use; however, she had not used them with
her class because it involved having students set up email addresses. She also stated her class
had 27 students which was a greater number of students than the number of tablets. Though she
had not used the tablets with her students, she stated, “That would be interesting to have them to
bring them into the classroom and have them research some things.” In her classroom, Mrs.
Collins had a Smart Board she used primarily in social studies time for showing videos and
websites to her class. She explained,

We look at videos on APT Plus. I really recommend that website for teachers. And, of
course some things on YouTube. But, I have to be careful with YouTube because of
inappropriate content. But, mainly APT Plus has the most videos on [the] Civil Rights
Movement.

APT Plus, that Mrs. Collins referred to, is Alabama Public Television’s website that includes
topics, ideas, and videos for educators to use with their students and relevant links to other
education resources (APT Plus, 2014). Mrs. Collins explained the school had a computer lab,
and her class had access to it once a week for a 30 minute period. She reported during computer
lab time, her students had a typing class. Mrs. Collins stated she took her class to the computer
lab at other times for research, but primarily research was about, “ecosystems and science.” She also said, “And, sometimes we just go if they’ve had a busy week and we’ve been doing a lot of things, I’ll just let them go in there and play games just to, kind of, be able to relax.” Mrs. Collins elaborated on using the computer lab time for social studies instruction, as she stated,

…you can look up a lot of things on the internet. So, I think sometimes students, if they are interested in history, they will look up things on the internet. And, I encourage it, too. And, sometimes I think we need to research backgrounds of various explorers and various people that came to our state. So, I do encourage that, and I sometimes say, ‘On your own time.’

Lesson Plan 1

Mrs. Collins’ first lesson plan was entitled, “Civil Rights Lesson 1” and had a timeframe included of 30 minutes. No objectives were listed for the lesson. Mrs. Collins indicated the lesson would begin by using questioning to elicit students’ prior knowledge about the US Civil Rights Movement. Following the questions, a nine minute portion of a 17 minute video would be shown on the Smart Board to the students. The movie chosen was Stand Up for Freedom: The Civil Rights Movement in America. The video was selected from the Learn 360 Alabama Public Television (APT Plus, 2014). The second half of the video would be presented in the following lesson due to time constraints.

During and after the showing of the video, Mrs. Collins would write information on the whiteboard for students to consider and remember. The information written on the whiteboard would be discussed with the class for students to contemplate significant events of the movement. Afterward, she planned for students to begin making a timeline on their individual papers involving historically important dates of the US Civil Rights Movement. They would create the timeline on white construction paper with rulers, pencils, and markers. The timelines would be continued and completed in the second lesson due to time constraints.
Included with the first lesson was a timeline Mrs. Collins would use for her own purposes to remind and inform students of key events in the US Civil Rights Movement. Her timeline was copied from a former fourth grade Alabama history textbook. The students were not given a copy of this information and its only purpose was for Mrs. Collins to use it to write dates on the whiteboard. Also included with the first lesson plan were three worksheets. The first sheet was called “Vocabulary Matching” with four true and false questions and eight fill-in-the-blank answers. A second worksheet included a Rosa Parks reading passage followed by fill-in-the-blank questions. A third worksheet was included entitled “Civil Rights for All!” It was a reading passage with seven statements that were to be labeled fact or opinion. None of the worksheets were cited to indicate their original sources or discussed in the first lesson plan as being used by the students.

Observation 1

The first observation of Mrs. Collins’ lessons in demonstration began as students entered the classroom after physical education class. Mrs. Collins stated, “We are going to learn today about something that happened from the 1800s to the 1960s, the Civil Rights Movement.” Student helpers were asked to distribute crayons and markers to the class. Mrs. Collins reminded them that she wanted the students’ attention and said, “Whether I am teaching social studies or science at this time, you are to sit down and look pretty or handsome.” She then told students they needed to remember what she was teaching because they would be learning more about this later and they “would get a grade on it.” Next, students were told they were going to watch a video about how slavery began. It was expressed to students that the video would be 17 minutes long, and they would only watch nine minutes on that day and watch the remainder of the video in their next lesson.
Mrs. Collins then asked students, “What do you know about the civil rights already? If you don’t…” Her words were cut off as one student said, “Our country was fighting for freedom.” Another student said, “White people weren’t treated equally.” A second student responded, “Blacks were treated wrong. It started with Native Americans being treated wrong.” Mrs. Collins only addressed the latter student’s comments. The student was asked how she knew that information, and she responded she had read books with her family. Mrs. Collins said, “That’s wonderful that you read history to learn what happened.” Another student stated, “Blacks weren’t treated fairly.” A response was not given to the student’s comment.

Mrs. Collins then said, “I know you’ve talked about Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks. We’re going to talk about that tomorrow.” The following statement was written on the whiteboard: Civil rights are freedoms guaranteed to all Americans by the US Constitution. She then stated to students, “You’re gonna find out that not everybody’s treated fairly. Some people didn’t think that African Americans were Americans. Has anyone ever heard of segregation?” Eight students raised their hands. Mrs. Collins went on, “Segregation means being set apart-separate. Have you ever talked about this?” Students responded that they had talked about segregation in school and at home. The following question was addressed to students: “Have you ever talked about Martin Luther King and why he was so important?” Students responded they had talked about it in school and at home through discussion after reading books and watching videos. A student explained the school had books on the topic in the library, but that the books were “thrown away when they cleaned out the school.”

Terms and definitions continued to be written on the board. Mrs. Collins wrote that desegregation was the end of separating two groups. The class was then asked for a definition for what desegregation means. Students responded, “Everyone can be back together” and
“Someone will stand up and stop it like Martin Luther King did.” One student said she had watched the movie, *Hairspray*, and, “The *Hairspray* movie had people that said, ‘Segregation never! Integration now!’” Mrs. Collins stated, “Okay, there’s (sic) two more things I want to cover before we show the movie.” Mrs. Collins wrote on the whiteboard, Civil War—war between people of the same country. She then stated, “Emancipated means to be set free” and wrote Emancipation Proclamation—document that Lincoln signed to end slavery. She then explained abolitionists wanted to hide slaves. Next, Mrs. Collins told students the Underground Railroad was a system of hiding slaves so they could reach the North because, “the North didn’t have slaves.” The class was informed, “Harriett Tubman escaped slavery and moved north and Harriett Tubman “came down hundreds of times to safe homes.” Students were listening as Mrs. Collins explained that if people were told on for hiding slaves, they would be killed. As she said killed, a student said, “whipped.” Mrs. Collins did not respond to the student and then informed students that when she was little, she thought the Underground Railroad was really under the ground, but that underground just meant it was secretive. Students were told they could research that more, one day, but they would not be talking about it that day. A great deal of time was spent talking about that topic of slavery during this part of the lesson; however, when students began to share comments, Mrs. Collins stated they would not discuss it anymore.

Mrs. Collins next tried to review background knowledge briefly by asking what they knew about the Civil Rights Movement again but did not take students’ responses. She began the video, and an interruption occurred as a teacher came to the door to ask to take two students with her for outside instruction. The video started with how the protests of the 1950s and 1960s actually represented fighting for freedom that had been taking place since slavery. Images of the slave trade and discussion of William Lloyd Garrison, Frederick Douglas, and the Underground
Railroad were introduced on the film. Abraham Lincoln was shown with explanations that he wanted to end slavery. A map of the United States was displayed with blue states showing the slave states. The students started to notice that Alabama was blue and began to talk all at once. Mrs. Collins stopped the video and then stated, “Yes, there’s Alabama.” The western part of the map showed a large area without state boundaries. Mrs. Collins pointed to that area and said, “This was all Indian territory. They were not states, yet. Slaves weren’t out here at all in the Midwest or California.” One student commented, “My grandma was in the cotton fields picking, but she wasn’t whipped.” Mrs. Collins did not respond. She said, “States weren’t states here” as she pointed to the Midwest. Mrs. Collins then explained that different state names derived from, “Indian trails.” There was a great deal of discussion and interest from the students about issues related to slavery with many asking questions at once. Mrs. Collins tried to calm the students, and the video closed out on the Smart Board accidentally. Mrs. Collins did not respond to the questions and comments.

The video was started again with the Emancipation Proclamation followed by discussion of Jim Crow laws, and Homer Plessy’s railroad car incident. Information was presented on the film about separate but equal laws, W.E.B. DuBois, Jackie Robinson, Harry Truman, Thurgood Marshall, and *Plessy vs. Ferguson*. The timeline of the video continued from the late 1700’s to the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* Supreme Court case. The last frame of the film showed the Ku Klux Klan at a rally. Mrs. Collins then told the students they would stop there and continue the following day with the second part of the video.

Mrs. Collins said to the class, “As much information that we just heard, does anyone have questions? Was there something you didn’t understand?” One of the students asked, “Why did that fountain look like a toilet?” She was referring to the water fountain in the video for African
Americans, and Mrs. Collins acknowledged the fountain did look similar to a toilet and that it was the one African Americans were allowed to use. Another student said, “That hurts my feelings.” Mrs. Collins said, “We have to be sensitive to that, it was just the mentality of the times. It’s not like that anymore. It’s taken years for it to change. Sometimes it takes over 100 years.” Another student asked, “Why did states have Civil Wars?” Mrs. Collins responded with, “Eventually all that ended. We came together and have 50 states now.”

Another student said, “I didn’t get that about the neighborhood.” Mrs. Collins said, “Neighborhoods were segregated. Black people lived in their neighborhoods. White people lived where they wanted because that’s where they felt comfortable. Students continued to pepper Mrs. Collins with questions. As a student asked for further information about segregated neighborhoods, Mrs. Collins said, “I don’t know if it was intentional. It just happened.” Students continued to ask questions about the unfair treatment of African Americans and Mrs. Collins responded, “That was a bad time in history. A lot of people were mean.” Mrs. Collins seemed to become agitated at the number of student questions. She stated, “I’m trying to clarify. This was not just about African Americans. Other races, Mexican.” One student offered a suggestion of a book he had read that was related to the movement and discussed the Ku Klux Klan. Mrs. Collins said, “I’m not into that, I don’t want to read about that.” After students continued to ask questions about issues connected to slavery and the movement, Mrs. Collins stated, “I’m trying to give you facts, not trying to be biased. I’m just telling you what I know. What I’ve read about. Northern states did not want segregation. They felt they were better than others. I’m just being honest.”

A student commented on schools being separate with teachers only teaching white or black students separately. Mrs. Collins said, “I knew that I would teach all races, and I was fine
with that. It was ruled unconstitutional. It was not fair.” A different student asked, “Why did they burn that cross? That was bad.” Mrs. Collins said, “I don’t know. They felt it was the right thing to do, but we know it’s not. I’m running out of time. We have to move on.” A student said, “That makes me feel bad.”

Mrs. Collins told the students that they would be making a timeline based on the information they saw and heard in the video. She distributed rulers to the students and stated, “I want you all to make your timeline look like mine.” She explained some students would have to share their rulers. Mrs. Collins modeled how to draw a straight line with a ruler for students’ timelines. She hurried students and told them they were going to run out of time. She told students to label the top “Civil Rights Timeline” and not to misspell it. The students spent a good bit of time drawing their lines. Mrs. Collins said, “We are about to put nine events on the timeline. The first thing we will put is 1860. What happened in 1860?” The students guessed the Underground Railroad and Mrs. Collins told them, “No, Abraham Lincoln became president.” Mrs. Collins wrote this on her timeline as she demonstrated how to label events on the whiteboard. Mrs. Collins said, “Draw a line close to it, 1861. Write down ‘The Civil War began, that’s our second event.” Mrs. Collins then instructed students to, “Draw a line sometime between the Civil War and write Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation. That happened in 1863. This meant slavery was ended. Southern states didn’t like this.” She then instructed students to write on their timelines, “In 1865, the Civil War was over.”

Mrs. Collins continued to write on the timeline on the whiteboard located at the front of the room. She stated,

As you are writing, just listen to me. Even though the Civil War ended and the Emancipation Proclamation was signed, there were still states in the South sneaking and trying to get away with it. Write down 1896 and leave a big gap to put the Supreme Court ruled segregation was legal. That means it’s okay. You can keep Blacks and
Whites separate. Understand they were not talking about slavery here, this was after slavery and they thought it was okay.

Mrs. Collins added the year 1909 to her timeline and wrote, The NAACP was formed. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) is the United States’ “oldest and largest civil rights organization… [that] continues to fight for social justice for all Americans” (NAACP, 2015). A definition of NAACP was not told to students. A student informed the class, “My grandfather works for the NAACP. Not then, but…” Mrs. Collins interrupted the student and said the NAACP “wanted better jobs, to become better people, to not live in poverty.” A student said, “I think it means they wanted for more freedom.” Mrs. Collins replied that the student was correct.

Mrs. Collins said, “Now we are getting to years you understand. What I am going to say is not a bad word, so don’t go home and say Mrs. Collins said a bad word.” One male African American student said, “I won’t. It’s okay, say it. I know what you are going to say.” Mrs. Collins told the students that in 1947, baseball became integrated and the Negro League soon folded. The students did not react to the use of the word, “Negro”, other than one student who said, “I call my brother that.” Mrs. Collins instructed students to write, In 1947 Jackie Robinson was allowed to play baseball. Mrs. Collins brought up the film, 42, and said it was a very powerful movie showing Jackie Robinson’s story. Students asked if they could watch it in class, but Mrs. Collins said, “No, I can’t show it in here. It has bad words. During that time period, people called other people bad names.” Students became interested and began making comments and asking questions. Mrs. Collins told the class, “At this time, things started happening. Black people were making their way into white society.”
Mrs. Collin said, “We will stop here for time. Put your name on the poster. We will continue this tomorrow. Mrs. Collins assigned monitors to pick up supplies and continued, “In class tomorrow, we will continue learning about what we talked about today and finish this assignment.”

**Lesson Plan 2**

Mrs. Collins’ second lesson plan was entitled “Civil Rights Lesson 2” and indicated it was scheduled to last 30 minutes. Mrs. Collins planned to recap and discuss specifics from the prior lesson and then she would show the remaining eight minutes of the video “Stand Up for Freedom.” Following the film, Mrs. Collins aimed for students to complete their timeline from their first lesson to include other dates mentioned on the second half of the video. Students would use markers, pencils, and rulers to complete the activity and the timelines would be finalized by the end of the lesson. Mrs. Collins would again use her own timeline from a former Alabama history text to remind students of dates she wanted included on the students’ timelines. She would write these dates from her copy of the timeline on the whiteboard for them. Students would use her notes from the whiteboard and the facts they heard from the video to complete their individual timelines on their own papers. After students finished their individual timelines, Mrs. Collins anticipated students would listen as she read a biography about Rosa Parks, if time permitted. The name of the children’s trade book was not given. Following the reading of the trade book, students would complete the “Vocabulary Matching” worksheet with four true and false questions and eight fill-in-the-blank answers included with the first lesson plan. Mrs. Collins stated she would assess the students on their ability to read facts from the timeline as they completed the assessment sheet individually.
Observation 2

Mrs. Collins began her second observed lesson by stating, “We are gonna finish your timeline today. Go ahead and get your marker box, but don’t use it, yet.” Mrs. Collins asked the students to not open their marker boxes and not to make a mark on their timelines. She said that the time limit was making her nervous. She then told students to look at their timelines and asked, “What were some of the things that made an impact on you?” Students started to answer aloud. One student said, “The NAACP was something I haven’t…” Mrs. Collins interrupted the student to ask, “Had you heard of that?” The student answered, “Yes.” Mrs. Collins asked if the student knew what the initials stood for, and the student replied, “No.” Mrs. Collins did not tell the students what the initials meant.

Another student said, “Burning crosses, same as yesterday.” Mrs. Collins said, “I’m not gonna spend a lot of time on that topic. That’s a bad subject.” She then called on another student whose hand was raised. The student said, “I saw The Butler.” Mrs. Collins then called on another student who said, “The Emancipation Proclamation.” Mrs. Collins asked, “Had you ever thought of that before?” The student shook his head no. Another student stated, “The Civil War.” Mrs. Collins said the Civil War lasted for four years from 1861 to 1865. She stated, “You’re gonna learn that the Civil War was about other issues. I think everyone thinks that it was only about slavery, and it wasn’t. There were other discrepancies. That means disagreements.” A student said, “The Underground Railroad.” Mrs. Collins said, “Yes, Harriett Tubman helped several hundred slaves.” Another student said, “Segregation.” Mrs. Collins responded, “Segregation was legal. They said it was okay to have slaves. Later they said it was unconstitutional. Like how colored people, black people, had to drink…not necessarily
Mexicans, Native Americans…” A student supplied “Asian, Japanese…” Another student said, “Black people had to use smaller water fountains.”

Mrs. Collins started the video at the stopping point from the prior lesson with pictures of the Ku Klux Klan. Mrs. Collins said, “Oops. I didn’t mean to…Oh, well.” and it was allowed to continue from that point. Mrs. Collins then stated, “This is the new part you haven’t seen” referring to pictures of Rosa Parks and the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Information about the Montgomery Improvement Association, the Supreme Court ruling, sit-ins, and other peaceful protests were presented. The March for Freedom and the passing of the 1964 Civil Rights Act were explained. The Selma to Montgomery March was shown, as was the violence that ensued on Bloody Sunday. When the video showed that many people were severely injured, a student said, “Whoa!” It went on to show clips of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 signed by Lyndon Baines Johnson. Connections were drawn to the Women’s Movement with the 19th Amendment and the work for legislation supporting people with disabilities. The video concluded with the idea that there is still work to do for people who still face discrimination in present day. Mrs. Collins stated a key idea expressed was to respect one another’s differences. A student said, “I like this movie.” Mrs. Collins addressed the class as a whole group again. She said,

It wasn’t only African Americans that were discriminated against. It happens not just to African Americans. You’ll kind of understand a little bit more about it. We still…it needs to be equal. Sometimes you will go on in life and things won’t seem fair to you.

Mrs. Collins then asked the students, “What positive changes could Martin Luther King, Jr., have made in America?” She stated erroneously, “I think he was in his fifties when he was assassinated.” Students did not respond to Mrs. Collin’s question, but a student did ask, “Why did it take so many presidents to solve one problem?” Mrs. Collins said, “Sometimes presidents are afraid of the backlash.” A student asked, “Like shot?” Mrs. Collins said, “No, like presidents
not wanting people to complain. Things evolved over many years for it to be changed.” A student said, “God didn’t like that.” Another student said, “I’m glad that we can go to the same school and be free.” A student asked a question involving slavery, but it was not clear to the researcher what was said. Mrs. Collins responded to the student,

Native Americans were slaves, too. It wasn’t that out in the open, but if you want to research…I don’t know if they called them that. It could have been servants. I think it happened to all people except for Whites. I don’t know if I’ve heard of that.

Going back to Mrs. Collins’ original question about Martin Luther King, Jr., she stated, “So sad. He died so young. I would like to have seen what other changes he could make. He probably would have tried to run for president if he lived.” A student changed the subject and asked, “What if black people brought back white slaves?” Mrs. Collins said, “It is illegal. They will be arrested and go to jail.” She then tried to refocus the lesson by reminding students they needed to finish their timelines so they could practice for their parent night performance.

Mrs. Collins distributed the timelines the students had worked on during the prior lessons. She asked the class to write the date 1948 on the timeline and write that Harry Truman ended segregation in the Armed Forces. Students wrote the date and statement on their timelines and then Mrs. Collins said, “I’m gonna skip a few years, something big happened in 1954.” She instructed students to write that the US Supreme Court ruled segregated schools were unconstitutional. She next asked them to write, In 1955, Rosa Parks decided she was not going to give up her seat on the bus which began the Montgomery Bus Boycott. She stated, “Everyone of color decided not to ride the city busses. They walked everywhere, hitched a ride to and from work, and walked. The boycott lasted a full year from 1955 to 1956, December to December, for one year.”
The instruction with the timeline continued as Mrs. Collins stated, “Having the boycott helped them, so Martin Luther King got involved. They met and had meetings. College students had sit-ins, sat for hours as a way, not a violent way to protest, proving their point.” A student asked, “Slaves?” Mrs. Collins responded, “Slavery’s over. Get that out of your head.” Another student said, “Waitresses spitting on them, hitting them, squirting ketchup on them. We learned this last year.” Another student said, “My grandmother and I were watching Manny Mandela.” Mrs. Collins corrected the student by saying Nelson Mandela. Another student joined in the conversation saying, “I watched The Butler. People were spitting in their ears. They were at a restaurant spilling sugar.” Mrs. Collins asked for clarification of the title of the movie. The student then elaborated, “There were black folks burning white folks’ stuff, throwing stuff at buildings.” Mrs. Collins stated adamantly, “Let me move on.”

Next, Mrs. Collins asked the students to write on the timeline, 1963- March for Freedom. She wrote the phrase on the board for the students to copy and then stated erroneously, “Rosa Parks spoke there.” She continued, “I’m not sure who all spoke there. Other people spoke, but I’m not sure. This March for Freedom worked because in 1964, the Civil Rights Act made segregation illegal.” On the whiteboard by the year 1965, Mrs. Collins wrote Voting Rights Act and told the students, “Everyone could vote, no matter the color of your skin. I should say race.” A student asked a question about children going to separate schools based on race. Mrs. Collins stated, “All during this time when black children were going with white children in the ‘60s, it wasn’t really accepted. In the ‘70s, it became more normal.” A student asked Mrs. Collins if they could go to 2014 on their timeline. Mrs. Collins said, “I bet we could think of things to add.” Another student made the suggestion of ending the timeline with 1968 because it was the
year Martin Luther King, Jr., was assassinated. Mrs. Collins responded with, “I don’t want to put that on there because this is more like civil rights.”

Then Mrs. Collins asked the class if there were any questions about the timeline. She told the students that on a different day, the students would be given more worksheets because she wanted to give the students a grade on this subject matter. A student asked a question about how the president allowed these actions to take place. Mrs. Collins responded with, “Maybe he was taking baby steps. I don’t really know.” Another student shared she had just watched the movie, *12 Years a Slave* and that her mother had started crying. Several other students also shared that they had watched it. Another student said, “He was from New York, and they took his tuxedo and put him in slaves clothes and he tried to escape.” Mrs. Collins said, “That sounds sad. That would make me cry.”

The subject was changed by Mrs. Collins introducing a biography of Rosa Parks to students stating she would start in the middle of the book. She told the class, “You already know about Rosa, but we will read this.” Mrs. Collins said people in Montgomery refused to ride, and the bus companies were impacted financially. She explained, “That was a big thing because they lost money when they wouldn’t ride. Some people hated the new laws. Sometimes people have a hard time accepting change.” The students noted the book was written before she died. Several students stated, erroneously, they knew Rosa Parks had died in 2006. Mrs. Collins praised the students for knowing this and ended the lesson so that students could go practice for their parent night performance.

**Within-Case Analysis**

Within-case analysis themes, from each of the three teachers, are separated by case and addressed here in the following table and in the subsequent sections. Each of the two research
questions and two research sub-questions have been included in Table 6 and in the succeeding paragraphs identified in their headings by research question topics. Table 6 condenses specific themes gleaned from all teachers and all data sources (lesson plan artifacts, pre and post-interviews, CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interviews, informal and unstructured interviews, and observations) from this collective case study. Components incorporated into Table 6 are the themes noted with a thematic title beside the questions and sub-questions guiding the study. The sections following the table give extensive information about the data that informed the themes and are separated by research questions and sub-questions.
Table 6

*Within-Case Analysis: Themes for Mrs. Archer, Mrs. Beckett, and Mrs. Collins*

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions and Sub-Questions</th>
<th>Mrs. Archer’s Themes</th>
<th>Mrs. Beckett’s Themes</th>
<th>Mrs. Collins’ Themes</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 1: Use of Traditional Practices</td>
<td>Theme 1: Difficulty in Describing Practices Used to Teach the Movement</td>
<td>Theme 1: Difficulty in Describing Practices Used to Teach the Movement</td>
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<tr>
<td>1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 2: Use of Non-Traditional Practices</td>
<td>Theme 2: Use of Traditional Practices</td>
<td>Theme 2: Use of Traditional Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 3: Using Practices Addressing Perceived Deficits</td>
<td>Theme 3: Use of Non-Traditional Practice</td>
<td>Theme 3: Use of Non-Traditional Practices</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Theme 5: Demonstrated Practices Observed Differed from Described Practices</td>
<td>Theme 5: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement</td>
<td>Theme 5: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Theme 6: Demonstrated Practices Observed Differed from Described Practices</td>
<td>Theme 6: Teacher-Centered Instruction</td>
<td>Theme 6: Teacher-Centered Instruction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Themes Noted from Within-Case Analysis
Teacher 1 - Mrs. Archer

The ways in which Mrs. Archer addressed the research questions are noted within this section. The first question was, “How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Two themes emerged as Mrs. Archer described her instructional practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in both (1) traditional and (2) non-traditional means in social studies education in elementary schools. Both themes are discussed in the next two sections entitled: Theme 1 and Theme 2.

Theme 1: Described Use of Traditional Practices

Traditional practices in social studies instruction involving knowledge transmission (Stradling, 2003) were described by Mrs. Archer. Specifically, these traditional methods include the reading of a central text (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Loewen, 2007), teaching social studies with an emphasis on literacy skill acquisition (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, Houser, 1995), and assigning students to complete company-generated tasks and tests (Waring & Robinson, 2010).

- First, Mrs. Archer explained the practice of assigning students to read a central text in small groups or whole group settings and teaching language arts skills.
- Second, she explained teaching practices involving assigning company-generated student activities and having students take a pre-made test.

Paragraphs below address the specific traditional practices described by Mrs. Archer for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. The particular described practices of traditional instruction are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.

Reading a central text and teaching language arts skills. Mrs. Archer described traditional practices of assigning reading and teaching language arts skills. Mrs. Archer stated one of her main instructional practices was to have students read a social studies text
individually, with small groups, or with a whole group. She said she liked asking students to read *Studies Weekly* to teach the US Civil Rights Movement because it was “kid-friendly” as opposed to the prior textbook that was “over the students’ heads and they had a hard time reading.” Because of the emphasis the periodical places on reading and reading skills, Mrs. Archer explained she was able to integrate literacy instruction from the Alabama College and Career Readiness English Language Arts standards (Alabama State Department of Education, 2013) easily as she taught any social studies topic, including the US Civil Rights Movement. She added that teachers in her grade level also used Cornell Notes (Paulk, 1962) as a language arts instructional practice throughout the curriculum, so as they were reading in social studies, they had to locate evidence to rationalize their responses.

**Assigning activities and giving tests.** Other traditional social studies instructional practice described by Mrs. Archer included assigning activities and giving tests, often using skills from literacy standards. Mrs. Archer explained within her standard use of the central text, *Studies Weekly*, she assigned students to complete the activities within the periodical. Mrs. Archer stated the newspaper has “all sorts of activities” for students to “do” independently and students “seem to enjoy it.” Examples given of the types of activities included in the text were cross word puzzles, word searches, and fill-in-the-blank questions for which students were to supply answers. She said by reading passages and answering questions related to social studies, they also were meeting reading standards as students had to provide justification for their answers.

Mrs. Archer further commented she liked the built-in, company-generated, weekly tests that were sent with the periodical as traditional instructional practices. She remarked she enjoyed using these pre-made tests because they were convenient, and she did not have to create
her own assessments. She further liked using these tests because they were correlated to the texts the students had read within *Studies Weekly*. These tests included true or false, multiple choice, some vocabulary, and fill-in-the-blank questions. When teaching each week, she also explained adding additional vocabulary relating to her specific teaching. She said it was necessary to include extra vocabulary when she had asked students to remember definitions other than those given within the texts. She decided to add words based on any supplementary vocabulary words used in class related to topics and words she thought they should learn. Mrs. Archer explained, “I add the vocabulary because it’s got vocabulary, but sometimes it’s not vocabulary I want them to know for that particular subject.” Further she stated she assigned a discussion question requiring students to respond in writing to one prompt related to the topics on the test.

**Theme 2: Described Use of Non-Traditional Practices**

Mrs. Archer described non-traditional practices she used beyond traditional methods of social studies instruction discussed in the above paragraphs.

- First, Mrs. Archer described facilitating discussions around topics students had read or information she told them.
- Second, Mrs. Archer discussed presenting additional, outside resources to introduce information about the movement to her class by showing videos, displaying information found on websites, and reading children’s trade books to students.

Paragraphs below address the use of practices other than traditional instruction described by Mrs. Archer for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. The specific described practices, beyond traditional instruction, are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.
Facilitating discussions. Mrs. Archer described discussions as a central instructional practice beyond her traditional approaches in her teaching of Alabama history and in particular, the US Civil Rights Movement. She described the process she used in facilitating discussions as assigning students to read the text and then asking students to discuss the articles with their peers or in whole group. She said she would pose questions for students to answer, ask students to give key points that they found to be interesting or informative, and have students inquire about information they did not understand after reading. Mrs. Archer stated while using Studies Weekly as her central text, she “takes an article and we talk about one article, maybe two articles a day.” When asked to elaborate on how students were involved in the discussions, she explained,

And, lots of it depends on your kids and how many questions they ask. And, how much they participate. I have had classes that it was just question after question after question. It was just, they were so involved in it and it dragged on and it went on and we might have dragged it out a little bit longer. And, then some classes, they just don’t ask questions and they don’t participate a whole lot, so it’s a shorter time.

Another example of discussion was noted when she described her abilities to integrate varied themes of social studies into instruction with the US Civil Rights Movement. She said,

Of course, we talk about the economics aspect and how, especially we talk about, ‘OK, what if you were a business owner that allowed minorities into your business during this time and how would people react? Would they still support your business? When they come, how would that affect you?’

When Mrs. Archer explained how she framed discussions, she sometimes referred to posing hypothetical questions to her students about the US Civil Rights Movement. She stated, “I’ve posed the question to them, if this [The US Civil Rights Movement] hadn’t happened, what would it be like now?” In her ideas for the first lesson taught she said, “I’m hoping that that will lead into the discussion of, ‘OK, wait a minute. Is this fair?’ and then we will talk about what
civil rights are.” Consider the following exchange that illustrates this use of posing questions as discussions.

Researcher- When you say you hold discussions with the students, are students as part of the conversation? Do they have an input or do you mostly tell them what happened? How do you engage them in these discussions?

Mrs. Archer- Well, first of all, I’ll introduce it and then I’ll pose a question to them as to, ‘Okay, now, what do you think you would have done?’ I try to get them to put themselves into the situation.

Presenting information through outside resources. Mrs. Archer said she liked using *Studies Weekly* as her main social studies text in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement because it allowed her the freedom to include additional resources to present information to students. She stated, “It covers the material. This particular series allows me to pull more in because they’re very short information-filled articles and it doesn’t take a whole lot of time so you have more time to pull in extra stuff.” Mrs. Archer explained she enjoyed bringing in “additional” and “outside” resources such as “videos, video clips, information from other textbooks, online articles, *Discovery Kids Magazine* as an online resource, books, and charts” to present information to students. She explicated this presentation of outside resources involved telling students information from websites and online articles shown on her whiteboard through her projector. She described presenting information through showing charts to students. Mrs. Archer explained she read trade books to students for them to hear information and involved students in watching videos she displayed on the whiteboard through projection from the internet. She indicated, however, using these resources “depends on how much time” she had to teach the US Civil Rights Movement as to whether she could bring in supplemental resources in addition to the *Studies Weekly* resource curriculum. “It takes a lot of things, a lot of time, and a lot of research to find all the resources. And, even though they’re out there it, takes a lot of
searching,” Mrs. Archer explained. Mrs. Archer also said the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement necessitates the use of outside resources that are often difficult to find and often not appropriate for her elementary students. She said about these US Civil Rights Movement resources for elementary students, “They’re not there…Because it’s very limited, very limited. I struggle…trying to find stuff.”

In the past, Mrs. Archer had requested materials from the “state archives [Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery]” to help with the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement and to present information to students, but since they had to be shared statewide, they were sometimes unavailable as supplemental materials when she needed them. Once, she asked a guest speaker who was African American to speak to the class to present information about what it was like to live during the US Civil Rights Movement. She stated this speaker was a family friend who was involved as a young person in the movement. There was not any further elaboration as to how her students responded to her instructional practice of incorporating a guest speaker into lessons or whether or not Mrs. Archer felt this to be worthwhile teaching strategy.

**Theme 3: Description of Rationale: Using Practices Addressing Perceived Deficits**

Data from Mrs. Archer in response to the first sub-question of the first research question are reported within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?” Mrs. Archer described her rationale for using instructional practices as addressing particular perceived students’ deficits.

- First, Mrs. Archer discussed ways her perceptions of students’ lack of empathy framed her reasoning for using discussions in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement.
Second, Mrs. Archer’s perceptions of students’ inadequate background knowledge provided a rationale for presenting information through a central text, through outside resources, and for assigning student activities and giving pre-made tests.

Paragraphs below address the rationale described by Mrs. Archer for using specific instructional practices to address perceived deficits in teaching the Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Specific areas of perceived students’ deficits are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.

**Students’ lack of empathy.** Mrs. Archer expressed she felt her students often lack empathy and she used this as a rationale for implementing discussions when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in her Alabama history curriculum in fourth grade social studies. In order to increase her students’ understanding of the information during the lessons, she tried to appeal to their feelings through discussions and believed her students needed to hone this skill in their everyday actions. She said, “I’m hoping to [frame the lessons in empathy]. That’s my hope because that’s something some kids don’t have right now is empathy. I’m finding that, sometimes, it’s all about me.”

In addressing her perceived students’ lack of empathy, Mrs. Archer indicated by facilitating discussions, she hoped to build empathy as part of her students’ views and have them apply it, in turn, to their current actions and classroom behaviors. In talking about the lessons she planned to teach, Mrs. Archer reiterated she would focus on emotions and feelings, stating, “I have some questions to ask them about how they would feel if someone mistreated them just because they thought they were better than you.” In response to the questions during discussions about whether Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law, Mrs. Archer stated, “I’m going to tell them that there is no right or wrong answer, it’s just how you feel.” Further, in her
pre-interview, she explained class discussions as a central instructional practice in the connection of students’ personal feelings to the topic of the US Civil Rights Movement. She again referred to eliciting students’ empathetic responses including visualizing themselves as a part of societal norms during the height of segregation laws in the South as they talked about that subject together. She stated,

  I try, like, when we talk about that white and minorities had different entrances,… ‘What if you and a friend, if you had a minority friend, and you went to a business and you had to go in separate entrances, what would you do? Would you do that?’

Mrs. Archer stated when teaching about the Selma to Montgomery March, she focused discussions on the hardships the Civil Rights activists faced as they endured the trek from walking such a distance to the state capitol. She said she told students, “I mean that’s a long way! And I ask some of them, ‘How many of you have ever been to Montgomery or Selma?’ And they say, ‘They marched that far?’” She referred to plotting the march on the state map in the classroom during discussions and having students talk about how they would feel if they were to take that march themselves. By reinforcing how tired those people must have been and how they must have wanted to stop at some points she emphasized empathy involves putting oneself in the place of another to feel as they would feel emotionally and physically.

  When asked why it was important for her students to understand the objectives for her second lesson regarding civil rights, Mrs. Archer again referred to the lack of students’ empathy as a driving force in her implementation of the practice of facilitating discussions. She said through the class discussions,

        I want them, through this lesson, to maybe have a little more empathy for people because some of them, children nowadays, don’t really have a whole lot of empathy. It’s all about me. It’s a me thing. It’s what can I get out of it. And, I just want them to see how other people feel and put them in a situation where they have to feel the way those people felt.
Students’ inadequate background knowledge. When Mrs. Archer conferred her rationale for planning and implementing specific instructional practices when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, she continually referred to students’ “background knowledge” and “prior knowledge.” She mentioned she often thinks about what students know, about the US Civil Rights Movement, prior to walking into her classroom. She explained in her school there was a larger focus on social studies content in the upper elementary grades because of departmentalization; however, “I will say that I don’t know that there is in the lower grades.” Because of this deficit in background knowledge, Mrs. Archer stated she tried to increase students’ exposure to the social studies topic of the US Civil Rights Movement by using the instructional practice of presenting information from outside resources. She claimed this presentation involved showing students videos. She further explained she showed websites on her Smart Board occasionally, but mostly used websites for locating videos to show students. She also explained the instructional practice of reading children’s trade books to the students. Mrs. Archer said, “I don’t know that they are going to have the background knowledge on what civil rights are” and “I feel like that’s going to be one of the biggest obstacles” in teaching the topic to her students. She reasoned by using Studies Weekly to foster background knowledge through instructional practices of reading and assigning activities and tests, the students would also grow in their understanding of the movement. She described she was able to help students build this knowledge by assigning student activities where they could show their understanding through the accuracy of their answers. Mrs. Archer explained the culminating tests were used to give an indication of whether students had grown in their background knowledge after completing units of instruction.
Theme 4: Description of Beliefs: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement

The way in which Mrs. Archer addressed the second sub-question to the first research question is noted within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?” Mrs. Archer was unable to describe central beliefs that guided her instruction of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to her elementary students. When prompted to discuss her beliefs that impacted her chosen practices, she was unable to give her beliefs and responded with evasiveness or with unrelated information. For example, the only complete direct quote Mrs. Archer would give related to her beliefs in using specific instructional practices was this statement of her beliefs about her job as a teacher.

Every student is capable of learning and it may not be…but every student has a different way of learning. And, it’s my job to figure out what the best way is that they learn. And, sometimes it’s easy to figure out and sometimes it’s not.

She provided an overall description of her philosophy about teaching in general, but was apprehensive about being forthright with her specific beliefs for selecting her chosen practices regarding teaching the US Civil Rights Movement.

Theme 5: Demonstrated Practices Observed Differed from Described Practices

The ways in which Mrs. Archer addressed the second research question are noted within this section. The question was “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?” Mrs. Archer demonstrated four practices in her lessons as she taught the US Civil Rights Movement to her fourth graders. Of the four practices, all but the second practice of presenting information through outside resources differed from her original description of her central practices.

- First, Mrs. Archer demonstrated the practice of implementing a simulation with students.
Second, she demonstrated presenting information through outside resources by showing a video to the class and reading a children’s trade book.

Third, Mrs. Archer demonstrated having students work in small groups to complete assigned tasks.

Fourth, her demonstrated practices involved asking students lower-level questions.

Specific practices noted are indicated in the bold headings at the beginnings of the following sections.

**Implementing a simulation.** In the first lesson, the use of a simulation was a central demonstrated instructional practice. Students were assigned to imaginary separate schools, and Mrs. Archer had students move through the simulation. The simulation attempted to model segregated schools and the inadequacies and discrepancies in resources in all-African American schools and the all-Caucasian schools prior to school integration. Mrs. Archer expressed, by having students involved in the simulation, they could attempt to empathize with difficulties African Americans faced during the pre-integration period. The students were to be challenged as they moved through the simulation and felt the injustices associated with segregation. At times, the students were frustrated by the activity and announced this frustration to their teacher and classmates. Some students clearly connected the simulation to the segregated schools prior to integration. These connections, however, were not acknowledged by Mrs. Archer. In concluding the simulation, comparisons from those with advantages, to the Caucasian schools of the segregated South were not made by the teacher or students. Comparisons to the school with disadvantages to the African American schools of the segregated South were not made, post-simulation, by teachers or students either. Mrs. Archer ended the lesson with, “You might be in separate schools, but you were not treated equal (sic). During the
Civil Rights Movement this is how schools were.” One student responded to her comment with the question, “Is this just for white people?” Mrs. Archer did not address the student’s comment directly or address the student’s misconception. She did not bring the simulation experience directly to the topic of race or its implications on the US Civil Rights Movement.

Finally, the simulation ended as Mrs. Archer stated, “You had schools for white children and schools for African Americans. This is what people said then. The schools were separate, but they had the same stuff, but people said the schools were equal even though they were not.” Mrs. Archer did not describe who these “people” were. She did not refer to these people as Caucasians or white people. At no time did Mrs. Archer discuss the term ‘segregated’ with the students to explain its meaning and implications. Race was mentioned only as a difference in the students who attended each school, rather than the basis for creating separate laws regarding all aspects of society, including schools.

**Presenting information through outside resources.** Mrs. Archer referred to materials other than *Studies Weekly* as “outside” or “additional resources.” In both observations, Mrs. Archer offered these outside resources in her lessons to present information to students. She demonstrated the use of both a video and trade book to present information to students. These methods of transmission of knowledge in instructional practice were demonstrated in the course of both observations.

In the first observed lesson Mrs. Archer implemented the use of a video clip from the internet. She showed it directly after the experiential simulation the students participated in involving segregated schools. There were instances during which the video touched on the factual information about the Montgomery Bus Boycott; however, the video was from the Biography Channel and predominately focused on Rosa Parks, rather than the involvement of
many citizens active in the boycott. This video appeared to be used in the place of lecture, as students watched and listened to the video without clarification as the film played. No introduction was given prior to the video to suggest what students should notice, only that students should settle into their seats to watch a video about Rosa Parks’ life. No conclusion was given after the video for summation. It is also important to note that along with presenting information to the students, the video also presented a myth that remained unaddressed. On the video, Professor Manning Marable suggested Mrs. Parks was not tired on the bus, and then later that interpretation was contradicted with a misconception from Maya Angelou that Rosa Parks was tired and this was her reasoning for not giving up her seat on the Montgomery Bus.

A children’s trade book, also focused primarily on Rosa Parks, was presented to students. Mrs. Archer read the book aloud and turned the pages, showing students some of the pages. Students listened and watched as this occurred. The primary purpose of this trade book seemed to present information to students, though it was a fictional story. Mrs. Archer did not stop and implement guided questioning during the reading of Faith Ringgold’s book, If a Bus Could Talk. After the reading of the book concluded, it was not discussed for information, but Mrs. Archer did ask students how they would have felt if they had been treated like Rosa Parks and why they would have felt that way.

Assigning small group work. Group work was another instructional practice observed in the lessons as students were asked to answer assigned questions and to work on group responses. One of the group work activities involved the use of non-fiction articles written about events of the US Civil Rights Movement including Rosa Park’s arrest and Dr. King’s I Have a Dream speech. The articles cannot be cited as Mrs. Archer did not supply copies of them with her plan, nor did she indicate their exact sources other than stating the informational articles were
selected from the *Scholastic* website and were not primary documents. She explained they summarized key events for an elementary audience.

After reading the articles or hearing peers read the articles aloud, students were tasked in groups to determine if Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law or not. It was not clear if Mrs. Archer expected a certain response. At one point she said the students were not to give a certain answer, but just to interpret what they felt as she said, “I’m not looking for the perfect answer…I’m going to tell them that there is no right or wrong answer, it’s just how you feel.” Later, she stated, “I want them to see that Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law, even though she did.” It was unclear how groups would be assessed for understanding based on these conflicting objectives.

**Lower-level, teacher questioning as discussion.** Mrs. Archer stated she would incorporate talking and discussion as instructional practices in the lessons. The demonstrated discussions essentially included the teacher’s introduction of questions and students’ attempted responses to such questions. There were no instances noted where discussions involved students asking questions of the teacher or classmates. The discussion was observed to be a series of questions without teacher follow-up. Students’ answers were often only in the form of yes and no. Some questions did not involve students’ verbal responses but simply called for students to raise their hands to be counted. A few examples from the first lesson observation were, “Would you like to continue to treat this classroom as two separate schools?”, “Do you think I treated the green school as fairly as I did the pink school?”, Was I fair?”, and “How many of you go to church?” In the second observation, use of yes and no questioning was exhibited as well. For example, Mrs. Archer asked, “Was that activity fair?”, “Was that true or false?”, and “Was Rosa Parks justified in breaking the law or is it ever okay to break the law?”
In the second lesson observation, Mrs. Archer stated she wanted to specifically introduce discussions that would evoke empathy from her students. In attempts to introduce empathetic discussions, she said to students, “We know from the book that Rosa Parks was treated unfairly.” She then asked, “How would you feel if someone treated you unfairly because they thought they were better than you?” The students responded with answers stating feelings of madness and sadness would be evoked if they were treated unfairly. Mrs. Archer followed students’ responses asking, “Why would you be mad?” One student gave an unrelated answer that was not trailed by further questioning. One student answered, “I don’t see where that’s right to mistreat someone.” Mrs. Archer did not acknowledge this response. Mrs. Archer asked, “Why would you be sad?” When students answered the questions, their comments were not offered to the class for discussion, nor did they receive a reply from Mrs. Archer.

Summary of Within-Case Analysis for Mrs. Archer

Mrs. Archer described traditional instructional practices related to the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies such as a reliance on a central text for assigning reading, teaching literacy skills, assigning activities, and giving tests. She also described using non-traditional practices of facilitating discussions, bringing in outside resources into her lessons for presenting information like showing videos and reading children’s trade books. Mrs. Archer explained a rationale for using specific instructional practices to address perceived students’ deficits like students’ lack of empathy and background knowledge. Mrs. Archer was unable to describe beliefs guiding her instructional practices in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Her demonstrated instructional practices differed from described instructional practices including the implementation of a simulation, small group work, and class discussions consisting of lower-level, teacher-led questioning of topics chosen by the teacher.
Teacher 2 - Mrs. Beckett

The ways in which Mrs. Beckett addressed the research questions are noted within this section. The first question was, “How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Three themes emerged as Mrs. Beckett described her instructional practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Mrs. Beckett (1) had difficulty in describing instructional practices, prior to describing her practices in both (2) traditional and (3) non-traditional ways of teaching the movement in elementary social studies. The three themes are discussed in the next three thematic sections entitled: Theme 1, Theme 2, and Theme 3.

Theme 1: Difficulty in Describing Practices Used to Teach the Movement

Mrs. Beckett clearly had a difficult time in adequately describing key practices she used to teach the movement to her students.

- First, Mrs. Beckett explained prior to this research, she had been leaving the social studies topic of US Civil Rights Movement largely out of her curriculum and thus, generally lacked description of instructional practices.

- Second, Mrs. Beckett reported tangentially covering the topic of the US Civil Rights Movement during February with a Black History Month assignment, incorporation of an annual class field trip, and a final culminating activity of an Alabama scrapbook project and presentation.

Paragraphs below address Mrs. Beckett’s descriptions related to her difficulty in describing instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Specific topics addressed are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.
Lacked description of instructional practices because of inexperience with the topic.

Mrs. Beckett initially reported she had few instructional practices to describe because at her school, “We barely teach social studies, maybe 30 minutes when we can get it in.” Further she stated, “We didn’t teach it before this year.” Additionally, when first approached to do the research, Mrs. Beckett was unaware there were social studies standards included in the *Alabama Course of Study* *(ALCOS)* (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010) that expressly mandate the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in fourth grade Alabama history. At our initial meeting, she pulled out the standards and was surprised that two standards in the 2010 *ALCOS* related directly to the US Civil Rights Movement. When asked to describe her instructional practices, she stated, “Well, we don’t really teach it. We have a couple of stories like about Martin Luther King, Jr., or things like that, but we just really don’t teach the Civil Rights Movement.” She described not really being able to describe her practices, as she had few to discuss.

*Tangentially related practices.* After explaining she had not taught the topic prior to the year of this research, Mrs. Beckett then described the ways in which she had incorporated practices related to the US Civil Rights Movement prior to this research during Black History Month. She stated when she did touch on topics related to the US Civil Rights Movement, it was in the month of February. She explained,

> We usually start it in February because that’s the month we’re expected to focus on the African Americans and it sort of joins in with that. Because about that time in Alabama history, we’re sort of about to hit that topic. So, we do kind of mix those.

She elaborated that key US Civil Rights Movement figures could be incorporated in a Black History Month research project and report, depending on student choice. She mentioned sometimes her students would, on their own, include activists who were involved in the US Civil
Rights Movement and teach their peers through their presentations about those people. Mrs. Beckett explained,

And, we do a research project on the famous African Americans or important African Americans. Not necessarily famous because we do research on someone that’s made a positive impact on society. And, it can’t be, I don’t know, you know, a rapper or something, it has to be an African American that’s made a positive impact. So, they always enjoy that and they do find some that they don’t know about that were important.

Mrs. Beckett explained including places in Alabama relevant to the US Civil Rights Movement within the annual class field trip to the state capital of Montgomery, Alabama. She said having students visit the “state archives [Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery]” was an instructional practice that helped students focus on the US Civil Rights Movement. She stated, “We look at early Alabama. We start with the Indians and then go up through the Civil Rights Movement, it covers all of that. Have you seen it since they remodeled? It is amazing!” She reported students were completely engaged and learned a great deal about the US Civil Rights Movement from the experiential, active field trip. She stated, “Some of these kids have never been out of [city’s name], so it is just totally amazing to see their reaction and things like that when they go to a place like that.”

When asked if she purposefully planned field trips to incorporate actual locations pivotal to the movement, Mrs. Beckett explained she pointed out “Dr. King’s church.” She also mentioned she considered taking students to the Rosa Parks Museum, but then found it to be cost prohibitive. She stated,

…Actually, when we go to Montgomery, we don’t actually go to the church, but we can stand at the front of the capitol and see the church. The bus goes by the church that Dr. King preached. So, we did use that as a teaching point. If it wasn’t so expensive, I would love to do the Rosa Parks Museum and we have had some children in the past that did go visit. So, not only has the Alabama history helped the families that are able to go, but it has sparked curiosity for some of the families that might not have visited some of those places like the Rosa Parks Museum.
Another instructional practice Mrs. Beckett said, indirectly related to the US Civil Rights Movement, was the culminating class project of an Alabama history annual scrapbook incorporating topics and skills covered over the course of the academic year. The scrapbook project served as a portfolio of each student’s Alabama history work throughout the school year and included class assignments, written papers, research projects, art, notes, and information related to fourth grade social studies standards. The students and parents worked on compiling the scrapbooks at their homes. After creating the scrapbooks, the students were expected to individually present their completed projects to the class. According to Mrs. Beckett “A lot of schools have gotten away from the Alabama history scrapbook, but we still do that. We just feel that it’s just a good family activity. It gets the family involved and they learn something about Alabama.” When asked to explain the Alabama scrapbook, Mrs. Beckett said students work on the assignment from January until May. She also explained the majority of the students’ grades for the last nine weeks derived from their completed scrapbook and class presentation. Pictures and information collected in Montgomery could be included in students’ scrapbooks. She explained,

We teach them all the symbols and then they do a report on the governor, they have to choose an Indian tribe from Alabama. These are all just one page simple, they can be handwritten reports. They get extra bonus points if they visit a place in Alabama, take a picture and tell about it. That’s not required because we realize you can’t require everybody, but they do get bonus points for that. Let me think what else we do… A famous Alabamian, they do a report on that.

When Mrs. Beckett was asked how this instructional practice related to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, she explained that students sometimes chose to research and report on a famous Alabamian associated with the movement. Though she did not assign famous Alabamians associated with the movement, if students elected to research an activist, she considered this an instructional practice used to incorporate the US Civil Rights Movement.
Another description of how students integrated the movement in their scrapbook project was when students happened to visit locations in Alabama with their families that related to the US Civil Rights Movement. She explained, “A lot of parents that are not usually involved, they get involved with that [visiting places in Alabama].” If students do not visit the places in person, they could include places in Alabama they researched and incorporate pictures of those if they have families who are not able to travel to visit the places in person. She stated, “We don’t compare books. I can’t compare this child with this child. But I know what this child’s capable of and where they’ve come from and it’s graded according to that. They have to have all the content.” Though Mrs. Beckett considered this as an instructional practice she incorporated in her classroom, it relied heavily on the families of her students, and thus did not include teaching practices focused specifically on the movement planned and implemented purposefully by her.

**Theme 2: Described Use of Traditional Practices**

Traditional practices in social studies instruction involving knowledge transmission (Stradling, 2003) were described by Mrs. Beckett. Specifically, Mrs. Beckett reported traditional methods include the reading of a central text (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Loewen, 2007) and using social studies to teach language arts skills (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, Houser, 1995). Paragraphs below address specific traditional practices described by Mrs. Beckett for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Particular described practices are noted by bold headings at the beginning of the sections.

**Assigning reading and teaching language arts skills.** Mrs. Beckett reported her primary instructional practice used for teaching Alabama history and the US Civil Rights Movement was reading “through the newspaper” in her classroom with her fourth graders. She stated *Studies Weekly* had been adopted by her school system as the social studies curriculum
and, therefore, her primary resource to teach the movement. She explained students like reading the newspaper as opposed to the textbook used in the past because the students’ newspapers are “kid friendly” but “it’s the same exact information that was in the textbook.” Her instructional practices included having students read the texts individually, separately, and as a whole group. Mrs. Beckett said she enjoyed using the periodical to read with her students. She explained, “I like it. It’s more appealing to the kids because it’s like a newspaper instead of a textbook so they feel more interested in it. And, I think it’s really a great way to relay the information.” When asked how students responded to this instructional practice of reading Studies Weekly, Mrs. Beckett stated students responded well to the different format with a “newspaper feel and pictures,” rather than a textbook.

Mrs. Beckett explained one way of incorporating the Alabama College and Career Readiness Standards for English Language Arts (ALSDE, 2013) was through reading the newspaper with social studies content in it. Much more of the content in reading is focused on nonfiction, according to Mrs. Becket, so she claimed it naturally integrated with social studies and the social studies “stories do lend themselves” to reading content. She explained some assessments in the newspaper were geared toward connecting and justifying responses, which she used as an instructional strategy to support language arts instruction. She said, “They have to find the answer and say this is why. That’s a big focus now in all areas.”

Theme 3: Described Use of Non-traditional Practice

Mrs. Beckett briefly described a practice she used beyond the traditional methods of social studies instruction discussed in the above paragraphs. This section below addresses her use of facilitating discussions as an alternative to traditional instructional practices for teaching
the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Her specific described non-traditional practice is noted by a bold heading at the beginning of the section.

**Facilitating discussions.** Mrs. Beckett briefly explained that after students read their articles in the newspaper, she often engaged in “talking” or “discussions” about the topics that the newspaper introduced. She reported *Studies Weekly*, “covers a lot of the content, it really does... I like that. I’d rather just talk about it and see what the kids know.” She stated in her social studies instruction, discussion was a main way of how she “gives information” to the students. Though Mrs. Beckett reported she was in charge of relaying information to students in these class discussions, she then explained that students were also involved in peer discussions. Consider the following conversation about how Mrs. Beckett’s explained her instructional practice of implementing discussions.

Researcher- When you mean discussion with your students, do you mean you’ll ask questions and they will respond? Or are they going to be talking together or how do you…? 
*Mrs. Beckett interrupts*

Mrs. Beckett- Well, we’ll just do a little bit of both. Like, I’ll discuss with them and then I’ll have them discuss with their groups or partners on different things that they know about it or have learned about it.

It was explained that, during these discussions used as social studies instructional practices, she and the students, “just talked about the content that was in that week’s lesson” within the periodical; however, the conversation above intimated students were also involved in peer discussions. Because of this discrepancy, it was unclear if Mrs. Beckett had a firm grasp on what discussions with her class involved.

**Theme 4: Description of Rationale: Using Practices Addressing Perceived Deficits**

The ways in which Mrs. Beckett addressed the first sub-question to the first research question are noted within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address instruction of the US
Civil Rights Movement?” She framed her rationale in terms of using specific practices to address perceived deficits in two ways.

- First, she explained limited instructional time, influenced heavily by reading, math, and science curriculum, did not allow her to teach social studies in general and in particular the US Civil Rights Movement. This necessitated the use of tangentially related practices and the use of Studies Weekly to incorporate reading and language arts skills.
- Second, Mrs. Beckett explained her perception of students’ lacking background knowledge that she believed necessitated “giving knowledge” through described practices.

Paragraphs below address the rationale described by Mrs. Beckett for using specific instructional practices to address perceived deficits in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Specific topics discussed by Mrs. Beckett are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.

**Limited time.** Mrs. Beckett explained the emphasis in her classroom on, and her perception of the school’s interest in, social studies instruction. She stated, “Because we’re focusing on math and reading so much, that just engulfs so much of our day that we just have this little snippet of time left.” Mrs. Beckett explained her instructional practices in social studies were deeply impacted by the significant time crunch she experienced daily in trying to incorporate Alabama history instruction into her teaching practices. When asked the main reason for her instructional practices of using Studies Weekly for reading and language arts skills and in using loosely related projects and field trips, she responded, “It’s the time. It’s the time definitely. And, you have this [mandated] time for reading. And, there’s nothing mandated, that I know of for social studies.” She further explained,
I really love teaching Alabama history and I think that there could be so much more done with it. But, with all the emphasis on reading and math, we just don’t have the time that we need to devote to it.

When Mrs. Beckett was asked if this lack of emphasis and time related to social studies instruction was implied by the administration or was an outright directive. She explained, “I mean, I won’t say that they tell us. They just tell us what we have to do and then we have to fit in like art, music, social studies…We just have to work it in as we can.” The instruction of social studies was related by Mrs. Beckett to the arts that have been removed from the curriculum completely in the school where she teaches. Mrs. Beckett also discussed the emphasis on other subjects other than social studies and ways they were introduced in relation to mandates and testing. She explained recently science has become more of a focus in her school saying, “And, then once they put science on us, you have to do science. Science has to be done. So you’ve got reading, math, and science, then you’ve just got this little bit of time left.” She stated this lack of emphasis on social studies deeply impacted the way she teaches Alabama history, because the limited time allowed for content and skills to only be taught through instructional practices of assigning reading in Studies Weekly.

Mrs. Beckett explained that until social studies becomes tested like the other core subjects, it would not be emphasized in the overall curriculum and within her own classroom and subsequently would continue to affect the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. Because of Mrs. Beckett’s emphasis on the minutes allocated for social studies in her schedule, she was asked how she would increase that time if social studies began to be tested and how this would affect her instructional practices. She was not able to explain how the time in her class would be allocated differently if testing of social studies occurred to increase the emphasis on social studies, though she believed departmentalization would greatly influence instructional practices.
she could employ with students. She stated, “If all I had to do is teach social studies all day, I
mean, you could do a world of things. You could really specialize in it.”

**Students’ inadequate background knowledge.** Mrs. Beckett explained her students’
lack of background knowledge in topics associated with the US Civil Rights Movement served
as the rationale for implementing described practices of assigning reading from class texts and
conversing about information read. She stated students were not familiar with the movement and
its major events and people, but, “they need a background in that area.” She hoped they would
acquire this knowledge through described practices of assigning reading in the weekly periodical
and through information heard in class tangentially from research related projects or on the
Montgomery class field trip.

For instance, Mrs. Beckett offered that students were unfamiliar with segregation and had
little background knowledge with this issue related to the US Civil Rights Movement. She
explained she questioned students’ abilities to fully understand the implications of segregation in
regard to their understanding of life as they know it in present day. She stated, “I feel like they
have to have an understanding because I don’t think they even realize what segregation is and
that people were separated according to race. I don’t think they have really any concept of that.”
She hoped that through reading and discussion, these instructional practices would “just give
them some background knowledge.” Mrs. Beckett further explained she wanted students to
build background knowledge as they discussed specific issues together in class. For instance,
she said,

You know, they kind of think everything’s theirs so I want them to understand that it wasn’t
always this way. That you know, they had to eat in different places, worship in different
places, go to the bathroom in different places. I just don’t think that they understand that. I
think they have a lot of questions about it. So, I expect a lot of discussion on that kind of
thing.
Theme 5: Description of Beliefs: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement

The ways in which Mrs. Beckett addressed the second sub-question to the first research question are noted within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?” Mrs. Beckett articulated a teaching philosophy as a central belief for her teaching. Mrs. Beckett explained her overall belief in teaching students to be successful and lifelong learners. She stated, “I just think that all children have to realize that they can learn and that they all have an important role to play in being the learner.” She further elaborated on her philosophy stating,

They’re not all going to be good at one thing, but it’s my job to help bring out their good points and recognize where they can accelerate because all children are able to learn at some point in some way.

Mrs. Beckett, however, was unable to describe how she translated this philosophy into the teaching of social studies, Alabama history, and the US Civil Rights Movement or how this philosophy influenced her instructional practices. She did not elaborate as to how this belief influenced her selection of her teaching practices to instruct about the movement to her fourth graders.

Theme 6: Demonstrated Practices Observed Differed from Described Practices

Data from Mrs. Beckett relating to the second research question are noted within this section. The question was “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?” Five practices were noted in Mrs. Beckett’s demonstrated teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with her fourth graders.
• First, Mrs. Beckett demonstrated implementing a class simulation.

• Second, Mrs. Beckett presented information to her class through videos.

• Third, Mrs. Beckett assigned small group work.

• Fourth, role-plays were implemented with the US Civil Rights Movement.

• Fifth, demonstrated instructional practices included lower-level questioning as discussion.

Four of the five instructional practices were not apparent in response to the first research question, indicating that largely, her demonstrated practices differed from initially-described practices. Only Mrs. Beckett’s practice of using outside resources was found in both description and in demonstration. Each of these five instructional practices demonstrated in Mrs. Beckett’s classroom is explained in the following paragraphs with a bold heading denoting the specific practices observed.

**Implementing a simulation.** In the first lesson, Mrs. Beckett used a short simulation to engage students in feelings of being in segregated groups. The simulation attempted to model segregation that, she stated to students, “happened in the ‘60s with the Civil Rights Movement.” Mrs. Beckett said the following about teaching using a whole class simulation.

"…[I] want them to understand that, actually what segregation is and how things were segregated before the Civil Rights Movement. And, just help them to understand they were segregated according to race and how the Civil Rights Movement changed that."

In the simulation, students were asked to move to either the front or back of the room and then told if they were in the yellow group in the front, she would, “give them a cookie, a soda, and allow them to watch a movie.” She told the students at the back of the room in the green group, they “would get to watch a movie.” She then asked students to inform one another about the fairness of the practices modeled through the simulation. Students, on their own, began to
raise issues of protest and even connections to Rosa Parks. The teacher asked students to supply more information based on their backgrounds with the topic, but this connection only lasted for a few minutes of soliciting students’ responses. There was no elaboration. She ended the simulation portion of the lesson with the words “Those were just the laws back then. It caused the Civil Rights Movement. We had to stand up and say, we won’t allow it to be separate but equal. That’s just the way things were back then.”

**Presenting information through showing videos.** Another instructional practice observed in Mrs. Beckett’s lessons was the introduction of video clips from the internet. With the first video showing an overview of the US Civil Rights Movement, she used the instructional practice of stopping and clarifying information as the video played. This seemed effective in helping students understand unfamiliar people and places, as students listened attentively. As students raised their hands to ask questions, Mrs. Beckett would give explanations of the topics being presented in the video. These explanations appeared to answer students’ questions as hands were lowered after their teacher’s clarifications.

With the second use of the video in the first lesson, Mrs. Beckett chose a clip of a children’s trade book, *Martin’s Big Words* (Rappaport, 2001). She did not use the practice of stopping the video she had used in the first lesson and briefly explained Martin Luther King, Jr., was instrumental in desegregation as her only comment related to the video. She did not ask her students to discuss their understanding or knowledge gained after seeing the clip. In the second lesson observed, internet video resources were used again with students. The first video was an informational film about Rosa Parks and the other clip from the internet was a short overview of the Montgomery Bus Boycott. For these videos in the second lesson, Mrs. Beckett did not stop to ask questions or make statements during the viewing.
Assigning small group work. Mrs. Beckett also instituted group work as an instructional practice in the lessons observed. In the first lesson, students were asked to work together for multiple purposes. First, students discussed within their groups whether the segregation simulation was fair or not. Second, students discussed ways their peers within each group were alike and different. Mrs. Beckett stated her point in having students engaged in group work was so they would “make some solutions on how they can work together to know that all people are created equal (sic) and treated fairly.” It, however, was not apparent students were doing this in the group work she assigned. Mrs. Beckett stated she wanted students to work in groups a third time to,

…come up with three reasons why segregation should not be or why things should not be segregated. Their group has to present reasons why things should not be segregated and how it relates to the Civil Rights Movement, how the African Americans were treated or segregated.

Students were asked to work in groups to make a list of why people should be treated equally and not separated, but groups were not asked to make the connections with the US Civil Rights Movement. In the second lesson observation, she asked students to work with row partners to elicit prior knowledge related to Rosa Parks and the Bus Boycott. Later, she implemented group work when she asked students to talk with partners about how they would feel if they were Rosa Parks. This use of group work was again used in asking students to work together to create a list of things that happened to them every day and ways they could handle situations calmly like Rosa Parks. Students worked together to create these lists and later shared them with the class.

Role-plays. Another instructional practice demonstrated by Mrs. Beckett within her second lesson on the Civil Rights Movement was the use of a role-play or dramatization. Students in her second lesson were asked to participate in a realistic portrayal of Rosa Parks’ protest reenactment and an example of what she referred to as “a wrong way to have handled it.”
Students volunteered and were chosen to participate in at least one of the two skits. Students worked with a group to create a skit according to the guidelines Mrs. Beckett asked them to use and then answered questions posed by their teacher after the dramatization. The dramatization was explained as a particular strategy chosen based on students’ needs so that they could “actively participate.” She said,

This group is real, well, they’re not the group that can just sit and listen….So I kind of have to get them involved. And I just felt like that maybe with the dramatization they would participate and take part in that.

**Lower-level, teacher questioning as discussion.** Mrs. Beckett used the instructional practice of implementing class discussions with her students in both of her lessons. In the first lesson, she explained she would use both student groups and whole class discussions as strategies in her lessons. She stated, “We’ll just do a little bit of both. Like, I’ll discuss with them and then have them discuss with their groups, or partner, different things that they know about it [The US Civil Rights Movement] or have learned about it.” She implemented discussion in whole group scenarios in both lessons where she talked and prompted students with questions and where students also asked questions to their classmates and to her. One example Mrs. Beckett gave for her use of discussion was when she stated her initial purpose in implementing the segregation simulation was to prompt discussion about segregation among the students. She said,

…I suspect that’s gonna kind of stem into a discussion as we go into you’re segregated. What is segregation? And, then talk about why is this not fair. And, get into a discussion about that, why it wouldn’t be right.”

Further, Mrs. Beckett held a discussion with her class about places that they see segregation now in their own lives and results of that separation. Students were prompted to discuss the importance of treating all people equally. At the end of the first lesson, students were
encouraged to ask questions they still had from the lesson, and students did ask queries with Mrs. Beckett responding. In the second lesson, class discussions were used to have students share their ideas originated within the small group work activities discussed in former paragraphs. Students were asked to tell their prior knowledge about Rosa Parks within a whole class format and also to share their ideas about how they would feel if they had been Rosa. Further, Mrs. Beckett asked students to address the class with ways they could handle problems calmly, and students shared those ideas in a whole group discussion. Though it appeared there were a few places in her lesson, as discussed above, where students were engaging in discussions with their classmates and their teacher, it was noted that often these discussions were essentially question asking and simple responses by the students and the teacher.

**Summary of Within-Case Analysis for Mrs. Beckett**

Mrs. Beckett was found to have difficulty in describing key practices used to teach the movement and explained only using tangentially-related practices to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. She described traditional methods of reading and teaching language arts skills with a central text and using the non-traditional instructional practice of facilitating discussions to teach the movement. Mrs. Beckett described her rationale for using specific instructional practices as influenced by deficits including limited time, emphasis on social studies curriculum, and students’ background knowledge. Mrs. Beckett described her teaching philosophy, but was unable to explain how that philosophy translated into her beliefs for using particular instructional practices in teaching the movement. Her demonstrated instructional practices largely differed from her described instructional practices. Differing demonstrated practices included implementing a short simulation, small group work, a role-play and lower-level questioning as
discussion. The only demonstrated practice that correlated with her described practices was presenting information through outside resources like videos shown to her class.

Teacher 3 - Mrs. Collins

The ways in which Mrs. Collins addressed the research questions are noted within this section. The first question was, “How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Three themes related to instructional practices emerged from the data. Mrs. Collins (1) had difficulty describing instructional practices related to her teaching of the movement with fourth graders, (2) described the use of traditional practices in social studies instruction to teach the movement, and (3) used non-traditional practices. The themes are all discussed in the next three thematic sections entitled: Theme 1, Theme 2, and Theme 3.

Theme 1: Difficulty in Describing Practices Used to Teach the Movement

Mrs. Collins clearly had significant difficulty in adequately describing key practices used to teach the movement to her students.

- First, she explained that prior to this research; she had very few experiences with teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in her social studies classes and had few descriptions to share of her instructional practices related to the topic.
- Second, she described tangentially teaching the US Civil Rights Movement with the incorporation of such practices as an annual class trip to Montgomery, Alabama, and through research-related projects often incorporated with Black History Month.

Paragraphs below address Mrs. Collins descriptions related to her difficulty in describing practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Specific topics addressed are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.
Lacked description of instructional practices because of inexperience with the topic.

Mrs. Collins reported she had few instructional practices to share within the research about teaching the US Civil Rights Movement within her fourth grade Alabama history class. She stated, “The Civil Rights standard, in the years past, it seems like we have not gotten a chance to cover that standard. This year we plan to.” She explained it was difficult for her to tell about her practices because at her school, they “don’t get to it [The Civil Rights Movement]” or if they do approach that subject it happens “at the end of the year.” Mrs. Collins said that within this research study, “This is actually the first time, I’ve every taught it because we never got to it in the old textbook.” She described feeling that the US Civil Rights Movement is relevant to students’ lives and regretted not covering that standard in the past. She stated,

I actually feel kind of guilty at the end of the year when I realize I haven’t gotten to the Civil Rights Movement. I feel like I’ve left off a major important part of Alabama. So, I do regret that, but now I know it’s coming up in our social studies curriculum this year with our newspaper.

Tangentially related practices. Mrs. Collins described she was able to touch on the US Civil Rights Movement with an annual field trip and through research projects on famous African Americans and famous women, though admittedly these practices were not direct instructional practices she planned specifically to teach the movement. Mrs. Collins discussed the fourth grade annual field trip to the state capital of Montgomery, Alabama was an instructional practice she had implemented that helped to teach the topic of the movement to her students. She reported the “archives [Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery] touch upon the Indians, slavery, [and] civil rights.” She explained using the experiential practice of having the students explore the Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery allowed for students to have a more enriching involvement with parts of the fourth grade curriculum beyond her teaching in class, and that lately she had noticed it had
“incorporated more about the Civil Rights Movement.” She further stated the history of Montgomery in the context of the Civil Rights Movement was very important for students to understand. She said, “Our state holds a lot of history on that, especially in Montgomery” and felt that the field trip allowed students to learn about the movement firsthand if the students “looked at those displays.”

Mrs. Collins also discussed she had marginally introduced aspects of the US Civil Rights Movement through an African American history project and women’s history project as instructional practices she used in the past involving independent and group research. Through this research, students had been allowed to have choice in researching famous African American “role models” and famous women. In past years of teaching, Mrs. Collins’ students used the school’s computer lab to conduct research and then submitted and presented related reports. She explained,

Some of the students go into the computer lab and, like, I haven’t this year, but I’ll eventually, throughout this year we will go to the computer lab and research famous African American, famous American ladies for the women’s rights, but we do research like that in the computer lab instead of class and we write a report.

Mrs. Collins commented that through the projects students sometimes chose leaders of the US Civil Rights Movement to research, write about, and then report to the class. She explained these research projects were usually assigned in February and were generally included as part of a “Black History report.” She said these reports helped her to focus on the US Civil Rights Movement because, “We usually start talking a little more about it. About Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King, because there’s always somebody who wants to do one of them in their report.” Mrs. Collins stated that though she did not intentionally use these practices to specifically teach the movement to her students, these practices sometimes led to students exploring the subject matter on their own. She explained students acquired knowledge about the
movement as they learned from their own research and the class learned about the movement when these students presented their research to the class.

**Theme 2: Described Use of Traditional Practices**

Traditional practices in social studies instruction involving knowledge transmission (Stradling, 2003) were described by Mrs. Collins. Specifically, Mrs. Collins’ traditional methods includes the reading of a central text (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Loewen, 2007) and using social studies to teach language arts skills (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, Houser, 1995). Paragraphs below address the specific traditional practices described by Mrs. Collins for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Particular described practices of traditional instruction are noted by a bold heading at the beginning of the section.

**Assigning reading and teaching language arts skills.** Mrs. Collins stated that in teaching Alabama history and its standards for her grade level, she only taught “what’s in the newspaper” to her students. She reported she used the instructional practice of assigning reading in the periodical in the place of the former textbook she used with students in the past. She explained she liked to have students read the periodicals’ articles because they were “more kid-friendly than the textbook.” When asked to explain what she meant by “kid-friendly,” Mrs. Collins responded she felt the text was focused on the students’ reading levels more than the prior textbook and, “the pictures are more realistic.” She further explained *Studies Weekly* “break[s] the article down into short chunks. And, it’s not too long to lose a child’s interest” as she described practices of having student reading individually, in groups, or as a whole class.

Another described practice using *Studies Weekly* was Mrs. Collins’ incorporation of social studies instruction within her reading practices. Mrs. Collins explained when teaching reading and social studies, she liked to “relate and correlate the two together.” She described
assigning the activities in the newspaper to help support reading standards where students, “have to give evidence and give examples from the texts” which is now, “the big thing” in reading instruction according to the Alabama College and Career Readiness Standards for English Language Arts (ALSDE, 2013). She also described assigning reading of the expository texts in the periodical to meet language arts standards in social studies by having students read nonfiction texts.

**Theme 3: Described Use of Non-Traditional Practices**

Mrs. Collins described non-traditional practices she used to teach the US Civil Rights Movement

- First, Mrs. Collins conveyed she held discussions in her classroom as a primary instructional practice.
- Second, she discussed the instructional practice of using outside resources to present information to students.

Paragraphs below address the use of practices other than traditional instruction described by Mrs. Collins for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Specific described practices beyond traditional instruction are noted by bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.

**Facilitating discussions.** Mrs. Collins described a main instructional practice as “talking” and “discussion” with students about information related to the movement with her class. She described discussing articles in *Studies Weekly* after reading and also presenting information to her students in the forms of whole group conversations. The emphasis of the instructional practice of talking and discussion was on telling students information and having students talk about information related to the movement as a class. She said that during her
social studies lesson related to the movement, she and her students, “mainly talk” about people
and events of the movement.

Mrs. Collins referred to introducing segregation to her students through class discussions.
She stated she used this instructional practice of discussion to create empathy with her students
in relation to the movement, as she felt empathy herself in teaching it. She stated, “I just try to,
when I’m talking to my class, I myself try to imagine if it was me.” She further related that she
hoped students, as well, would foster empathy through their acquisition of knowledge during her
described practices of class discussions about the movement. Mrs. Collins interchangeably used
the term “teaching”, “talking”, “telling”, and “saying” in reference to her described instructional
practice of class discussions. For example, she explained fostering students’ understanding of
respect for one another by “…teaching, talking about the Civil Rights Movement. I teach them a
few things that I’ve known over time and that I’ve read. I say all the time, I’ve never
experienced that, but I’ve read and I can tell you what I’ve learned.”

Presenting information through outside resources. Mrs. Collins explained that a main
practice used in teaching the movement was presenting information to students through outside
resources. This described instructional practice of showing resources like books and videos, she
explained, was to tell students about well-known contributors to the US Civil Rights Movement
and to present information. She also allowed students to bring in relevant trade books as outside
resources to show material they found related to the US Civil Rights Movement. She stated,

Of course some of them have stories they want to share too. I like to show videos
sometimes. Of, like, we talk about Ruby Bridges sometimes in class. And, I have her
book…We do have some videos. And, a couple of books. They’re Martin Luther King,
Ruby Bridges, and I do have a Harriet Tubman book, but that deals more with the
Underground Railroad. That’s mainly the only ones I have. I know that the library has
more.
Mrs. Collins further explained she used outside internet sources for her described practice of presenting information about the movement from YouTube and Learn 360 videos from Alabama Public Television Plus (APT Plus). Mrs. Collins stated she used videos to present information in her social studies instruction because, “I do know the videos really capture the students’ attention.”

**Theme 4: Description of Rationale: Using Practices Addressing Perceived Deficits**

The ways in which Mrs. Collins addressed the first sub-question to the first research question are within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?” She framed her rationale in terms of using specific practices to address perceived deficits in two main ways.

- First, she described her perception that in her school, school system, and in the state, in general, social studies is not a priority within the mandated curriculum. She explained this lack of emphasis influenced time for teaching the movement and accounted for her lack of description of practices, her practice of assigning reading and teaching language arts related skills with *Studies Weekly*, and tangentially teaching the movement through field trips and research projects.
- Second, Mrs. Collins discussed that students’ lack of prior knowledge was her rationale for presenting information about the US Civil Rights Movement through outside resources and holding discussions.

The rationale described by Mrs. Collins for using specific instructional practices to address perceived deficits when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students is
discussed in the following paragraphs. Topics related to her rationale are presented in bold headings at the beginning of each section.

**Limited time because “social studies is not a priority.”** Mrs. Collins explained social studies was “not a priority” in her classroom and this greatly influenced the time she could spend on social studies and the particular strategies she used in her classroom to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. She described that in her school, school system, and in the state, in general, social studies was not a priority within the mandated curriculum. She explained this lack of emphasis influenced why she overlooked teaching the movement in the past and why she lacked clear descriptions of specific instructional practices she used to teach it. She stated, “It’s not just our school…I’ve talked to teachers in other school systems and it’s the same way.” Mrs. Collins indicated further, in terms of priority given to using research-based teaching and innovative instructional techniques with social studies, “it’s just not talked about,” and thus, she lacked specific ways of describing her instructional practices.

When asked how much time daily is allotted to this social studies instruction, Mrs. Collins stated, “I really do not spend a lot of time. Some days it’s only 20 minutes.” Mrs. Collins noted this limitation of time accounted for her described practices of assigning reading in *Studies Weekly* for students to be exposed to information and for having short discussions about articles after they read the information. She explained that having students read the periodical to learn information and “talking” to her students was “all she had time for” though she indicated she wished she had time for other practices. Discussing her disappointment that she was unable to teach social studies adequately with varied instructional practices due to time constraints, Mrs. Collins stated, “I do not feel like we spend enough time on social studies. It kind of takes a backseat to all the other subjects and it’s unfortunate…” Because of the lack of time she had in
her schedule, she explained this forced her to only teach the movement tangentially through
described practices of planning field trips that might offer information and through two research
projects that could cover topics associated with the movement through happenstance.

Mrs. Collins indicated standardized testing greatly impacted her time for social studies,
and this was her rationale for teaching reading skills in social studies. She further explained that
compulsory reading tests influenced her practice of teaching language arts skills with Studies
Weekly. When asked why she believed her instructional practices and time were limited for
social studies, Mrs. Collins explained the subjects involving testing in her school were reading,
math, and science. She explained because of the testing of those areas, social studies was not
emphasized and she had to integrate reading skills within her social studies practices. She
responded,

Because of our state testing, the students are tested in reading, math, and now science this
year, so we have to make sure all standards are taught. Whereas, in social studies, even
though I still have to teach standards, just like the rest of the state, it doesn’t seem to be
as important to our State Board of Education and the administration and our system.
They still want us to teach it, but it just doesn’t seem to be as, we don’t seem to be, I
should say we don’t have as much pressure as reading, math, and science right now.

Reflecting further on standardized testing impacting her instructional practices, Mrs. Collins
believed if in the future testing is instituted for social studies, there would be an increase of
instruction in social studies, along with an increased focus on the US Civil Rights Movement.
She compared this projected upsurge in instructional time to what occurred for reading and math
in the past and with science instruction’s intensification in her current school year as it became
tested. She explained,

Just the way that we’re told every year to look at our reading and math scores and what
ways we can improve on making the scores even higher. Look at the students that we
have this year and look at the past scores and it seems like science, since it’s on the, you
know, we have to do it now. Nothing has been said about social studies. It’s like, it’s
just, you know, yes, you need to teach it, but I don’t know…
Mrs. Collins stated that until that testing happens, she taught what she could through assigning reading in *Studies Weekly*, teaching reading skills within social studies, holding discussions, and using the practices of planning a field trip and assigning two semi-related research projects to students. She explained these were the only practices she could use with what time was left in her schedule after tested subjects, though this limited her instructional practices in Alabama history and subsequently the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement to her fourth graders.

**Students’ inadequate background knowledge.** Mrs. Collins stated when she taught the US Civil Rights Movement through described practices of assigning reading in *Studies Weekly*, through class discussions, and presenting information through outside resources in her Alabama history lessons, her key rationale for doing so was building students’ background knowledge. She explained she did not feel her students “have a wealth of knowledge” in relation to the US Civil Rights Movement and therefore, used the described practices of having students read information, see information in outside resources like books and videos, and facilitating discussions to increase their knowledge.

Mrs. Collins further discussed her perceived students’ deficits in background knowledge as a central piece of her rationale in teaching the movement. She explained that through assigning readings, holding discussions, and presenting outside resources, “I just want to make sure they understand…the history of the Civil Rights era.” She felt the US Civil Rights Movement is “a very important part of history” that she did not believe was discussed well in schools. Mrs. Collins mentioned she wanted her students to “get a little bit in fourth grade” they could take to upper grades “to carry them through so they won’t be totally new to the concept.” She explained most of her students entered the classroom with “limited” background knowledge and she believed this was due to the short time spent on social studies in general and the US
Civil Rights Movement in particular in lower grades. She stated, “They’ve heard about the Rosa Parks Bus Boycott…and I do know they know some things about Martin Luther King,” but these were probably all the people of the movement with which they were familiar.

In connecting the actions of activists in the Civil Rights Movement and fostering students’ background knowledge, Mrs. Collins stated she felt like she wanted to explicitly teach about Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Ruby Bridges with her students through her described practices of assigning readings, holding discussions, and presenting outside resources. She maintained students need to know these famous people in order to adequately understand the movement itself, though she previously indicated her students probably knew two of these three people listed. She did not reference any other people by name and said those people were the main ones she wanted students to know through her practices. She commented, “I have to be honest with you, I really don’t discuss any other names because they don’t seem to come up as much.” Mrs. Collins also reported having students read, view, and hear information through outside resources and discuss information about what she called the “main events” of the movement; specifically, the “March for Freedom on Washington, the Edmund Pettus Bridge, the March from Selma to Montgomery, and George Wallace’s stand in the schoolhouse door at the University of Alabama”. She said she builds background knowledge by discussing with students “just how restaurants and stores all the way down to the buses and the water fountains, how they were segregated. And schools of course, definitely schools.”

**Theme 5: Description of Beliefs: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement**

The ways in which Mrs. Collins addressed the second sub-question to the first research question are noted within this section. The sub-question was, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights
Movement?” Mrs. Collins was unable to explain her central teaching philosophy and, in turn, had difficulty expressing specific beliefs about her instructional practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. She stated with regard to her beliefs about choosing specific instructional practices for the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement, “I have no idea right now.” Because of her past inexperience with the topic, her beliefs about her specific instructional practices were uncertain as were her specific instructional practices. Mrs. Collins reported her beliefs about teaching in general were unclear as well, despite being an experienced elementary teacher. She stated,

But honestly, I really don’t know my teaching philosophy. I’d have to kind of look something up and figure out what really fits with me. That is something I’ve never really had to answer. Even in my many years of teaching, I’ve never had to, like, say what my philosophy of teaching is.”

She explained her main belief for all her students was, “just to learn” and thus, she implemented instructional practices of assigning reading in Studies Weekly, integrating language arts skills in her social studies instruction, holding discussions, presenting information to students through outside resources, and tangentially covering the topic with a field trip and outside resources.

**Theme 6: Demonstrated Instructional Practices: Teacher-Centered Instruction**

The ways in which Mrs. Collins’ data addressed the second research question are noted within this section. The question was “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?” There were three teacher-centered practices observed in Mrs. Collin’s demonstrated teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with her fourth graders. Teacher-centered instructional practices involve

…a high degree of teacher direction and a focus of students on academic tasks…[that] vividly contrast with student-centered or constructivist approaches in establishing a leadership role for the teacher. Teacher presentation, demonstration, drill and practice, posing of numerous factual questions, and immediate feedback and correction are all key elements (Schug, 2003, p. 94).
• First, Mrs. Collins presented information to students through “outside resources” by showing a video and reading a children’s trade book.

• Second, Mrs. Collins wrote a US Civil Rights Movement timeline on the whiteboard and assigned students to copy her timeline on their individual papers.

• Third, Mrs. Collins demonstrated lower-level questioning as discussion.

Paragraphs below discuss particular teacher-centered instructional practices demonstrated by Mrs. Collins. Specific practices are indicated with bold headings at the beginnings of the sections.

**Presenting information from outside resources.** Mrs. Collins referred to the video and children’s nonfiction trade book that she had “to pull from other places” as “outside resources” she used to teach about the movement to her fourth graders. This instructional practice of presenting information from outside resources was noted in both lessons. The video was shown during both observations to present information on people and events considered to be significant to the movement. The purpose in showing the video was to elaborate on the dates Mrs. Collins would include on her class timeline and students would copy to their individual timelines. All of the events chosen for the timeline were shown in the video, so the video and the timeline did correlate. It was suggested to students they would learn information from the video to add to the timeline. Mrs. Collins said,

> Instead of throwing it out there and not watching the video and not discussing anything else, I’d rather kind of like to have them be able to apply what they heard in the video and put it down on paper and make a timeline out of it.

Though she indicated she wished for students to apply information from the video, this did not happen in practice. Mrs. Collins applied the information in the video for students in determining the pertinent dates to be included on the class timeline.
Mrs. Collins divided the video into equal parts, so other activities could occur with using the video as information for the subsequent timeline. The video served as a teacher-centered practice as it essentially replaced the practice of teacher lecture in the classroom. Instead of the teacher telling the students all of the information shown in the internet film, the video explained to students what Mrs. Collins considered to be vital information for them to put on their timelines later. In the first lesson, she showed half of the video she considered the beginning of the US Civil Rights Movement because, “It all began with slavery.” As the video played, it appeared students were engaged in attending to the content and pictures in the film.

Another time noted where Mrs. Collins presented information from outside resources occurred with her incorporation of a non-fiction, biographical trade book about Rosa Parks. Mrs. Collins incorporated the trade book after the video to present more information about Rosa Parks, though Mrs. Collins indicated she believed the students already knew information about Rosa Parks from prior knowledge. She said, “You already know about Rosa, but we will read this.” She stated she was only going to read part of the book by skipping the section about Rosa Parks’ childhood because “they did not have time for that,” and she would keep the book so students could “read through it later.” Mrs. Collins shared the book, but only one instance was noted where she stopped to discuss information with the students. This occasion was when she explained the Montgomery Bus Boycott was successful because it impacted the bus company financially. She told the students the book was written before Rosa Parks died to which students responded that she died in 2006 and Mrs. Collins praised the students for knowing that information. This introduced a fallacy, though, because, Rosa Parks actually died in 2005.

**Writing a timeline and having students copy it.** Mrs. Collins demonstrated the teacher-centered practice of writing a timeline in front of her class and having students copy it on
their individual papers. She explained the visual representation might help students see the progression of events leading up to the US Civil Rights Movement prior to the events they would add to the timeline from the 1960s. She further indicated the timelines would meet literacy, social studies, and math standards with her students and she hoped, “the timeline [would] kind of break things down into small chunks so they can comprehend better.”

The emphasis in demonstration of the timeline was for students to see information and comprehend it. With the timeline in demonstration it was noted students were not suggesting dates or information they considered to be important to place on their individual timelines. Mrs. Collins chose dates, told students to write them on their individual timelines, and then had students copy the short phrase she said as she wrote on the whiteboard in front of the class. Even the name of the timeline was told to the students and presented for them to copy. Mrs. Collins stated, “I wrote ‘Civil Rights Timeline.’ Don’t misspell it.” Further, Mrs. Collins told the students they would put nine events on the timeline. When students asked questions about adding other years and dates, their ideas were not incorporated into the timeline. It was also unclear as to why the exact events were chosen for the timeline, as Mrs. Collins did not explain that to students.

Students were not engaged in supplying events or dates and were following rote instructions to create the same timeline the teacher was making on the board. One student asked if the timeline could go to 2014. Mrs. Collins replied, “I bet we could think of things to add.” After stating this, however, she did not initiate students’ ideas or add anything to the timeline. Another occurrence of a student’s suggestion for the timelines occurred when a student asked, “Can we go to 1968 when Martin Luther King, Jr., was assassinated? Mrs. Collins informed the class, “I don’t want to put that on there because this is more like civil rights.”
Lecture and lower-level questioning as discussion. Demonstration of lecture as discussion was apparent in both of Mrs. Collins’ lesson observations. The discussion Mrs. Collins indicated would occur in her social studies lessons resulted mostly in teacher-centered practices of teacher-talk with students listening. In the first lesson, Mrs. Collins told students words and their meanings and wrote definitions on the board for them. These words included, “civil rights”, “segregation”, “desegregation”, “civil war”, and “Emancipation Proclamation.” The only one of the words that students were asked to contribute meanings for was desegregation. In the second lesson these discussions largely consisted of the teacher telling students which dates and events to place on their timelines.

Further, what Mrs. Collins had called discussions involved asking students lower-level questions, listening to their replies, responding to students’ questions and comments and, at other times, not acknowledging comments and questions at all. Though Mrs. Collins explained these parts of her lessons as discussion, no times were noted when students initiated questions to their peers or answered questions initiated by their peers. Mrs. Collins both asked and answered questions, herself. In some cases, Mrs. Collins simply demonstrated asking questions students responded to with yes and no answers. For example, she asked, “Had you ever thought of that before?” The students replied, “No” and then the discussion went on with more questions initiated by the teacher and answered with brief responses by the students. Students were given a brief period of time to ask questions about the timeline Mrs. Collins had written on the board. It was noted most of the students’ responses during that period of time were statements about their background knowledge rather than asking questions. Some of these comments were acknowledged, but as the students began to become engaged with peers’ statements, Mrs. Collins
stopped the conversation to read the Rosa Parks trade book to the class. Students were not allowed to discuss these thoughts with one another.

**Summary of Within-Case Analysis for Mrs. Collins**

Mrs. Collins had difficulty in describing key practices or central philosophies about teaching the movement, though she explained tangentially-related practices. She mentioned using traditional methods of assigning reading and teaching language arts skills through a central text, and non-traditional instructional practices of facilitating class discussions and using outside resources to present information to students. Mrs. Collins described her rationale in terms of using practices addressing perceived deficits such as time for teaching social studies and students’ inadequate background knowledge. Teacher-centered instructional practices were demonstrated by Mrs. Collins including presentation of information through a video and trade books, having students copy a timeline she created, and using lower-level questioning as discussion.

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented data collected from each of the three teachers in regard to their individual cases studied. Teacher backgrounds and descriptions of their respective classroom dynamics were given. Further, each of the teacher’s two lesson plans and their two lesson observations were described. Finally, results of the within-case analysis were organized by teacher, with themes noted and related to each research question and sub-question.

Results indicated Mrs. Archer described the use of traditional practices and practices other than traditional instruction in teaching the movement. She explained her rationale as using practices addressing perceived students’ deficits and had difficulty in expressing central beliefs.
underlying instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. Mrs. Archer’s demonstrated practices differed from her described practices.

Results of the within-case analysis indicated Mrs. Beckett had difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement, but also described using traditional practices and use of a practice other than traditional instruction. She explained her rationale as selecting and using practices that addressed perceived deficits and had difficulty in expressing central philosophies underlying her chosen instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. Mrs. Beckett demonstrated instructional practices observed differed from her described practices.

Results from Mrs. Collins’ within-case analysis indicated she had difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement, but also described using traditional practices and non-traditional practices. She explained her rationale as using practices addressing perceived deficits and had difficulty in expressing central philosophies underlying instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. Her demonstrated practices were noted to be primarily teacher-centered instructional practices.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents discussion of the findings from this study, conclusions, theoretical implications, and recommendations derived from the data collected to investigate its two overarching questions and two sub-questions. The research questions were:

1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?
   1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?

2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?

These questions aimed to add to the data describing instructional practices fourth-grade public elementary school teachers incorporate when teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement and the beliefs expressed about those instructional practices. Further, the research hoped to give examples of fourth-grade teachers’ rationales they articulated about their choices of instructional practices related to the state-mandated instruction of the US Civil Rights Movement. This study also intended to document in-service elementary teachers’ demonstrated instructional practices in
fourth-grade social studies classrooms related to the state standards emphasizing US Civil Rights Movement content. Through examination of all of these areas, the purpose of this work is to further add to the available empirical studies related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary classrooms in light of the major deficit existing in this area of research.

Chapter V is arranged and organized according to four main headings: Discussion, Conclusions, Theoretical Implications, and Recommendations. Under the section entitled, Discussion, the specific themes are analyzed and organized through an across-case analysis. Also included are divergent themes across cases and those themes noted to be important, but not specifically addressed in the research questions. In the section entitled, Conclusions, findings are noted with comparisons made to relevant and related literature as addressed under the two research questions and two sub-questions. The section entitled, Theoretical Implications, explains how the results of this study inform the theoretical framework of constructivism and the use of historical thinking. In the paragraphs following the heading, Recommendations, information is presented to makes suggestions for action and suggestions for future research based on the findings of this study. Finally a brief overall summary of this study is provided.

**Discussion**

**Across Case Analysis**

After looking at the individual cases within this collective case study, several themes were apparent across all cases. Also noted were themes that diverged among the cases, meaning they were not represented in all of the three cases. Each of the two research questions and the two research sub-questions have been identified in Table 7 and in the subsequent paragraphs identified in their headings by research question topics. Table 7 condenses specific themes gleaned from across all cases from this collective case study and divergent themes noted in one
or two of the three cases in this collective case study. The paragraphs following the table give extensive information about the data informing each theme noted across all cases or those that diverged among cases. The sections are separated by topics related to the research questions and sub-questions and contain specific information informing the selection of each theme noted from across all cases or those that diverged.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Themes Across All Cases</th>
<th>Divergent Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 1: Use of Traditional Practices</td>
<td>Divergent Theme: Difficulty in Describing Practices Used to Teach the Movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theme 2: Use of Non-Traditional Practices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1a. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 3: Using Practices Addressing Perceived Deficits</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b. How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?</td>
<td>Theme 4: Difficulty in Expressing Central Philosophies Underlying Instructional Practices about How to Teach the US Civil Rights Movement</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Divergent Theme 1: Demonstrated Practices Observed Differed from Described Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Divergent Theme 2: Teacher-Centered Instruction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 7: Themes Noted from Across All Cases and Divergent Themes
Themes Found Across All Cases for Description of Instructional Practices

In looking across the three cases, two similarities were noted in the practices described by all three teachers. First, all teachers identified using traditional practices in teaching the movement to their students. Second, all teachers described using non-traditional instructional practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to fourth graders in elementary social studies. The two themes related to the first research question across all cases are examined in the following paragraphs.

Theme 1: Use of traditional practices. The descriptions of instructional practices given by each of the three cases involved emphasis on the use of a central text, *Studies Weekly*, as guiding their social studies instructional practices. All three cases described their use of text for assigning reading with students in whole group settings, having students read the text independently, and having students read the text in small groups. The three teachers each reported they enjoyed using the newspaper, as opposed to their prior use of an Alabama history text and all referred to the newspaper as being more engaging for students than the textbook. They all acknowledged the newspaper allowed for the teaching of reading standards in social studies, with Mrs. Collins stating it helped integrate social studies into reading standards. It was described by all teachers that reading the nonfiction text, justifying responses, and focusing on literacy skills with the use of a central text in social studies were instructional practices they used to teach language arts skills while they also taught the movement. Additionally, Mrs. Archer discussed having students complete the newspaper’s activities independently and following instruction with company-generated tests in which she created additional vocabulary questions and a discussion question to meet literacy standards.
**Theme 2: Use of non-traditional practices.** All teachers described facilitating discussions to teach the US Civil Rights Movement to their fourth-graders. Mrs. Archer explained the use of class discussion was an essential practice in her classroom. As she described her instructional practices, she held that these classroom discussions were used so students could learn both from her, as the teacher, and from the other students in the class. She explained facilitating discussions involved posing questions to her students after reading articles in a central text using hypothetical questions during discussions, and allowing for students to ask questions. Mrs. Beckett briefly described the use of facilitating discussions as “just talking” with her students after reading and “giving students information, but also commented she included time for peer discussions. Mrs. Collins stated she, too, incorporated classroom discussions in her instructional practices. She interchangeably used the terms, “‘teaching’, ‘talking’, ‘telling’, and “saying” as she described facilitating discussions. She further described discussions as a practice used after reading articles in her central text.

Mrs. Archer and Mrs. Collins additionally described presenting information from outside resources as instructional practices they used in teaching the movement to elementary students beyond traditional practices. These teachers explained the brevity of the articles and information within the text, *Studies Weekly*, necessitated the inclusion of other resources in the teaching of social studies. Although the teachers discussed bringing other sources into lessons alongside the newspapers was beneficial, they also reported difficulty in finding appropriate materials to share with elementary students about the movement. They reported researching for appropriate materials was time consuming and that they had little time to devote to it. Mrs. Archer indicated she had presented information to her class by showing information from websites, sharing videos, displaying charts, and in the past had included material from the Alabama Department of
Archives and History in Montgomery and had once invited a guest speaker. Mrs. Collins described presenting information to students through showing videos and reading children’s trade books to students.

**Divergent Theme in the Description of Instructional Practices**

A divergent theme was noted in two of the three cases in terms of the teachers’ described instructional practices. Two teachers were found to have difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement. This divergent theme for the first research question about described practices is discussed in the following section.

**Divergent Theme: Difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement.**

Mrs. Beckett and Mrs. Collins both reported they were unable to give significant descriptions of instructional practices they used in Alabama history to teach the US Civil Rights Movement because they had little experience with teaching the subject in the past. They both identified a lack of time in the school year as a reason for why they had not taught the subject in the past. As they were formerly textbook-reliant prior to the use of *Studies Weekly*, they did not teach the subject matter because it was found later in the textbook and was in a section that they did not have time to teach. Mrs. Archer, on the other hand, explained she had always taught the US Civil Rights Movement in the past because it was in her standards that she was required to teach. She also taught in a departmentalized classroom which, according to her, allowed for more instructional time devoted to the teaching of the social studies instructional standards.

Both Mrs. Beckett and Mrs. Collins reported they covered the US Civil Rights Movement through tangentially-related, not direct, teaching of the movement. Both teachers said they relied on students’ choice of significant leaders in the movement as they wrote reports on noteworthy African American people and women through assigned projects. They spoke about their use of
the annual class field trip to the state capital where students learned about the US Civil Rights Movement at the Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery from the information presented there. The teachers described not visiting places purposefully to teach the movement, but that the “state archives [Alabama Department of Archives and History in Montgomery]” had some displays students saw addressing the movement. Mrs. Beckett also referenced teaching the movement through a class final project of an Alabama history scrapbook. She explained based on student choice, there were some areas of the US Civil Rights Movement that were explored by individuals and then presented to the class. All teachers reported most of the teaching in relation to the movement fell in February and coincided with the celebration of Black History Month.

**Themes Found Across All Cases about the Description of Rationale**

In looking across all the three cases, the teachers all framed their rationales for using particular instructional practices through perceived deficits to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. These perceived deficits of their rationales are examined in the following paragraphs.

**Theme 3: Using practices addressing perceived deficits.** All three teachers reported they perceived students to have areas of weakness they considered in their rationale for explaining why they chose certain instructional practices. Inadequacies in students’ background knowledge were discussed among all three cases. Mrs. Archer felt students came into her fourth grade social studies class with little knowledge about the movement and only knew about a limited number of heroes of the movement including Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks. She described using practices of having students read *Studies Weekly* and presenting information to students through outside resources to foster and build students’ background knowledge. Mrs.
Beckett also explained she used a deficit rationale for using specific instructional practices. She said her students lacked background knowledge so the point of her practices was to “give” students that background knowledge. She spoke about students’ inadequacies with background knowledge necessitating practices of assigning reading from class texts and conversing about information read. Mrs. Collins, like Mrs. Archer and Mrs. Beckett, also referenced the lack of knowledge students had prior to her lessons about the movement as a reason for choosing her instructional practices. Mrs. Collins explained she tried to incorporate more well-known names and also events into her lessons about the movement. She mentioned choosing specific practices in order to transmit knowledge of the movement to her students through assigning readings, holding discussions, and presenting outside resources.

Another deficit described by all three teachers included a lack of instructional time and emphasis on social studies influencing their choices for specific instructional practices. Across all cases the teachers mentioned time constraints on social studies framed their rationale for having to choose the instructional practices observed. Though not a main theme for Mrs. Archer, she, too, reported she felt this lack of social studies instructional time was apparent in the younger grades before they reached her, as the lower grades in her school were not departmentalized for social studies. She believed this affected her students in the knowledge and the skills they arrived with in the fourth grade and the background knowledge they held prior to her lessons. She stated she had to consider the lack of time that early grades at her school devoted to social studies because it influenced how she chose to teach her lessons on the movement with students who had little prerequisite skills and knowledge to begin learning about the US Civil Rights Movement.
Mrs. Beckett reported the time allocated in her schedule for the teaching of social studies was tremendously impacted by the emphasis, or lack thereof, on social studies in her school and system as it was an untested subject. She explained she only had about 30 minutes to teach the social studies and the rest of her time was devoted to reading, math, and science curricula. She said this limited instructional time, influenced heavily by reading, math, and science curriculum, did not allow her to teach social studies in general and in particular the US Civil Rights Movement. Time limitations necessitated the use of tangentially related practices and the use of Studies Weekly to incorporate reading and language arts skills.

Mrs. Collins also discussed in her rationale that time significantly influenced the instructional practices she was able to use within her class to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. She explained social studies was not a priority in her class, nor in her school. She had to choose instructional practices that were easily used in her class time for social studies of approximately 20 minutes. She also referred to the lack of testing in social studies as a reason why she did not emphasize the teaching of social studies in her classroom and ultimately this affected the teaching of the movement, as well as limited the time it was taught and the practices she used to teach it. She explained having students read Studies Weekly to learn information and “talking” to her students was “all she had time for.”

**Themes Found Across All Cases about the Description of Beliefs**

Across all cases one theme was noted for how the teachers described their beliefs about teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Difficulty in expressing central philosophies underlying instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement is examined in the following paragraph.
Theme 4: Difficulty in expressing central philosophies underlying instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement.

All three teachers in the study were unable to express their central beliefs specifically related to instructional practices they used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Mrs. Archer was hesitant in giving a specific belief related to the movement. From the data provided, Mrs. Archer did express she believed all students could learn and it was her duty to try to find the best way to teach them. She also described beliefs that linked to the teaching of equality and being aware of injustice, but when pressed she distanced herself from claiming these as beliefs central to the teaching of the movement with her students. Mrs. Beckett, similarly, had difficulty in describing central beliefs for her specific instructional practices. She conveyed a teaching philosophy, but could not translate it to her instructional choices in teaching the movement to her elementary students. Mrs. Collins had difficulty in even expressing a central philosophy that helped her define her teaching in general and also in the context of teaching the movement. She stated she simply wanted students, “to learn.”

Divergent Themes about the Demonstrated Practices

Two divergent themes were demonstrated in the teachers’ instructional practices. Each of the divergent themes is discussed in the following sections.

Divergent Theme 1: Demonstrated practices observed differed from described practices.

Mrs. Archer’s and Mrs. Beckett’s described practices largely differed from what they demonstrated in practice. Mrs. Archer and Mrs. Beckett explained their main instructional practices as assigning reading of a central text, teaching language arts skills in social studies, and facilitating discussions. Mrs. Archer’s demonstrated practices included implementing a simulation with students, having students work in small groups to complete assigned task, and
asking students lower-level questions. Mrs. Beckett’s demonstrated practices also differed from her described practices. In her demonstrated lessons, she implemented a class simulation, assigned small group work, had students conduct role-plays and used lower-level questioning as discussion. The only instructional practice these teachers described and also demonstrated was the use of presenting information through outside resources, both showing videos with Mrs. Archer also reading a children’s trade book to her students.

**Divergent Theme 2: Teacher-centered instruction.** Mrs. Collins’ demonstrated practices were noted to be largely teacher-centered. She used practices that were mostly transmittal in nature such as creating a timeline on the board for students to copy onto their individual papers. Further, she demonstrated lecturing with students in her teaching of the movement. When questions were asked to students during the course of lecturing, they were lower-level and did not require students to use critical thinking in answering them. Finally, Mrs. Collins demonstrated the use of presenting information through outside resources to students in the form of transmission of knowledge to students. The reading of a trade book and the showing of videos served in the place of teacher lecture in distributing information to students without inquiry on their part.

**Additional Themes Noted Across All Cases**

Beyond the research questions, there were three other themes noted across all cases. Though these themes were outside the scope of the research questions, and are not major findings of this study, they were included for their possible significance to the teaching of the movement in elementary education.
First, the use of racially insensitive language was observed among all three teachers.

Second, two of the three teachers explained the shifting of racism and slavery away from discussions about the African American and Caucasian binary related to racial injustices.

Third, all three teachers had specific ways of positioning their students and their families into particular categories (e.g., church-attending Christians, students attending a “private” public school, Creationist parents, naïve Caucasians and Hispanics, more knowledgeable African American students, “bitter” African American students, “shocked” Caucasian students)

Additional themes noted through across-case analysis are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Racially insensitive language. In all of the cases the use of racially insensitive language was used by the teachers and in some cases by students that went uncorrected by the teachers. The use of race as a noun, such as “Blacks, the Blacks, the African Americans, the Mexicans,” and “Indians” was all used in instruction with students. In Mrs. Archer’s class, a student also used the term, “Blacks” as a noun in describing that if desegregation had not occurred, then African American students would not be allowed to attend schools with Caucasian students. This use of a students’ insensitive language caused an issue in discussion as the one African American student in Mrs. Archer’s class became angered at the use of the term. Mrs. Archer did not address why this is not said, nor was the student corrected for future information. The African American student, instead, was reprimanded for becoming upset at hearing an offensive term.

Mrs. Beckett also used racial terms as nouns in describing African American people and Caucasian people. She stated, “See there were restrooms for Whites, restrooms for Blacks, a movie theatre for Whites, restrooms for the Blacks…” as the students were watching the video
in her first lesson. Also, as she explained slavery, she stated, “Back in the olden days, not only Blacks were slaves, Whites were, too.” Mrs. Beckett further referred to Native American people as “the Indians.”

Mrs. Collins used the term “Blacks” and “Whites” when describing legal segregation as students labeled their timelines. She stated, “You can keep Blacks and Whites separate.” Further, as she explained her perception that African American students have more background knowledge about the movement, she said, “And then the Blacks, they’ve heard about it from their grandparents and parents, so they at least have a little bit of knowledge.” She also stated, “We have a couple of Mexicans and Vietnamese” in describing the demographics of the students in her class. Mrs. Collins additionally referred to Native American people as “the Indians.” Mrs. Collins’ students also said during the lesson, “Blacks were treated wrong” and “Blacks weren’t treated fairly.” The students were not corrected and other ways of making these statements were not suggested by Mrs. Collins.

The term “colored” was also used to describe African Americans in instances in the observations. A student in Mrs. Beckett’s class referred to another student during the dramatization in the second observation as being “colored.” Mrs. Beckett did not address the use of the term itself and did not make corrections to its use in front of the class. In Mrs. Collins’ class, she stated, “Like how colored people, black people, had to drink” when discussing the water fountains. She also said to her students, “Our nation is built, it’s supposed to be built upon equal rights for all…Not just colored people, but equal rights for all.”

**Shifting racism and slavery from an African American and Caucasian discussion.**

In two of the three cases, it was noted the teachers aimed to deflect racism during the movement and in relation to slavery as also happening to Native American people in the past. Their
exasperated tone was apparent as they described frustration in having to emphasize the racial intolerance of African American people by Caucasian people and began to reiterate points about other groups that have been discriminated against as well. It was unclear why the teachers considered these other extended examples of racism toward minority groups to be a positive substitute in place of the issue of racism on the part of Caucasian people toward African American people.

Mrs. Beckett explained she teaches her students “…it wasn’t just African Americans” that were mistreated and that she also wanted her students to know that Native American people, though she referred to them as Indians, were wronged, also. She further elaborated she wanted to tell students, “African Americans were not the only victims.” Mrs. Beckett expressed a concern her students, “…only hear the negative side of slavery. You know they haven’t heard the whole story. I think that it’s important that they see all sides.” Mrs. Beckett explained she felt students were only hearing partial points about slavery and indicated there were positive sides to slavery, though she did not elaborate further as to what these aspects might be, nor did she share that information with her students in the observations.

Mrs. Collins also described that in terms of discrimination, she was glad students understood that “instead of it being just Blacks and Whites, they found that the Indians were [mistreated].” She stated,

I definitely don’t want them to think it’s just a black and white issue. Because it can be any race. And, I’ve told them before that sometimes the Indians, the Native Americans, were excluded from things….At one time women weren’t able to vote and just in general poor people weren’t able to vote either.

It did not appear the teachers were fostering connections and relevancy through added discussions of inequality toward minority groups as much as it seemed a deflection from
discussing specific issues of race significant to the movement, particularly in the South where these teachers teach.

**Positioning of students into particular categories.** Each of the three teachers had a way they oriented their students as they taught them about the movement. It was clear Mrs. Archer believed she knew what the parents of her students expected in the way she taught subject matter in her classroom. This was particularly apparent in the way she discussed freedom of religion with her students. When she asked students if they all went to church and if anyone had ever told them that they could not go to church, she framed her class as all being church-attending Christians, as she did not include any other religions within her discussion. This assumption about her students was reiterated as she described avoiding any discussion of evolution because she knew the parents in her school did not believe in it and therefore, would not want their children exposed to the topic in her classroom. Mrs. Archer also had a perception of how her school was viewed by others and how the demographics of the school aided in those perceptions. She stated the school where she teaches is perceived as a “private school” because the school is “primarily white.”

Mrs. Beckett situated her students in similar ways to Mrs. Archer’s viewpoints on religion. She referred to students being able to choose where they go to church, orienting her learners as church-attending Christians, as well. Further, she positioned her students as operating in a post-racial society where segregation by race is non-existent because it is no longer legally supported.

Mrs. Collins held numerous perceptions of her students that were clear throughout the data. She referenced students from two parent families as being more capable of considering multiple perspectives in the teaching of history. Further, she described that her students held
differing background knowledge as they entered her classroom based on their races. She perceived Caucasian and Hispanic students as knowing less about the movement and explained African American students as knowing more about the movement from learning about it in their homes. She also held perceptions that students reacted to the teaching of the movement differently. She collectively grouped African Americans students as being a “little bitter” about the movement because the movement involved “things that had happened to their race” and they “take it more to heart.” She also said some of her students regarding slavery, “have kind of a little chip on their shoulder.” Mrs. Collins also positioned Caucasian students as being more shocked to realize this discrimination had occurred in United States history than African American students were.

Summary of Across-Case Analysis

In summation, themes were present across all cases with divergent themes also identified. Relating to the first research question about instructional practices, it was noted across all cases teachers described using some traditional and non-traditional practices. A divergent theme was apparent in two of the three cases reporting difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement. In relation to the first sub-question under the first research question examining the teachers’ rationale for instructional practices, all teachers described rationales for using specific instructional practices to teach the movement through perceived deficits. The deficits included students’ inadequacies in content knowledge and insufficient time for teaching elementary social studies content and skills including, specifically, the US Civil Rights Movement. Difficulty in expressing central philosophies was the central theme noted across all cases for the second sub-question under the first research question examining teachers’ described beliefs about teaching the movement. Two divergent themes were found in relation to the second research question
examining demonstrated instructional practices. Two teachers’ demonstrated practices differed from their described practices, and one teacher primarily demonstrated teacher-centered instructional practices with her students. Finally, additional themes were found across all cases that necessitated discussion, though they did not necessarily fall under the two main research questions or two sub-questions.

**Conclusions**

This section below discusses the conclusions drawn from this study through findings noted across all cases with relevant research cited as support. The conclusions are separated according to topics related to the research questions and sub-questions guiding this study.

**Described Instructional Practices**

For this first research question, the data resulted in themes related to traditional and non-traditional practices the teachers described in teaching the movement to fourth graders. Each of the conclusions drawn from these themes is addressed in the following paragraphs.

**Described use of traditional practices.** Research suggests teachers who lack adequate content knowledge become dependent on central texts (Bain & Mirel, 2006; Journell, 2013) and this was consistent with the findings of this study in relation to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement, as well. Two of the three teachers explained their own limitations in terms of content knowledge about the movement and though one teacher did not; it was apparent content knowledge was not a strength through her reported instructional practices and later demonstrated teaching. Also, each teacher mentioned how the use of reading *Studies Weekly* and completing the assigned activities integrated literacy into their social studies teaching. Instructional practices for teaching the movement relying heavily on literacy standards is consistent with many normalized practices in the teaching of social studies as a supplement to the language arts curriculum (Heafner & Fitchett, 2012, Houser, 1995).
An emphasis on traditional methods of teaching social studies and this standard use of knowledge transmission (Stradling, 2003) was pervasive throughout the teachers’ explanations of their practices for instructing the US Civil Rights Movement. This traditional reliance on mass-produced texts did not support teachers or students in thinking historically and allowed teachers to continue teaching typical concepts in typical ways (Fitzgerald, 1979; Loewen, 2007; Wiener, 1995). All teachers explained instructional practices aligned with protectionist and nationalistic viewpoints consistent with other research indicating textbook-reliant practices allow teachers to impart a traditional narrative without fostering inquiry and relevance (Epstein, 2009; Loewen, 2007). All teachers discussed the need for supplementing the periodical with outside sources, but all claimed time restraints and resource limitations hindered them from doing this effectively. This limitation on the part of the teacher was transferred to the students by denying them access to investigation and interpretation of primary sources and varied resources known to support the teaching of historical thinking (Barton, 2012; Pellegrino, 2013).

**Described use of non-traditional instructional practices.** The teachers’ descriptions of using discussions as a non-traditional practice to invoke student engagement in their lessons about the movement were noted throughout all three cases. All teachers described whole group discussions, with two of the three teachers describing small group discussions. These discussions were explained as being used to elicit responses from students and having them learn from one another through conversation. The teachers described these practices as non-traditional interactive processes, useful to students as they explore controversial topics in social studies (Tannebaum, 2013). Discussions have been shown as effective instructional strategies in social studies (Hess, 2002, 2004) with long term benefits for students inside and outside of the classroom (Barton & McCully, 2007) and thus, were described as non-traditional practices.
Teachers further described non-traditional practices of engaging students with information from what they called “outside resources” or “additional resources.” The use of varied resources is supported by research indicating this non-traditional social studies practice aids in illustrating movement-related concepts, encourages students’ interest and engagement, and builds moral consciousness surrounding the movement (Christensen, Kirkland, & Noblitt, 2007). The teachers described their presentation of information through videos and children’s trade books in ways that indicated these methods were non-traditional.

Though the teachers described these aforementioned practices, in non-traditional ways, their demonstration revealed some contrary indications. The conclusions related to this area are explained later in the chapter in a section entitled, “Demonstrated practices observed differed from described practices.”

**Rationale for Using Specific Instructional Practices**

In addressing the first sub-question to the first research question, all teachers framed their rationale for using certain practices as based in deficits. These inadequacies were centered on perceived student deficits and a lack of time and emphasis given to social studies teaching and subsequently the teaching of the movement. Each of the two themes is addressed in the following paragraphs.

**Perceived student deficits.** Though all teachers reported students having little background knowledge in the US Civil Rights Movement beyond Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks, and though this has been acknowledged in some literature (Schulten, 2012), it did not seem to be the case for all students. In each of the classrooms, many students presented information in class through their comments in all lessons indicating the students were familiar with people, events, and concepts related to the movement. Students introduced conversation in the lessons about what they had learned outside of the classroom and in prior grades. It was
observed when students made these connections, their comments were often dismissed, the subject was often changed, or in many cases the teachers did not respond to the students at all. This questioning of students’ background knowledge occurred at the beginning of all lessons, yet it seemingly was not used as a formative assessment (Powell & Kalina, 2009) through discussion in order to guide instructional practices. The teachers claimed students lacked background knowledge, but did not revisit that assumption when new information was presented in their lessons.

**Insufficient time for teaching social studies.** All teachers reported the marginalization of social studies as their central rationale for using specific instructional practices as they taught the movement to elementary students. Their claims were consistent with the empirical literature, as limited time for social studies is well-documented in educational research (Bailey, Shaw & Hollifield, 2006; Bolick, Adams, & Willox, 2010; McGuire, 2007; McMurrer, 2008; O’Connor, Heafner, & Groce, 2007; Rock et al., 2006). The three teachers maintained this lack of priority in social studies in their schools was not discussed blatantly and openly, but subtly by feeling pressure placed elsewhere and relayed in terms of test scores and accountability in mathematics, literacy (Anderson, 2015; Jones & Egley, 2009; Maryland Social Studies Task Force, 2010) and now in one school, science.

One difference noted in the discussions about the marginalization of social studies and existing research was that these teachers believed the emphasis on other subject areas also affected planning time they had left after preparing for these other prioritized subjects. They also felt this marginalization impacted the access they had to US Civil Rights Movement resources within their schools due to funding spent elsewhere, rather than on social studies materials. It was interesting to note all three teachers, when asked what they believed would allow them to
focus on social studies and teaching the movement in their curriculum more often and deeply, replied standardized testing in social studies would be necessary. They stated if they were held accountable through the application of state testing, then they would teach social studies and the movement to their fourth graders.

**Described Beliefs**

Teacher beliefs are critically linked to teachers’ goal setting, instructional methods, analysis and discernment of teaching events, and communication and response to teaching events (Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013; König, 2012; Reusser, Pauli, & Elmer, 2011; Ross, 2006; Thornton, 2004). Related to the research question about teacher beliefs, it was apparent across all cases, the three teachers had a difficult time expressing core beliefs guiding their teaching in general, in particular to social studies, and in specifically addressing practices related to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Though two teachers did express principal beliefs about their jobs as teachers or in relation to a teaching philosophy, they were unable to transfer these ideas to their practices chosen to teach the movement. Mrs. Collins was unable to describe even broad beliefs about her teaching practices. Her description of beliefs related to the movement, likewise, indicated her inability to determine why and what choices should be made regarding instructional practices used for teaching the movement to her elementary students. Because social studies instruction is shaped essentially by teachers’ and students’ beliefs and identities (Epstein, 2001, 2009; Fitchett & VanFossen, 2013), teachers without an awareness or ability to describe fundamental beliefs are reliant on other sources to supply instructional practices for them. This was seen across all cases with an overreliance on practices associated with the *Studies Weekly* resource such as reading a central text, teaching language arts skills, and assigning tasks and tests. Because teachers’ beliefs are considered to be schemas behind
teachers’ actions (Pajares, 1992), the lack of beliefs or ways to articulate them indicated a shallow understanding of their roles in teaching social studies and the US Civil Rights Movement.

**Demonstrated Instructional Practices**

In addressing this second research question, divergent themes were identified among the cases. The two divergent themes are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Demonstrated practices observed differed from described practices.** All teachers reported their main instructional resource was *Studies Weekly* serving in place of a traditional textbook and their central instructional practices were those supported by that resource. These practices included reading the text in whole group and small group settings, teaching language arts skills, answering questions from the texts, and taking tests to indicate whether rote memorization of information had occurred. This use of varying resources and varied instructional techniques indicated to be effective in teaching the movement (Christensen, Kirkland, and Noblitt, 2007; Marching with the Civil Rights Movement, 2013) was not taking place when teachers were relying on their text to guide their instructional practices.

Because the issue of the periodical, related to the US Civil Rights Movement, was unavailable during this research study’s timeframe, the teachers were unable to use this resource and chose to use various other practices. All teachers incorporated other practices and resources beyond what they had initially suggested as daily reading and answering questions reliant on a central text. It seemed the central reason for using new instructional choices was simply because the teachers’ primary resource was not an option.

In demonstration, the teachers implemented simulations, executed students’ working in small groups, and employed role-plays. Further, instead of the described practice of facilitating discussions, lower-level questioning involving lecture and instances of avoidance was observed.
Practices differing from those described by the teachers in their initial explanations of their typical instructional practices in teaching the movement are discussed in the following paragraphs.

*Simulations in demonstration.* Mrs. Archer and Mrs. Beckett used the same internet resource (Lovenberg, 2011) to plan their first lessons, both including and implementing a simulation with students. Their simulations were adaptations of the “Blue Eyes-Brown Eyes” exercise conducted by Jane Elliott with her class of third-graders in 1968 (Elliott, Yale University, WGBH, & PBS DVD, 2003). These simulations as an instructional practice could have been connected with higher order thinking skills (Russell, Waters, & Turner, 2013) comparing their class experiences to the realities of segregated schools. The simulations demonstrated by the teachers, however, centered on superficial concepts. Rather than connecting the simulation to the full scope and magnitude of the segregation era like Ms. Elliott’s simulations illustrating group prejudice (Peters, 1987), these teachers’ practices were less experiential and exploratory. These simulations of segregated schools in demonstration were vague and may have actually introduced misconceptions to students and minimalized significant issues associated with the “separate, but equal” schools prior to desegregation.

For example, In Mrs. Archer’s lesson, having students give their supplies to the other group may have inadvertently promoted the misconception that African American schools had to give supplies to the all-Caucasian schools. Further, it may have reinforced the myth that the only matter at hand in the “separate but equal” mentality was the actual resources the schools were privy to; an oversimplification of the complex issues that were detrimental to the students of both schools beyond accessible resources. Additionally, the continual use of the word “people” in describing the initiators of instituted unjust practices during the simulation was substituted for
“Caucasian people” or “white people” who made the claims of separate but equal in order to maintain normalized racial divides (Lawson, 2015). This evasiveness in terms made it less possible for historical empathy to be fully explored with students lacking all information needed for this to occur.

In Mrs. Beckett’s simulation, the essential ideas presented were cursory and insufficient in addressing the full scope of the magnitude of the segregation era. For example, in telling students one group would get cookies, a soda, and the privilege of watching a movie, this may have oversimplified the enormous degree of differential treatment activists of the US Civil Rights Movement were protesting. This distinction was not explained to students and may have inadvertently communicated a lighthearted nature to a very complex and serious issue. Further, it may have contributed to a belief the separate but equal mentality was only about actual, tangible resources, rather than deeper seated issues of exclusionary racist practices and their origins.

**Small groups in demonstration.** The use of small groups to teach the movement was observed in demonstration with two of the three teachers. Research suggests that collaborative groups can foster inquiry-learning as students internalize and construct knowledge through cooperative experiences (Powell & Kalina, 2009). The collaborative work demonstrated in Mrs. Archer’s class involved groups using non-fiction articles to determine if Rosa Parks was justified in breaking the law. This collaborative activity appeared to be an inquiry-based practice in which students constructed knowledge with peers through evidence and demonstrated reasoning through conversation.
Mrs. Beckett also instituted group work as an instructional practice in the lessons observed in multiple ways. Students were asked to collaborate to determine whether the segregation simulation was fair or not. They used conversation to work together toward a consensus, to discuss, and to construct arguments together; all practices known to foster learning through small groups (Molenaar, Sleegers, & Boxtel, 2014; Teasley, 1997; Weinberger & Fischer, 2006).

There were also instances where students’ group work did not support critical thinking, constructivist practices, and inquiry-based instruction to teach the US Civil Rights Movement. For example, in demonstration, students discussed ways peers within each group were alike and different, though connections were not made to the US Civil Rights Movement after this task. Further, they were tasked to present why segregation should no longer exist and to relate that to the US Civil Rights Movement. In practice, students did recognize similarities and differences and made a list of reasons why people should not be segregated. Relation to the US Civil Rights Movement, however, did not occur. Once group work activity consisted of simply eliciting students’ prior knowledge about Rosa Parks. Small group work was also instituted for purposes of fostering character education goals of asking students to work together to create a list of ways they could handle situations calmly like Rosa Parks; not a particular objective related to teaching the movement itself.

**Role-plays.** Rather than using techniques of inquiry for the teaching of multiperspectivity (Stradling, 2003), through a role-play, Mrs. Beckett’s role-play in demonstration instead focused on conflict resolution, feelings of sympathy, and learning character lessons from the heroification of cultural icons associated with the movement. Though the practice could have been used to actively involve students in engaging in practices similar to
those of activists in the US Civil Rights Movement and to promote empathetic responses, the lesson actually centered on character education goals of targeting “social emotional, and ethical development” (Character. org, 2015). For example, Mrs. Beckett’s role-play focused on character education aspects of appropriate responses to frustration. Students may have been left with the impression Rosa Parks somehow had different feelings about the injustices she faced than the students felt because the focus was placed on her “good” reaction as opposed to her chosen and purposeful tactics and the reasons behind those choices. Allowing exploration of varied viewpoints people have and have had in response to inequality would be useful historical explorations for students. Particularly, as they experience these feelings associated with injustice in their own lives, this role-play could have served as a reference point from which to understand the repercussions of differing reactions. Mrs. Beckett, though, explained she would ignore violence in the context of the movement as one possible human response to the injustices that African Americans experience(d).

The cultivation of historical empathy is an essential practice of teaching history to students, (National Council for History Education, 2013); however, it was unlikely this was realized through the ways in which this teacher situated her role-play. Perhaps a greater lesson in historical empathy would have been examining how these activists experienced all of the same emotions the students felt in learning about the injustices, yet somehow protestors were able to protest nonviolently to pursue a greater purpose. Because of the framing of the demonstrated role-play; however, it is doubtful students could draw these conclusions on their own. Mrs. Beckett also taught Rosa Parks’ actions to her students as conflict avoidant behaviors. This is in direct contradiction to Rosa Parks’ actions initiating the Montgomery Bus Boycott which in itself was highly controversial at the time and was intended to expose a greater social ill. Rosa Park’s
methods in response to unconstitutional and immoral treatment ignited illumination of social and political inequalities and, in essence, sparked a great deal of conflict. In Mrs. Beckett’s lesson in demonstration, however, it appeared students simply took away tips on how to handle everyday situations where small conflicts occur.

_Demonstrated class discussions involving lecture, lower-level questioning._ In demonstration, what the teachers had described as facilitating classroom discussions actually consisted of lecture and teacher talk. This teacher talk involved the teachers’ initiation of questions and students’ answers, rather than student discussion with the teachers and students contributing questions and responses equally. These discussions allowed for little inquiry on the part of the student. They situated students as passive listeners and then responders to teachers’ questions, often only necessitating answering questions with a yes or no. No times were noted when students answered questions from one another or posed questions to one another.

Implementation of lower-level questioning applied randomly over the course of lessons does not offer the type of issues-centered instruction (Koeppen, 2003b) that specific, structured discussions can support in teaching students to think historically. Fostering historical discussions is an appropriate endeavor for social studies education and for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement. Meaningful discussions, however, can only occur if students are engaged with eliciting their own questions, participating in well-structured debate, and providing historical connections for their statements (National Council for History Education, 2013). It is necessary that the teacher provide the framework for students to explore historical topics deeply through meaningful discussions. Unfortunately teachers, like those in this case study, who lack strong content knowledge likely do not have the necessary background to foster conversations that support students in critical historical analysis (Journell, 2013).
Demonstrated avoidance during class discussions. The discomfort the teachers described in teaching the movement resulted in the demonstrated practice of teachers avoiding topics in their classroom discussions across all cases, in all lessons observed. This evasiveness was clearly apparent in the topics the teachers chose to teach, specifically well-known names and events, and those they chose not to teach, particularly the Ku Klux Klan, Malcolm X, violence, and issues associated with race. Also, teachers circumvented connections to current events in relation to the movement and during class discussions students’ responses were often left unanswered. Teachers who fear reprisal from their communities, like these teachers did, are not willing to foster historically evocative discussions (Hess, 2002). Mrs. Beckett even expressly stated she purposefully avoided topics that could generate debate among her students and this was noticeable in her observed demonstrations, as well. Mrs. Collins adamantly explained if topics arose for discussion from her students she deemed to be controversial (specifically the police brutality issues in Ferguson, Missouri as connected to the US Civil Rights Movement), she would not allow the students to discuss those current issues in her class.

In this study, all of the teachers overwhelmingly reported their perceptions that the US Civil Rights Movement is controversial and causes discomfort in teaching the subject through discussions. This view of the US Civil Rights Movement as controversial included both how the teachers felt in teaching the movement and in how they perceived other educational stakeholders felt about the movement. Mrs. Beckett and Mrs. Collins were much more forthcoming than Mrs. Archer when explaining specific anxieties. Topics of discomfort the teachers described and ones that led to avoidance in demonstrated lessons were: (1) race, (2) parental and student perceptions (3) politically and governmentally-related issues, and (4) slavery. Further, all teachers reported the races of their students influenced their levels of comfort in addressing or not addressing
certain topics during academic class discussions, and it was apparent in demonstration that the topic of race was avoided entirely.

Though controversial topics are beneficial for students to explore, (Loewen, 2007; Richardson, 2006; Waters & Russell, 2013) all teachers discussed the ways in which they hoped to circumvent controversy in discussions by employing avoidance of subject matter, censoring of students, and negotiating instructional practices. Mrs. Beckett and Mrs. Collins referred to parental reactions and perceptions as immediate causes for their discomfort and for adopting the aforementioned practices. Mrs. Archer, though adamantly claiming not to be uncomfortable in teaching the movement through discussions, admittedly negotiated teaching practices based on her students’ and their families’ input and reactions related to conversations of race. These negotiations indicated perhaps she was not as comfortable with the subject as she claimed. Her stated protectionism in addition to the shifting of subject matter in demonstration indicated, again, that although the subject itself might not cause Mrs. Archer discomfort, topics discussed within the subject matter might. Mrs. Archer’s claims of comfort with class discussions were not parallel with the other two teachers in the study or in the available research indicating many teachers are apprehensive about teaching issues of race (Almarza & Fehn, 1998; Chandler, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 2003b).

Examining government actions including the allowances provided by separate by equal legislation, the Jim Crow laws, and political leaders’ racist actions were shown to be difficult for the teachers to approach in their discussions with students. The teachers did not allow any explorations of societal norms that influenced political actions or legislation in their planned discussions. It was unclear if the teachers, themselves, understood the influences reflected in governmental engagements prior to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 or how to conceptualize
changes that occurred afterward in connecting them to present day. Their efforts to dodge politically-charged discussions were noted in all lessons, both through examination historically and currently. The teachers did not want to talk about politics and so they did not.

Both Mrs. Beckett and Mrs. Collins explained being Caucasian teachers discussing slavery with African American students was another area that caused them discomfort and one other teachers have expressed in the literature, as well (Tatum, 1999). Not surprisingly, if racial discussions were difficult for teachers, then connecting the historical atrocities of slavery and injustices suffered by African Americans in the context of a continual movement did not occur. Teachers’ explained discomfort in discussing race in their classroom based on the ethnicities of their students sets a precedent for their students about what types of conversations are appropriate with what people in their futures. If teachers cannot provide settings in which differing races can learn with, and from one another, how likely are students to ever be able to do this outside of the risk-free environment of an elementary classroom?

Uneasiness with issues of race and their avoidance in demonstration was clearly consistent with research that states teachers often avoid topics of race that they are not well-trained and well-equipped to teach (Segall & Garrett, 2013). Unfortunately this avoidance when applied as a central instructional practice in teaching the movement renders students unable to examine the movement contextually or to apply knowledge of injustice toward other events and concepts in history. This leaves students with an understanding of history as a series of haphazard and unrelated events, rather than connected through consistent paradigms over time (Ladson-Billings, 2003a).

These teachers described their feelings of protectionism and nationalism in their teaching to convey why they used this avoidance with their students. They exhibited their powers as
curricular gatekeepers (Thornton, 1991) over all decision making about what student need and purposefully chose to limit some areas from students in their instruction of the movement. This avoidance and gatekeeping demonstrated does not foster the type of historical thinking and inquiry-based learning known to be effective in teaching social studies content and skills (Barton, 2012; Drake & Brown, 2003; Lévesque, 2008; VanSledright, 2011; Wineburg, 2001, 2010). Further it does not promote the kinds of critical thinking and dialogue that transform students’ thinking (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005) and support conceptual understanding of complex issues in history like those associated with the US Civil Rights Movement.

**Teacher-centered instruction.** Throughout all of the lessons observed and all of the descriptions given by teachers, they used and described many teacher-centered practices in teaching the movement to fourth graders. The teachers did not include examples of instruction led by constructivist practices where students would build their own knowledge while they, as the teachers, facilitated. The teachers failed to provide an emphasis on student exploration and inquiry, nor did they institute practices in their lessons that fostered this kind of student investigation and discovery. The teachers never mentioned they wanted to promote historical thinking or build students’ conceptualization or contextual understanding of the movement. Instead, teachers discussed “giving” students knowledge and “telling” them how to complete varied tasks. Examples of this “giving” of knowledge occurred in the form of presenting students with information through showing videos and reading children’s trade books to students. Further, Mrs. Collins’ telling students what to include on a timeline and having them copy it on their individual papers also demonstrated the high teacher control and passive student involvement consistent with teacher-centered practices (Schug, 2003).
Across all cases, there was an inherent lack of constructivist teaching practices noted. The absence of constructivist instruction which is student-centered and student-directed (Chaille, 2008) was apparent. The problem in being overly reliant on teacher-centered practices is that these types of instruction in social studies fail to allow students to foster critical thinking skills and to think like historians do by investigating varied resources and multiple perspectives in history (Hutton & Hembacher, 2012). Historical thinking was not fostered by the teachers in this case study through the investigation of primary or varied resources. Additionally, by not involving students in inquiry-based instruction, telling them dates to put on a timeline, or only answering lower-level questions in place of true discussion, students were incapable of inferring from, considering, or constructing various historical narratives (Waring & Robinson, 2010). Without inquiry-based instructional practices, students were not privy to effective, active learning opportunities where they had choice and were given time to observe, question, collaborate, and construct knowledge with peers (Burenheide, 2007; Foster & Padgett, 1999; Maxim, 2006; Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg, 2000; Sunal & Haas, 2011). These effective learning opportunities were not possible with teacher-centered instruction focused on “telling” and “giving” students information in transmission styles of teaching offered in the descriptions and demonstrations across all cases in this study.

**Theoretical Implications**

The findings of this study indicated that these fourth grade teachers did not emphasize constructivist practices or promote the use of historical thinking through the primarily traditional and teacher-centered described and demonstrated practices involving students in passive roles (Bolinger & Warren, 2007). The teachers largely did not implement effective practices known to foster student engagement, active learning, and construction of knowledge through experiential
learning supported by constructivist, inquiry-based theories (Lucey, Shifflet, & Weilbacher, 2014). Because of the small sample size of this study, it would be presumptuous to assume that the results from this research alone would greatly inform the theories of constructivist practices and historical thinking in elementary schools. This exploratory study, however, did allow this small sample to give further data suggesting that practices unsupportive of these theories seem to be less than beneficial for elementary students in social studies classrooms. The conclusions of this study indicate that when practices unrelated to the theories informing this investigation of constructivism and historical thinking were used; students were not engaged in relevant learning experiences. Further these demonstrated instructional practices outside of constructivist and inquiry approaches disallowed students’ to construct knowledge, frame their thinking like historians, and engage in critical learning opportunities (Cuban, 1991).

Though the teachers in this research study primarily emphasized the use of traditional methods of teaching social studies, there were elements of their teaching informed by constructivist philosophy, supportive of historical thinking, and subsequently related to inquiry-based teaching practices. For example, Mrs. Archer’s use of simulation as an experiential strategy had some benefits of constructivist and inquiry-based practices (Russell, Waters, & Turner, 2013). Further, Mrs. Archer and Mrs. Beckett’s use of small groups involved students with some higher-level thinking skills and engaged them in inquiring about relevant issues by examining larger questions with contextual information close to the movement (Molenaar, Sleegers, & Boxtel, 2014; Teasley, 1997; Weinberger & Fischer, 2006). When the teachers’ facilitation of discussions actually involved students communicating with one another, the theories of constructivism and the use of historical thinking involving inquiry were explored. As some practices supported by the theoretical framework of this investigation were used, the
students observed appeared to be more engaged; thus, supporting both the theories of constructivism and historical thinking through inquiry-based approaches in elementary social studies classrooms.

**Recommendations**

The sections below discuss recommendations for the future teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 education. Suggestions for action are included for making changes that could improve the teaching of the movement in elementary social studies. Next, suggestions for future research are made indicating other areas of relevant research that could be conducted in the field of social studies research in elementary education.

**Suggestions for Action**

Several actions could be applied in addressing the findings of this research study related to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies classrooms. First, administrators and policy makers in elementary education should be aware some teachers feel there is not an adequate emphasis on social studies education in elementary classrooms. This belief that social studies is not a priority in elementary schools persists despite national and state standards mandating its teaching and the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary education. Further this feeling of a lack of emphasis impacts specific subject areas like the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement. These teachers believed that as social studies was not a priority in their nation, state, school systems, and schools, relying on central textbooks for its teaching due to time limits was necessary and appropriate, though this type of teaching is inherently limiting for students. Student-centered practices based in philosophies of historical thinking and social constructivism known to be effective in teaching social studies are not being used and teachers feel this lower-level instruction is supported by administration. An increased emphasis from administration and policy makers could foreseeably impact how
teachers view the teaching of social studies in their classrooms. For example, just the small emphasis these teachers felt was given to social studies and the movement as this research was supported by their administration helped to build their understanding of the importance of teaching social studies and the US Civil Rights Movement in the elementary grades. Mrs. Beckett said this study,

…help[ed] me to know that we do need to touch on this because this was an important part in history and I think sometimes we tend to just brush it aside. And, so that these students have a better understanding of what actually happened, I think we need to touch on it more, instead of, you know. I know like we’ve done in the past, well, we just didn’t get to it, and that was okay…I do think that we did, maybe, not even intentionally, but I think we just felt like that it just wasn’t as important to make sure that we go to it. So, when we would run out of time we would just sort of say, well, you know, that’s not anything we really need to get into. We can just kind of skip over that part.

Further, there is a desperate need for job-embedded continued education in social studies for in-service teachers and a greater emphasis on social studies in pre-service education. Funding for professional development and adequate and appropriate materials must be made a priority in order for students to be taught in meaningful and powerful ways. Also, training with specific instructional methods that can be used to teach student-centered lessons should be provided and privileged with elementary pre- and in-service teachers. Particularly, education on teaching perceived controversial topics and teaching issues related to race should be provided so teachers have the training needed to teach these subjects to elementary students. Repeated experiences in practicing teaching the movement are likely to increase comfort levels. These types of experiences for teachers are essential as comfort was clearly tied in this research to teachers’ willingness to teach, and how they teach, subjects in social studies in their elementary classrooms. At the end of the study, Mrs. Beckett reported,

…Prior to all of this, I think I did think it would be controversial and I would feel uncomfortable. But, as I got into it and felt more comfortable with that, I feel like that
we made the kids feel more comfortable and, you know, it’s just like teaching any other thing in history.

Mrs. Beckett even explained that she began to get pleasure from teaching social studies and the movement. She said,

I enjoyed it, I did. Because it was not only a learning experience for me, but it just made me feel more comfortable with it. And, the more I studied it, the more I mean, you know, I actually learned some things.

Mrs. Collins stated similarly, “I actually did like that. This is actually the first time I’ve ever taught it because we never got to it in the old textbook. But, I really did like it…”

Finally, providing time for teacher reflection independently, with colleagues, and with experienced practitioners is essential. These teachers mentioned that simply by being participants in this research study raised an awareness of their teaching practices and caused them to reflect on their own current instruction. Mrs. Beckett spoke of having no time in her schedule for the type of reflection she had in teaching the movement during this research, though this process of reflection in this study was helpful to her. She explained, “You don’t have time [to reflect], not at all. Just like, let’s just make it to the next day. Get this lesson going and let’s just get through it because we’re always pressured.” After her lessons, however, Mrs. Beckett said,

You got a whole lot out of me that I really normally would not have reflected upon teaching a lesson. So, it kind of does you good just to sort of get back to the way it was when you first started. You know when we were in school, we used to always have to do this and you kind of just get into a habit of just rush, rush, rush, get it all done. So, it was kind of nice to be able to reflect and think about all of that.

Mrs. Beckett discussed through reflection she realized she could and should bring in more outside resources for students to explore, including research opportunities through the internet and outside speakers as guests in her classroom. Mrs. Collins expressed similar thoughts on how
she had not usually been in the practice of reflecting on her own teaching, but that it was helpful to do so throughout this study. She stated,

> Normally we don’t have enough time to reflect on teaching. But, I will say since I have exposed this group to what happened during that time period, I think that I will find more things that we can talk about. I mean read upon, view a video…I think I’m more aware of it now. And, I’m impressed with how much they didn’t know and how much they know a little bit of.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

Areas of future research related to the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education could be useful. Research should be conducted because teaching of topics involving race, like the US Civil Rights Movement, have been rarely investigated in elementary education and there is clearly a need for future work in this field. This study involved cases in which all teachers were Caucasian, Southern, in their mid-forties, and who had been teaching for a number of years. Other research would be useful with differing populations to see if similar or dissimilar results occurred. Conducting research examining how the US Civil Rights Movement is taught by teachers of varying ethnicities, in differing regions, of wide-ranging age groups, and with diverse years of experience might yield results of practices, rationales, and beliefs that could be useful in further exploring teaching the movement with elementary students.

Experimental research involving the institution of specific uses of student-centered practices supporting historical thinking might be particularly helpful in understanding how to increase teachers’ practices, and beliefs about those practices, with teaching the movement to elementary students. Research providing teachers with effective practices and scaffolded support as they instituted these instructional methods in their fourth grade classes would be useful in examining if teachers with this type of help could overcome feelings of discomfort and overreliance on teacher-centered instruction. Further, student receptiveness could be evaluated,
as could students’ understandings and their beliefs as they study historical issues relating to race. Finally, culturally responsive pedagogical techniques could be instituted with teachers of the movement to see if these practices would be accepted and used by the teachers and how their students would respond accordingly.

Because additional themes beyond the research questions were noted including teachers’ use of racially insensitive language, shifting discussions away from Caucasian and African American race relations, and specific positioning of students; those would be particular points of interest for future research. The language that these teachers used and did not correct with their students, along with assumptions made about students and their families, were concerning. Work examining how teachers’ framing of students in their classrooms including how the language used in relation to race impacts students of color in elementary settings is necessary. Further research should be initiated that investigates teachers’ positioning of students and how, and in what ways, this type of positioning has an impact on elementary students in the social studies classrooms. A possible way to conduct this research would be through the application of a Critical Race Theory methodology that explores central aspects of the study from a more critical approach.

**Study Summary**

This qualitative collective case study explored facets related to fourth grade elementary social studies teachers’ described practices, rationales, beliefs, and demonstrated practices in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to fourth graders. The theoretical framework involved constructivism and historical thinking as effective theories in teaching social studies and in the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement related to citizenship and social justice education. The literature explained specific forms of (1) teacher pedagogical content knowledge in social
studies, (2) instructional methods in social studies, (3) teachers’ beliefs, (4) barriers to teaching social studies, (5) the way teachers define the US Civil Rights Movement, (6) curriculum standards for teaching the movement in Kindergarten-6 education, and (7) current documented inadequacies in teaching the movement, all effecting elementary teachers teaching of social studies. The study included qualitative inquiry conducted in the form of a collective case study through a constructivist grounded theory approach. Methods of data collection included interviews (semi-structured formal pre-interviews, pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR adapted interviews, post-interviews, informal and unstructured interviews), lesson plan artifact analysis, and lesson observations.

Within all the cases, themes were noted. The findings across all cases resulted in some divergent themes, but also in particular themes apparent in all cases as addressed by the two main research questions and two sub-questions. Those themes related to the first research question involving teachers’ descriptions of instructional practices included traditional and non-traditional practices used for teaching the movement. A divergent theme was noted with two of the three cases acknowledging difficulty in describing practices used to teach the movement. Themes found regarding the first sub-question to the first research question addressing teachers’ rationales for teaching the movement in elementary classrooms included framing lessons based on perceived deficits of students’ inadequacies and insufficient time for teaching social studies. Difficulty in expressing central philosophies underlying instructional practices about how to teach the US Civil Rights Movement was the consensus in regard to a central teacher belief found across all cases as addressed in the second sub-question to the first research question. The second research question examining demonstrated instructional practices for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies yielded two main divergent themes across
cases. These themes were that two of the three teachers used practices other than those they described and one teacher demonstrated using only teacher-centered practices. Further themes were noted beyond the scope of the research questions including the use of racially insensitive language, the shifting of discussions about race relations away from an African American and Caucasian binary, and the positioning of students.

Conclusions were drawn from all themes and their impact on teaching elementary students the topic of the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies was discussed. Theoretical implications indicate the results of this study support the use of instructional practices based in constructivist theory and teaching that fosters historical thinking through inquiry-based practices to teach the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education.

Recommendations for future action include (1) addressing the lack of priority on social studies and the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement with administrators and elementary education policymakers, (2) increasing continued education in social studies for in-service teachers and placing a greater emphasis on social studies methods in pre-service teacher education, and (3) providing time for teachers’ self-reflection, reflection with colleagues, and reflection with experienced practitioners. Recommendations for future research in the area of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in Kindergarten-6 social studies could include research with differing participant populations, experimental research involving student-centered and culturally responsive pedagogy, and studies using methodologies centered in Critical Race Theory.
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APPENDIX A

NEWS STORIES RELATED TO RESEARCH SETTING
The Montgomery field office of the Secret Service is investigating a scarecrow resembling President Obama discovered on the front porch of a residence near **** holding a sign reading “Pray for an Assassin.” “We are currently looking into the matter,” Clayton Slay, resident agent in charge of the Montgomery field office. “We take all threats seriously and anything that can be inferred as a threat” is investigated, he said, adding that is not saying this effigy does constitute a threat. Slay said the Secret Service received numerous calls this morning about the effigy from concerned citizens and law enforcement. He couldn’t say whether the figure was still up. Secret Service was at the scene in ****County this morning with the assistance of the **** County Sheriff’s Department and the **** Police Department. Slay said the scarecrow-type figure was made to resemble Obama and was holding the sign. The investigation is ongoing.
Obama Effigy with the Words 'Pray 4 Assassin' Spotted in Alabama

Neetzan Zimmerman

11/09/12

According to the geography academics at Floating Sheep, the vast majority of racist tweets posted in the aftermath of President Obama's reelection came from Alabama, so it's of little surprise that a **** County resident had few qualms about placing an Obama effigy on their front porch along with the sign "Pray 4 Assassin." Still, that doesn't make it any less horrifying. According to **** Newspaper, the Obama effigy was spotted in ****, a small community east of ****, by **** photographer Max Oden.

Oden, who was responding to a reader's tip, told **** the effigy was removed by the resident after the photog managed to snap a few shots. As Oden was leaving the scene, someone from across the street confronted him and struck the window of his car.

Oden subsequently contacted the *** County Sheriff's Office, which contacted the Secret Service in turn. The Secret Service agent responsible for southeast Alabama told **** the matter was under investigation.

"Honestly, until something is thoroughly investigated you don't know the intent," said agent Clayton Slay. "We try to determine if there is a violation of the law, and even if it's not we still have to look at it just to see if there's an intent there."

Calling for President Obama's assassination seems to be a worrying trend. A California woman whose Facebook post expressing a desire to see Obama assassinated went viral told a local news crew she wouldn't "care one bit" if it actually happened.
Complaint made over Obama effigy in **** County

November 8, 2012

An effigy of U.S. President Barack Obama is seen on the front porch of a home in the **** community in **** Thursday morning.

Matt Elofson

****Sheriff’s deputies responded on Thursday to at least one complaint made about an effigy of President Barack Obama displayed on the front porch of a residence with the message “Pray 4 Assassin”

The ****was also informed of the effigy by a reader who drove by and saw it. A ****reporter and photographer went to the address, located in the **** community in **** County, to look into the reader’s tip.

The photographer arrived first and found a life-sized effigy with a black face that resembled President Barack Obama holding a sign that read “Pray 4 Assassin.”

Shortly after the photographer clicked a few pictures, someone came out of the home and took the effigy down. The sheriff’s office was contacted by the photographer after someone else confronted the photographer by the road across the street from the house and beat on his car window.

****County Sheriff **** said his office contacted the FBI and U.S. Secret Service about the effigy. ****said he personally responded, driving through the community, but he didn’t see anything.
“We’ve responded to people putting up signs against various things, but we’ve never had anything political,” **** said. “People have a right to express their feelings, there’s a freedom of speech.”

Clayton Slay, the resident agent in charge for southeast Alabama for the U.S. Secret Service, confirmed the U.S. Secret Service had been notified about the effigy by several organizations. He called it “currently under investigation,” based on the comments on the effigy.

“It can be indicative of threatening behavior. Effigies can connote a threatening tone. We take them very seriously, and are proactive in addressing those types of matters,” Slay said. “Honestly, until something is thoroughly investigated you don’t know the intent. We try to determine if there is a violation of the law, and even if it’s not we still have to look at it just to see if there’s an intent there.”

The **** County resident who originally e-mailed **** called it a “horrific act of hatred and threat to the safety of our nation.” The resident who sent the e-mail declined to have his name published after completing a phone interview with a reporter.
Former KKK Leader And His Mother Indicted After Alabama Cross Burning

HUNTER WALKER – NOVEMBER 29, 2013

A 28-year-old alleged "former Exalted Cyclops" of the Ku Klux Klan and his mother have both been arrested and are facing federal charges relating to a 2009 cross burning in a predominantly African-American neighborhood in **** Ala.

Steven Joshua Dinkle was arrested in Mississippi on Wednesday for allegedly orchestrating the cross burning and obstructing the ensuing investigation, according to a press release sent out Friday by the Department of Justice. Dinkle was described by the DOJ as having previously held the "Exalted Cyclops" title in an ****, Ala. chapter of the Ku Klux Klan. Dinkle "conspired with another person to burn a cross in an African-American neighborhood to threaten and intimidate residents of that neighborhood and thereby interfere with their federally protected housing rights" on May 8, 2009, the Justice Department alleges.

"Dinkle allegedly constructed a six-foot cross, wrapping jeans and a towel around it. He and his co-conspirator drove the cross to an African-American community near ****Road in ****where Dinkle poured fuel on the cross, erected it in the ground and set it on fire," the DOJ press release said. "The indictment further contends that Dinkle obstructed justice by lying to local investigators in 2009, and federal investigators in 2012. Dinkle claimed he had withdrawn from the KKK months before the cross burning, provided a false alibi and denied knowing a person who was, in fact, his superior in the KKK."

Dinkle's mother, Pamela Morris, who the DOJ described as "the former secretary of the KKK chapter" was arrested on Nov. 21 and charged with committing perjury before the grand jury investigating the cross burning. In an indictment filed in U.S. District Court for the Middle District of Alabama on November 14, federal prosecutors said Morris "knowingly made false material declarations when she denied being involved in the Ku Klux Klan' and when she denied being aware of her son's KKK involvement. Morris has entered a not guilty plea in the case.

According to the DOJ, Dinkle was charged on five counts in the U.S. District Court for the Middle District of Alabama including; "one count of conspiracy to violate housing rights, one count of criminal interference with the right to fair housing, one count of using fire to commit a federal felony and two counts of obstruction of justice." As of this writing, documents from Dinkle's case were not posted on the court's website and the federal prosecutor's office was unable to provide them.

On Facebook, a page matching Dinkle's name and listing his hometown as **** Ala., includes links to footage of Klan rallies, an informational page about the Church of the National Knights of the Ku Klux Klan from the website of the anti-KKK Southern Poverty Law Center, and multiple links to a speed dating site. A photo posted among the profile pictures on the page in
October 2011 shows a tattoo of the KKK blood drop cross logo. In comments posted on the page, its owner used the phrase "white power," typed racial slurs, and alluded to unspecified legal problems.
A **** man recently pleaded guilty in federal court to his role in a cross burning at the entrance of a black neighborhood in ****.

According to a statement from the U.S. Attorney’s Office and federal court records, Thomas Windell Smith, 24, pleaded guilty on Friday to one felony count of conspiracy against rights of citizens. The charge stemmed from his role in a cross burning in **** on May 8, 2009.

Late last month federal authorities arrested 28-year-old Steven Joshua Dinkle, the former exalted cyclops of a chapter of the Ku Klux Klan (KKK) in ****, for his alleged involvement in the same **** cross burning. Dinkle’s mother was also charged by the federal government for allegedly impeding the investigation.

During his plea, Smith admitted that he and a co-conspirator agreed to burn a cross together in order to intimidate black residents.

Smith helped load a wooden cross built by the co-conspirator, listed in court records as “S.J.D.,” into his vehicle. Smith then drove the two men to a predominantly black neighborhood where they unloaded the cross at its entrance. The statement also said the co-conspirator poured fuel on the cross, stood it up in view of several homes and then set it on fire.

“The defendant’s crime illustrates the damage hate crimes can do to entire communities, making people feel unsafe in their own homes,” Acting Assistant Attorney General for Civil Rights Jocelyn Samuels said. “We’d like to think these offenses are a thing of the past, but the reality is that they happen here in the 21st century.”

No sentencing date has been scheduled. Smith faces a maximum sentence of 10 years in prison. The case was investigated by the FBI with assistance from the **** County Sheriff’s Office and the **** Police Department.

“This defendant not only committed a federal crime, but committed a contemptible action of hate,” U.S. Attorney George Beck said in a statement. “Citizens in the Middle District of Alabama should not and will not tolerate such actions. I hope this prosecution sends a clear message that these hateful demonstrations will not be tolerated and will be prosecuted to the fullest extent of the law.”
The federal government charged Dinkle with actually making a 6-foot cross, wrapping jeans and a towel around it before pouring fuel on it and setting fire to it in the **** Road area of ****.

Dinkle was also charged with obstruction, along with claiming he had withdrawn from the KKK months before the cross burning, provided a false alibi and denied knowing a person who was, in fact, his superior in the KKK.

The federal government also arrested a second KKK member, Dinkle's 45-year-old mother, Pamela Morris, for allegedly committing perjury before the grand jury investigating the cross burning. She formerly served as the secretary of the **** KKK chapter.
Residents of different races gathered at **** Church in **** Monday night to discuss the advances and continuing challenges of race relations.

The **** presented the event, titled, “The Birmingham Pledge and Race Equality: A Dedication Service,” in honor of the Birmingham Pledge, a statement composed by Birmingham attorney Jim Rotch in 1997 to create a commitment to ending racial prejudice.

The first sentence of the pledge reads, “I believe that every person has worth as an individual,” and for those in attendance, it struck a chord.

“I think it’s a great opportunity for people of different races to come together and reaffirm a pledge of working together and make sure that in everyday life, we’re not looking at prejudice, we’re not looking at color, we’re looking at people,” said **** County District Attorney ****. “We’re all God’s people, and that’s what it’s all about.”

****, who attended the event with a group of friends, said the pledge should become a standard in the **** community like it is in Birmingham.

“I feel it’s a great experience, and it should be strengthening to the ideals and values of the people in this community,” **** said. “I’m a positive person, and I feel very positive about them rallying around it.”

Some aren’t sure the community will get behind the pledge, but most believe it should.

“If not, they need to,” said ****, a member of the ****. “I think this is right on time. It’s a great idea to get together and let each other know where we stand today and let them know we’re all on one accord.”

**** said the pledge makes a great start for the community to come together and begin to bridge racial gaps.

“We don’t need to be a divided community, by race or whatever. We need to be one group of citizens trying to make **** better, trying to make our county better and trying to make Alabama better,” **** said.

One of the speakers at Monday’s event, retired U.S. Army Major General ****, summarized the challenges facing residents as they move forward.

“While much has been done by so many, much more remains to rid racism from our country, because it all starts in the heart,” **** said. “You can’t legislate the heart.”
Wednesday, October 1, 2003

**** is planning to reaffirm its commitment to racial equality by holding three events during the week of Sept. 29 in honor of the National League of Cities (NLC) Third Annual Race Equality Week. This week is used to spotlight race issues and success stories that confront local elected officials every day. These are daily reminders of how important this issue still is in America, and that promoting racial equality and ending racism requires awareness, commitment, and action, said Mayor ****.

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Members of the Race Equality Committee say this is an opportunity for **** to stand up and be counted in an ongoing effort to make sure our community fosters racial equality and harmony. Last year, **** won honors, nationally, for our Race Equality Week and organizers hope to do the same this year.

The Friends of **** and the ****-****County Community Book Club as well as many other organizations such as local churches and educational groups make up the Race Equality Committee of ****, chaired by City Councilman **** and Librarian ****.

Together, they will put on the following programs:

On Monday evening at 6-8 p.m. on Sept. 29, will be "The Story of Our Heritage," featuring readings from the writings of James Weldon Johnson, Phyllis Wheatley, Frederick Douglas, **** of **** County and Judge Frank Johnson of Alabama. This event about the history of racial equality in America, will be held in the ****Wing of the Library; refreshments will be served. For more information call ****

On Thursday evening at 6-8 p.m. on Oct. 2, food will be served from around the world to the accompaniment many styles of music and music from many nations. Local merchants and ethnic societies throughout the ****area are contributing to this Food Tasting Event. It is being held at the ****Center. To contribute to the menu, call ****

On Saturday afternoon, Oct. 4, between 4 and 6 p.m, a Salsa Dance is being held for Teenagers between the ages of 13-18 at the Boys and Girls Club. Latin music will be played, pictures by a Puerto Rican artist, Rafy Colon, will be on display and Hispanic artifacts will be on exhibited on a Travelogue Table for Teens.
Refreshments are free. D.A.R.E. Officer Sgt. **** will be present along with adult chaperones. Proof of age will be required by ID or verified by an adult family member. Translators available. For information, call ****

The National League of Cities is the oldest and largest national organization for American cities. NLC serves as a resource and advocate for 18,000 cities, towns and villages of all sizes, from New York City to Texas, which collectively serve 225 million people. The NLC Race Equality Week is being conducted in conjunction with 49 state municipal leagues and NLCs member towns and cities throughout the United States. For more information visit www.nlc.org.
Dear Teacher’s Name,

My name is Holly Hilboldt Swain, and I am a doctoral student in the College of Education at The University of Alabama. I am conducting a research study on K-6 elementary teachers’ social studies instruction. I am a former public school elementary teacher and have previously taught elementary students in kindergarten, third, and fourth grades. Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal, Department Head for the Department of Curriculum and Instruction in the College of Education and Professor of Elementary Social Studies at the University of Alabama and Dr. Janie Hubbard, Assistant Professor of Elementary Social Studies in the College of Education at the University of Alabama, are responsible for supervising my dissertation research. I will be conducting case study research with fourth-grade teachers concerning their beliefs and teaching practices in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. I plan to interview and observe fourth-grade teachers teaching social studies lessons. I would also like to collect lesson plans created by teachers that are responsible for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement according to the Alabama Social Studies Course of Study for 2010.

What is the purpose of this study?
My research is tentatively entitled *The Civil Rights Movement in Elementary Classrooms: Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices*. The primary objectives of this study are to describe the beliefs expressed by fourth-grade public elementary school teachers and the observed practices they incorporate when teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students.

What is the significance of this study? What good will the results do?
This study seeks to examine the teaching practices and beliefs of elementary teachers in typical fourth-grade social studies classrooms. The study will help fill a gap in the existing literature regarding how elementary social studies teachers’ beliefs may influence their teaching practices related to the Civil Rights Movement and add to the knowledge about what practices are used in actual elementary classrooms to teach this subject matter. This study has the potential to contribute to our understanding and add to the body of knowledge describing what characteristics emerge as teachers discuss their beliefs related to the Civil Rights Movement, how teachers describe their rationale for using certain instructional practices, and what characteristics emerge as teachers are observed using these practices. It is possible the findings from this study could benefit both novice and veteran teachers who teach the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary schools. Teacher education programs and instructors who teach social studies methods courses at the university level may also benefit in relating these results to prospective teachers as they teach pre-service teachers how to teach social studies and the US Civil Rights Movement as a component of elementary social studies.

What procedures will take place in this study? What will I be asked to do?
If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to:
- Participate in two formal semi-structured interviews that include a pre-and post-interview with questions related to your beliefs and practices concerning teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary school. Each interview will last between 30 to 45 minutes and will be audiotaped and later transcribed. These interviews will be scheduled at your convenience.
- Submit two social studies lesson plans for the purposes of analysis by the researcher. You may choose to submit them as hardcopies or as electronic files. They will be submitted prior to these lessons being taught to students. You are asked to choose two lesson plans that reflect your typical delivery of instructional strategies and methods applied during social studies instruction that you would normally teach to meet the standards of teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in fourth-grade social studies.
- Participate in two pre-observational CoRe and PaP-eR interviews; one interview will be conducted prior to Observation 1 and the second CoRe and PaP-eR interview will be conducted prior to Observation 2. The CoRe and PaP-eR interviews will last approximately 20 to 30 minutes and will be documented through audiotape and will be transcribed later. These interviews will discuss specific content and instructional choices made in the two lesson plans to be taught. These will be scheduled at your convenience prior to the observations.
- Participate in two observations of social studies lessons that teach content and skills associated with the US Civil Rights Movement as you would normally teach them based on the 2010 Alabama Course of Study. These observations will be documented through researcher field notes only, as no audio or videotaping will occur.

**How much time will I spend being in this study?**
This case study will take place over the course of 2014 fall semester of the school year. It will begin approximately in early October and officially conclude no later than December at the end of the fall semester.

Formal semi-structured pre-interviews will began and end in early October. The pre-interviews will be held at the interviewees’ individual school sites. The interviews will last between 30 to 45 minutes, and they most likely take place before or after school and will be scheduled at the participants’ convenience.

Participants will be asked to plan, write, and submit two lesson plans to be submitted prior to the first CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observation interview. These lesson plans will be collected in early to mid-October.

Two CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observation interviews will take place during October and November. One (CoRe and PaP-eR) interview will be conducted prior to observing participants’ teach social studies lesson 1 and a second CoRe and PaP-eR pre-observational interview will be conducted prior to observing participants’ teach social studies lesson 2. The CoRe and PaP-eR interviews should last approximately 20-30 minutes and will take scheduled after the submission of the two lesson plans to be taught.
Observations conducted in this study will include two 30-minute to one hour sessions per participant and will take place over the course of several weeks in October and November during participants’ social studies instruction. These observations will be scheduled based on the participants’ social studies schedules and with consideration to overall school scheduling that might interfere with normal social studies instruction including assemblies, field trips, etc. The researcher and participants will determine an observation schedule prior to pre-interviews taking place.

The post-interview will be held at the interviewees’ individual school sites. The interview will last between 30 to 45 minutes, and most likely take place before or after school and will be scheduled at the participants’ convenience. This post-interview will take place at the end of November.

What are the benefits of participating in this study?
You are considered a willing participant for this study. You will not be compensated monetarily in any manner for your willingness to participate. You may indirectly benefit by gaining deeper insights about your social studies instructional practices and how you plan social studies lessons related to the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. Hopefully participants will become more conscious and reflective about their beliefs and practices related to the US Civil Rights Movement after participating in this research.

What are my choices to withdraw my participation from this study?
Your participation in this research is entirely VOLUNTARY. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

What are the risks (dangers or harms) to me if I am participating in this study?
There is no conceivable risk associated with this study. If at any time the researcher perceives the study to have any detrimental effects or that it might cause a conflict of interest for participants the case study will be discontinued immediately. Pseudonyms will be used for all schools and participants to protect their identities. Participant may choose their own pseudonyms if they wish or the researcher can assign pseudonyms for them.

Participants who fit the criteria of this research and who express their willingness to participate will sign a letter of consent to participate before any data collection methods are employed. Results from this research study will not be reported or linked to any particular school site, nor will any specific participant’s name be reported during data collection or reporting.

How will my privacy and confidentiality be protected?
Multiple strategies will be utilized to ensure the privacy and confidentiality of all participants involved in this study. Letters of consent, transcripts, jottings, field notes, analytic memos, copies of documents and artifacts, and other relevant paperwork will be safely secured in a locked file with only the researcher having the key. All audio tapes will be deleted immediately after transcription has been completed and no real names will be used in the audio recordings. The transcribed data will be kept on the home computer of the primary investigator. This home computer is locked when not in use. All data will remain securely in the possession of the
researcher for three years. After three years have passed all data will be destroyed. No information about you or the data you provide will be disclosed to others without your permission. You, the school site, and the school system where you work will be assigned pseudonyms for all written reporting. No information will be included that could reveal your identity.

What if have questions, suggestions, concerns, or complaints?
If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at the following e-mail address: hhswain@crimson.ua.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisors for this study, Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal at cvsunal@bamaed.ua.edu or Dr. Janie Hubbard at hubba018@bamaed.ua.edu. Further, you may contact Ms. Tanta Myles, Director of Office for Research Compliance at 205 348-5746.

I hope this study will contribute to the field of educational research by offering additional insight that highlights elementary teachers’ teacher beliefs, experiences in planning and implementing social studies instruction in practice, and in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Holly Hilboldt Swain
Doctoral Student
The University of Alabama

I have read this letter and understand the information provided above. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been given a copy of this letter.

By signing this letter, I [   ] agree [   ] do not agree to participate in this research study.

I understand that part of my participation in this research study will be audiotaped and I give my permission to record the interviews.

_____ Yes, my participation during all interviews can be audiotaped; or _____ No, I do not want my participation in all interviews audiotaped.

________________________________________________         _____________________
Signature of Participant      Date

I have explained the research to the subject, and answered all of his or her questions. He or she has acknowledged they understand the information described in this document and gives permission to conduct this study.

________________________________________________          ____________________
Signature of Investigator            Date
APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR PRINCIPALS
MEMO

Principal’s Name
Title
Name of School

Date

RE:

Dear Principal’s Name:

My name is Holly Hilboldt Swain and I am doctoral student at The University of Alabama. I am conducting a research study on elementary teachers’ beliefs and instructional practices in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal, Department Head for the Department of Curriculum & Instruction in the College of Education and Professor of Elementary Social Studies, and Dr. Janie Hubbard, Assistant Professor of Elementary Social Studies in the College of Education at the University of Alabama, are responsible for supervising my dissertation research. This research is tentatively entitled *The Civil Rights Movement in Elementary Classrooms: Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices* and means to address the following questions. The first overarching question is, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Two sub-questions are used to further clarify the first question. They are, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?” and “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement? The second overarching research question is, “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?”

The primary objectives of this study are to describe the beliefs expressed by fourth-grade public elementary school teachers and the observed practices they incorporate when teaching about the Civil Rights Movement. Participants who fit the criteria of this research and who express their willingness to participate will sign a letter of consent to participate before any data collection methods are employed. Results from this research study will not be reported or linked to any particular school site or school system, nor will any specific participant’s name be reported during data collection or reporting.

This study seeks to examine the teaching practices and beliefs of elementary teachers in typical fourth-grade social studies classrooms. The study will help fill a gap in the existing literature regarding how elementary social studies teachers’ beliefs may influence their teaching practices related to the Civil Rights Movement and add to the knowledge about what practices are used in actual elementary classrooms to teach this subject matter. This study has the potential to contribute to our understanding and add to the body of knowledge describing what characteristics emerge as teachers discuss their beliefs related to the Civil Rights Movement,
how teachers describe their rationale for using certain instructional practices, and what characteristics emerge as teachers are observed using these practices. It is possible the findings from this study could benefit both novice and veteran teachers who teach the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary schools. Teacher education programs and instructors who teach social studies methods courses at the university level may also benefit in relating these results to prospective teachers as they teach pre-service teachers how to teach social studies and the US Civil Rights Movement as a component of elementary social studies.

Taking part in this research study will involve participant interviews, collection of social studies lesson plans, and social studies teaching observations. To understand the instructional practices that occur while teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education, I would like to request your consent to work with the fourth-grade teachers in your school. All participants will be asked to sign a letter of consent to participate in this case study. Participants will also be invited to participate in member checking during the data analysis and editing phases.

The prospective timeframe for this study will start in early October, and will officially conclude at the end of the 2014 fall semester. Pre-interviews will began in early October and conclude in early October. Pre-observational interviews, lesson plan document collection, and observations will occur in the months of October and November. Post-interviews and member checking will take place after that time. Participation is completely voluntary, and information about the study, as well as issues of confidentiality and privacy, will be provided in the attached consent forms that all participants will be asked to sign. Participants have the right to withdraw their participation at any time without penalty. Permission to conduct this study has been obtained from The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB) and will further be obtained from your school system and all participants.

There is no conceivable risk associated with this study. If at any time the researcher perceives the study to have any detrimental effects or cause a conflict of interest for participants the case study will be discontinued immediately. Pseudonyms will be used for all school systems, schools, and participants to protect their identities.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at the following e-mail address: hhswain@crimson.ua.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisors for this study, Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal at cvsunal@bamaed.ua.edu or Dr. Janie Hubbard at hubba018@bamaed.ua.edu. Further, you may contact Ms. Tanta Myles, Director of Office for Research Compliance at 205 348-5746.

I hope this study will contribute to the field of educational research by offering additional insight that highlights elementary teachers’ teacher beliefs, experiences in planning and implementing social studies instruction in practice, and in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement to elementary students. Thank you in advance for your time and consideration.
Sincerely,

Holly Hilboldt Swain  
Doctoral Student  
The University of Alabama

I have read this letter and understand the information provided above. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been given a copy of this letter.

By signing this letter, I [ ] give permission [ ] do not give permission to conduct this research study.

________________________________________________         _________________________  
Signature of Principal       Date

I have explained the research to the subject, and answered all of his or her questions. He or she has acknowledged they understand the information described in this document and gives permission to conduct this study.

________________________________________________          ________________________  
Signature of Investigator               Date
APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM FOR SUPERINTENDENTS
MEMO

Superintendent’s Name
Title
Name of School System
Date

RE:

Dear Superintendent’s Name:

My name is Holly Hilboldt Swain and I am doctoral student at The University of Alabama. I am conducting a research study on elementary teachers’ beliefs and instructional practices in teaching the US Civil Rights Movement with elementary students. Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal, Department Head for the Department of Curriculum & Instruction in the College of Education and Professor of Elementary Social Studies, and Dr. Janie Hubbard, Assistant Professor of Elementary Social Studies in the College of Education at the University of Alabama, are responsible for supervising my dissertation research. This research is tentatively entitled *The Civil Rights Movement in Elementary Classrooms: Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices* and means to address the following research questions. The first overarching question is, “How do fourth grade teachers describe instructional practices in their classrooms related to the US Civil Rights Movement?” Two sub-questions are used to further clarify the first question. They are, “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their rationale for using specific instructional practices to address the US Civil Rights Movement?” and “How do fourth-grade teachers describe their beliefs about instructional practices used for teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?” The second overarching research question is, “How are instructional practices demonstrated as fourth-grade teachers address the US Civil Rights Movement in their classrooms?”

The primary objectives of this study are to describe the beliefs expressed by fourth-grade public elementary school teachers and the observed practices they incorporate when teaching about the Civil Rights Movement. Participants who fit the criteria of this research and who express their willingness to participate will sign a letter of consent to participate before any data collection methods are employed. Results from this research study will not be reported or linked to any particular school site or school system, nor will any specific participant’s name be used during data collection, analysis, publication, presentation, or at any other time.

This study seeks to examine the teaching practices and beliefs of elementary teachers in typical fourth-grade social studies classrooms. The study will help fill a gap in the existing literature regarding how elementary social studies teachers’ beliefs may influence their teaching practices related to the Civil Rights Movement and add to the knowledge about what practices are used in actual elementary classrooms to teach this subject matter. This study has the potential to contribute to our understanding and add to the body of knowledge describing what characteristics emerge as teachers discuss their beliefs related to the Civil Rights Movement, how teachers describe their rationale for using certain instructional practices, and what
characteristics emerge as teachers are observed using these practices. It is possible the findings from this study could benefit both novice and veteran teachers who teach the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary schools. Teacher education programs and instructors who teach social studies methods courses at the university level may also benefit in relating these results to prospective teachers as they teach pre-service teachers how to teach social studies and the US Civil Rights Movement as a component of elementary social studies.

Taking part in this research study will involve participant interviews, collection of social studies lesson plans, and social studies teaching observations. To understand the instructional practices that occur while teaching the US Civil Rights Movement in elementary social studies education, I would like to request your consent to work with the fourth-grade teachers in your school system. All participants will be asked to sign a letter of consent to participate in this case study. Participants will also be invited to participate in member checking during the data analysis and editing phases.

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If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at the following e-mail address: hhswain@crimson.ua.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisors for this study, Dr. Cynthia S. Sunal at cvsunal@bamaed.ua.edu or Dr. Janie Hubbard at hubba018@bamaed.ua.edu. Further, you may contact Ms. Tanta Myles, Director of Office for Research Compliance at 205 348-5746.

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Sincerely,

Holly Hilboldt Swain  
Doctoral Student  
The University of Alabama

I have read this letter and understand the information provided above. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been given a copy of this letter.

By signing this letter, I [ ] give permission [ ] do not give permission to conduct this research study.

________________________________________________         _________________________
Signature of Superintendent      Date

I have explained the research to the subject, and answered all of his or her questions. He or she has acknowledged they understand the information described in this document and gives permission to conduct this study.

________________________________________________        _________________________
Signature of Investigator               Date
APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL
1. Background:
   - Tell me about your educational background.
   - How long have you been teaching?
   - What grade levels and number of years at each level have you taught?
   - What type of training and professional development have you had with teaching social studies?
   - What does social studies look like in your classroom? This includes typical time, emphasis, space, materials, etc.
   - Have you had any personal experiences with the US Civil Rights Movement?
   - What is your own background with learning about the US Civil Rights Movement? Where did you learn about it? At home, elementary school, college, etc.?
   - What do you consider to be the main purpose of teaching social studies?
   - What does citizenship education mean to you in the context of elementary social studies?
   - What does social justice education mean to you in the context of elementary social studies?

2. Beliefs about the US Civil Rights Movement:
   - How would you define the US Civil Rights Movement?
   - Do you feel confident in your content knowledge about teaching the US Civil Rights Movement? Why or why not?
   - In your experiences, what background knowledge do your students usually have with the US Civil Rights Movement prior to your lessons?
   - How confident do you feel when planning and teaching about the US Civil Rights Movement? Explain why you feel this way.
   - What limitations and difficulties are connected to teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?
   - How would you describe your beliefs about teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?
   - Do you feel that it is important to teach the US Civil Rights Movement to your elementary students? Why or why not?
   - Who do you feel were the most important contributors to the movement?
• What events do you feel are essential for your students to know about the Movement?
• What significant places of the movement do you feel are important to teach your students?
• How is the US Civil Rights Movement relevant or irrelevant to your students?
• What are the most significant concepts central to the US Civil Rights Movement?
• What have been your typical experiences with teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?
• What have been your students’ responses to lessons on the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How have your students’ families responded to your lessons and activities involving the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How has your school administration responded to the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement in your classroom?
• Why do you incorporate, or not incorporate, the US Civil Rights Movement in your social studies curriculum?
• How does the US Civil Rights Movement connect to your students today?
• What role does the US Civil Rights Movement play in your overall teaching of elementary social studies skills, concepts, and topics?
• What topics do you believe need to be covered when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?

3. Planning Instruction:
• What does your Alabama Course of Study expect you to teach about the US Civil Rights Movement?
• What do you consider when planning the US Civil Rights Movement?
• What challenges and limitations have you encountered while planning the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How do you determine which sources and resources you will incorporate when planning the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How do you determine which instructional strategies and methods are appropriate to use when you plan your social studies lessons about the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How are you supported, or not supported, in planning and teaching the US Civil Rights Movement at your school?
• Do you consider students’ background knowledge when planning for the US Civil Rights Movement in your teaching?
• What do you consider to be the key concepts or generalizations to be taught about the movement to children at this age level?
• Why do you consider these key concepts and generalizations to be essential?
• What are the key attitudes and skills that you cover in your US Civil Rights Movement lessons?
• What do you teach specifically in your lessons related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
• What will I see you focus on in your lessons related to the US Civil Rights Movement?

4. Instructional Practices
• Is teaching the US Civil Rights Movement a typical topic in your elementary social studies instruction? Why or why not?
• What does your current teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement look like in your classroom? How many lessons does it involve, how long do you teach it?, etc.
• What social studies skills do you emphasize when teaching the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How do you determine when to apply these practices?
• How do you involve engage students with content related to the US Civil Rights Movement?
• Do you involve students in any collaborative strategies? If so, how? If not, why?
• Do you involve students in conversations and discussions? If so, how? If not, why?
• What sorts of materials do you use when you teach the US Civil Rights Movement?
• Do you try to connect the Civil Rights Movement to other topics in social studies? If so, how? If not, why?
• Do you integrate technology as you teach the US Civil Rights Movement? If so, how? If not, why?
• When you plan social studies lessons that involve the US Civil Rights Movement, do you involve any outside resources? If so, what resources do you use? If not, why?
• What barriers and limitations have you had to overcome when trying to implement the teaching of the US Civil Rights Movement?
• How do you assess your students and their understanding of the US Civil Rights Movement?
APPENDIX F

CoRe AND PaP-eR PRE-OBSERVATIONAL INTERVIEW
Content Representation (CoRe and PaP-eR) Pre-Observation Interview

(Loughran, Mulhall, & Berry, 2004; Mulhall, Berry, & Loughran, 2003)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prompts</th>
<th>Big Idea 1</th>
<th>Big Idea 2</th>
<th>Big Idea 3</th>
<th>Big Idea 4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What are your main ideas that you are covering in this lesson that you have planned?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What do you want the students to learn about these main ideas?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Why is it important for students to know these things?</td>
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<td>What are the difficulties and/or limitations connected to teaching these ideas?</td>
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<td>What knowledge about students’ thinking influences your teaching of these ideas?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Table</td>
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<td>What are other factors that influence your teaching of this idea?</td>
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<td>Why have you selected the instructional practices you have chosen to teach the main ideas of this lesson and why you have chosen them?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What are the strategies you will use to assess students’ understanding or confusion about these main ideas?</td>
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APPENDIX G

OBSERVATION PROTOCOL
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Name:</th>
<th>Other Pertinent Information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Name:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date and Time:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive Account:</td>
<td>Researcher Considerations and Questions:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX H

IRB APPROVAL
October 30, 2014

Holly Hilboldt Swain
Department of Curriculum & Instruction
College of Education
Box 870232

Re: IRB# 14-0R-369-ME "The Civil Rights Movement in Elementary Classrooms: Examining Teacher Beliefs and Practices"

Dear Ms. Swain:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below.

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on October 28, 2015. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except where necessary to eliminate imminent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Request for Study Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent forms to obtain consent from your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office of Research Compliance