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TEACHING THE CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT IN FLORIDA: A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA TEACHERS

by

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ABSTRACT

Teaching the civil rights movement can be challenging. Many history textbooks contain the national story of Martin Luther King, Jr., Rosa Parks, the march to Selma, Alabama, and not much more. Classrooms across the United States follow this path of nationalizing the civil rights movement. This interpretation is only a small part of the civil rights crusade that existed throughout the United States, including in the state of Florida. Teaching only the national story, especially when the local exists, can ignore the human, ordinary element of this movement.

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to describe the lived experience of central Florida teachers when teaching the civil rights movement. It is based on the theoretical assumptions that the national story is the only narrative being taught regarding the civil rights movement, and it sought to determine whether this is the case in the state of Florida, which incorporates the use of local history in its state standards. Data were collected through the use of surveys along with follow up qualitative interviews. The sample size was 319 teachers of whom 65 responded, and eight personal interviews were conducted. Findings show that more than just Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks are being taught, but it is still mostly the national story and not local, community history.

Nine themes were identified, ranging from the impact of teachers, which builds upon previous research, to the negative opinion that teachers have for the texts being used, to the different content and timelines being used in social studies classrooms when teaching the civil rights movement. These data are important to educators, historians, administrators, and teachers
because this is one of the first empirical studies on the subject of teaching the civil rights movement.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

“Anytime you have an opportunity to make a difference in this world and you don’t do it, you are wasting your time on earth” – Roberto Clemente

Finding effective pedagogical practices to teach history can prove challenging, especially when teaching the Civil Rights Era. Many history textbooks contain the national story of Martin Luther King, Jr., Rosa Parks, the march to Selma, Alabama, and not much more. Classrooms across the United States follow this path of nationalizing the civil rights movement (Alridge, 2002; Dunn, 2005; Mormino, 2003; Payne, 2004). This interpretation is only a small part of the civil rights crusade that existed throughout the United States, including the state of Florida. Teaching only the national story, especially when the local exists, can mean ignoring the human, ordinary element of this movement. It also leads students to believe that the civil rights movement focuses only on the lives of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks (Alridge, 2002). This national story also leaves out the breadth and depth of the movement, including local heroes. Given the theoretical assumptions that the national story is the only narrative being taught regarding the civil rights movement, this study investigates whether this premise is the case in the state of Florida, which incorporates the use of local history in its state standards.

Local history is a valuable teaching tool. In many cases, it supports the national story and can bring that narrative to life. Where local history exists, it can provide important pedagogical strategies in the classroom. The civil rights movement in central Florida is an example of local history that could be used to understand grass-roots movements that exemplified the national
story. Considering how many students feel about history, the local stories of ordinary people are too significant to ignore.

Using local history in a classroom can provide connections to a subject and bring to life a narrative that many students find irrelevant (Chiodo & Byford, 2004). Students may not be interested in American history as a content course but they are interested in their heritage (Rosenzweig & Thelan, 1998). In many cases, local history can be considered the legacy of a community. Using examples of it in a classroom can provide a personal link or bond. Rosenzweig and Thelan (1998) stated that “almost every American deeply engages in the past, and the past that engages [him/her] most deeply is that of [his/her] family” (p. 22). But while many are interested in their own past, American history is something to which they cannot relate. Rosenzweig and Thelan (1998) also argued, “they feel unconnected to the past in history classrooms because they don’t recognize themselves in the version of the past presented there” (p. 12). Local history can provide the connecting link.

Another reason that students can make personal connections to local history is that it feels like home. Amato (2002) stated,

Only local and regional history satisfies the need to remember the most intimate matters, the things of childhood…. It captures how they experienced the world through their senses; what they thought; how they felt; what they got angry, fought, and cursed about; what they prayed for; what drove them insane; and finally, how they died and were buried (p. 3).

Local history is intimate and personal and provides an opportunity for students to understand and connect to the past. And along with the connection, it is a chance for history to be taught with more than a top-down approach or the narrative of elites of our society.

The importance of the civil rights movement should not be discounted. In the last decade, no other subject has been as significant or divisive as the civil rights movement and it is an essential piece of American history. Dunn (2005) stated, “The civil rights movement is the most
The national story is the only narrative being taught in Florida, then this is what students believe is the truth concerning this era even though the civil rights narrative is far from just the story of two heroes. It is a chronicle of ordinary people from across the country that worked for equal rights for African Americans. View (2004) stated,

Too often, the teaching of the Civil Rights Movement—as a spontaneous, emotional eruption of angry but saintly African Americans led by two or three inspired orators—discounts the origins, the intellect, and the breadth that guided this complex social movement. Rather, strategic brilliance, logical messiness, exalted joy, heart-gouging sorrow, sharp tactical conflicts, and near-religious personal transformations are all part of the very human story of ending formal racial segregation in the United States. (p. 3)

The national story omits the brilliance and the human story that can be found in local, community history. It also lacks any connections or relevance to make it personal or engaging to students. In order to be engrossed in this subject, students need more than the national story. Students need to learn the story of people and events from their own communities. Including the narrative of local, ordinary people through the use of historical inquiry can enhance students’ connection to history (Clarke & Lee, 2004; Crothers, 2002; Shedd, 2007; Yilmaz, 2009). So using local history in high school classrooms in Florida not only illustrates a more realistic view of the movement but allows students to make connection as well.

The story of local civil rights history is a valuable tool in the history classroom not only for making connections but for social constructivism (a learning theory wherein students construct knowledge through the world around them), and using state and national standards that include local and community history. The paradigms for this study are the history of the civil
rights movement, the topic of historical thinking along with a rationale for student-centered learning, the benefits of using local history in a classroom, and a summation of theories on how the civil rights movement is being taught in classrooms today.

Theoretical Framework

The premise of this study is the theory that teaching the civil rights movement in the classrooms in Florida may focus on textbooks and the national story, but these sources contain a very limited view of those involved locally. For example, one history text, *Out of Many: A History of the American People* (2011), to be used in AP classrooms in one school district in central Florida, divides its chapter on the civil rights movement into the following sections: Origins of the Civil Rights Movement, No Easy Road to Freedom, and The Movement at High Tide. These sections are then divided into smaller segments such as: freedom with Martin Luther King, Jr., and the SCLC; Sit-ins: Greensboro, Nashville, Atlanta; SNCC and the “Beloved Community”; Birmingham; JFK; LBJ; and Malcolm X and the Mississippi Freedom Riders. These sections all contain national stories. Another premise is that historical inquiry, primary sources, and multiple perspectives are also not being used in every public school history classroom. Not only do history texts omit the narrative of local African American civil rights crusaders, but classroom teachers do as well (Alridge, 2002; Dunn, 2005; Mormino, 2003). The theoretical framework for this study therefore is social constructivism, the importance of local history, and the teaching strategies needed to make personal connections.

Meaningful teaching depends on who the instructor is and what he or she has experienced. Costigan and Crocco (2004) stated, “Teaching is not only a skill, a set of learned lessons for delivering a lesson; who you are, what you think, and how you feel about the people, social conditions, and structure of education matter in an essential way” (p. 7). Costigan and
Crocco’s theory is similar to the assumptions of social constructivism and how students learn. According to this learning theory, knowledge is socially constructed. Students learn actively and in context with the world around them, and the focus needs to be on the student’s thinking about learning (Powell & Kalina, 2009). Social constructivism has its roots early in the 20th century in the works of John Dewey and Lev Vygotsky. Just as students learn in context to the world around them, educators teach in the same manner. So both teachers in the classroom and their students are situated in the world around them. Both the teaching and learning are contextualized. Therefore, it is important to add local history in the classroom as this is part of “the world around” each student.

Incorporating local history into a social studies or history course is a way to make the subject personal, thereby engaging students in the subject matter (Clark & Lee, 2004). It is also part of state and national standards. In Florida, local history is taught in 4th grade, and it is part of many history standards in other grades as well. For example, the Sunshine State Standard for American history for grades 9-12, SS.912.A.3.13 reads, “Examine key events in and peoples in Florida history as they relate to United States history” (floridastandards.org). The National Standards for History from the National Center for History in the Schools (n.d.) also called for teaching local history. It stated, “Historical memory is the key to self-identity, to seeing one’s connectedness in with all of human kind.” Local or community history then, offers personal connections. According to Clarke and Lee (2004), “The study of local history enables students to connect to the major themes historians use to organize the past. Studying local history combines the benefits of authenticity and active engagement” (p. 84). Therefore, it is important to incorporate local history into the teaching of American history.
Statement of the Problem

In many classrooms around the country, when the civil rights movement is being taught, it is the story of Martin Luther, King, Jr., or Rosa Parks (Dunn, 2005; Alridge, 2002). In many cases this may be all that exists, but not in Florida. Here, local history exists, and its omission discounts the importance of local figures. Payne (2004) stated,

Placing so much emphasis on national leadership and national institutions minimizes the importance of the local struggle and makes it difficult to appreciate the role “ordinary” people played in changing the country and the enormous personal costs that it sometimes entailed for them. (p. 11)

In fact, local “ordinary” Floridians fought for equal rights as well.

It is important to note that many of these national figures started as local ones. For example, the narrative of Emmitt Till that started as a local story has moved to the national stage even though his murder took place more than 50 years ago. His chronicle then has been passed on from teacher to student until it has been transformed into a national story. And the use of his narrative in the classroom made him relevant to students in Mississippi.

Two local Floridians who fought for equal rights and equal pay were Harry T. and Harriet V. Moore. On December 25, 1951, in Mims, Florida, a bomb placed under their bedroom exploded, making them two of the first martyrs of the civil rights movement. The Moores were both teachers who had worked tirelessly for voting rights and equal pay for African Americans in the state of Florida. Unfortunately, many, including teachers and even historians, have never heard of the Moores or other individuals or incidents relating to the civil rights movement that occurred in the state of Florida. This, in essence, is the problem. The Moores are an example of local Floridians who were actively involved in the civil rights movement but whose story is not being told in every school in Florida. They are local heroes whose stories could be used in a classroom along with the national story. Mormino (2003) asked, “While books amply and
justifiably document the role of Medgar Evers and Emmet Till, who remembers Harry T. Moore?” (p. 133). The Moores are an example of ordinary people who contributed to the civil rights movement by making the ultimate sacrifice: their lives. They are also a part of local history that can be used to engage students and to help them make personal connections. Making sure the narrative of the Moores is heard in every school in Florida is one impetus behind this study.

In classrooms across the country, the civil rights movement may be taught with little more than just Martin Luther King, Jr. (Dunn, 2005; Mormino, 2003). In Florida, the high school history standards do include more than Dr. King and Ms. Parks as well as key Floridians. The question for this study is: which local Floridians are being included in the teaching of the civil rights movement? The standards above are found throughout American history, not solely in the civil rights era. With a few exceptions, the teaching of the civil rights movement is a top-down approach filled with gender bias and half-truths (Payne, 2004). The building of the movement that started after Reconstruction is ignored in the civil rights section and this national-scale story can obscure what else really happened. It is time that the story of “ordinary people” and their roles in the civil rights movement was heard.

The role of ordinary people is not always easy to include. According to Shedd (2007),

One of the most challenging problems faced by teachers of history is how to give voice to the vast majority of people who lived in the past. Our knowledge of history tends to center on the great and important because we are tied to the extant written records, almost all of which were produced by and/or about people of high stature in society (p. 25).

In the case of the civil rights movement in Florida, there are examples of ordinary people who contributed to the movement, and their stories can be told. Records and artifacts exist and can be included in the classroom in order to give voice to those from the local past.
There are quite a few people and events that were a part of the civil rights movement in this state. Along with Harry T. and Harriet V. Moore, there are: J. Milton Waldron, J. Douglas Wetmore, Alice Williams, Mary McLeod Bethune, Zora Neal Hurston, and Eartha White along with the other members of the Progressive Voters League. In addition, there are also the town of Eatonville, the Jacksonville bus boycotts, and the Ocoee riots to name a few. Yet, many students, teachers, and professors in Florida have not heard their names. Green (1999) wrote,

I couldn’t understand why I’d never heard of Harry T. Moore. I’m a native Floridian, I’ve been a history teacher, and I pride myself on paying attention to issues like this. At first, I wondered, “Is it because I am a white guy?”- thinking that perhaps only the white community was ignorant of the story. I learned very quickly that Florida’s black community was just as unaware of Harry T. Moore (p. x).

Teaching the narrative of Harry T. Moore and other Floridians in comparison or addition to those currently included in national civil rights movement narrative could rectify this situation.

Once Florida history teachers incorporate other civil rights leaders and workers in the appropriate units, two missions will be accomplished. First, the civil rights movement will be taught with multiple perspectives, and second, students will be able to judge for themselves the heroes of this time period. Derrick Alridge (2002) stated,

In order to move away from traditional approaches and to practice pedagogy that will liberate students from the master narrative of the movement, we must reconceptualize both the content and methods for teaching students… First, we need to rethink how we teach King and the CRM, given the limitations of the textbooks with which the teachers are provided (pp. 8-9).

Teaching history can be a difficult task in this accountability-based atmosphere. In many instances, the social studies are pushed aside to teach to the test. The reason inquiry is not used in every classroom is a topic for another study; however, Barton and Levstik (2004) believed one reason is that teachers do not want to stand out from other teachers. They wrote, “The first is that teachers hope to fit in: They want to be accepted by fellow teachers, administrators, and parents” (p. 254). Levy (2004) had another suggestion. He commented, “Simply stated, they want to
cover so much material in so little time that they fear giving control over to students lest the students not learn the main ‘lessons’” (p. 10). Regardless, many history teachers do a very good job with limited time and resources.

Teachers come to the profession with pre-conceived ideas, beliefs, and methods because they have all experienced life in a classroom for at least 16 years as students. Lortie (1975) labeled this the “apprenticeship of observation.” Not only do these teachers have pre-conceived notions, but they are also influenced by their families and friends with their ideas (Costigan & Crocco, 2004). Regardless of what they learn in methods classes in college, many teachers revert to a lecture method in the classroom. This study follows this idea of “apprenticeship of observation” to discover factors that may determine what is taught as well as why.

Additionally, high school teachers are not using critical thinking and inquiry skills in the classroom, nor are they teaching and discussing controversial topics. When social studies is defined, the terms “effective citizens” or “civic competence” are usually found, and a link is usually extended from active citizens to critical thinking. In essence, teaching students critical thinking skills will serve them later as adults (Barton & Levstik, 2004). Lee and Kolodner (2011) stated,

In general, the claim is that the more interpretive or creative thinkers are, the better citizens and more productive members of society they will be. Our goal, consistent with societal needs for citizens who are creative thinkers, is to find ways to promote the development of creative thinking skills. (p. 3)

So teaching students to inquire, analyze, and think in the process of analyzing documents in a social studies classroom is a useful tool for participating citizens.
Purpose of Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study is to describe the experience of history teachers in three counties in Florida when teaching the civil rights movement as well as to discover any factors that contribute to this experience. It is also to determine if the national story is the only narrative being used when teaching the civil rights movement. This project includes questions on content and methods used to teach this subject. People worked and died in Florida for equal rights for African Americans and the question is whether their narrative is being taught. This story is important for social justice, community history, state standards, making personal connections for students, and for teaching the history of Florida. In order to change the problem of absence of local historical figures in the curriculum for teaching about the civil rights movement, the experiences of teachers and their curriculums of the civil rights movement need to be reported, which is the purpose and rationale of this study.

Florida standards do call for the use of key people and events in Florida history but they are not specific. Florida Sunshine State Standards state,

SS.912.A.7.17- Examine key events and key people in Florida history as they relate to United States history. Examples may include, but are not limited to, selection of Central Florida as a location for Disney, growth of the citrus and cigar industries, construction of Interstates, Harry T. Moore, Pork Chop Gang, Claude Pepper, changes in the space program, use of DEET, Hurricane Andrew, the Election of 2000, migration and immigration, Sunbelt state” (floridastandards.org).

Local events and people are suggested, but Harry T. Moore is the only Florida civil rights activist noted. Since central Florida does have quite a few people who were active participants and since many protests occurred here as well during the civil rights movement, this study describes which specific people are being included and why.

The second concern is that teachers tend to rely on only a single textbook. Eamon (2006) stated,
The traditional canon of history instruction has been the textbook. Texts traditionally offered distilled narratives, often highlighting individual achievements in exploration, war, or politics. While history texts could convey much information in a concise and organized format, its shortcomings were realized early on. (p. 299)

Using only a single textbook risks encouraging students’ memorization of dates and places and often teaches history from only one perspective. It prevents students from analyzing multiple perspectives that are available and denies them the opportunity of learning historical thinking.

The dispute over ways in which teaching occurs in a classroom is a critical topic in education today, with college educators and teachers blaming each other. Barton and Levstik (2004) stated,

No one likes the way history is taught. Conservatives think it’s too multicultural, and multiculturalists think it is too conservative. Politicians say it doesn’t promote patriotism and social reformers say it doesn’t promote critical reflection. Advocates of social studies fret that history receives too much emphasis, and history specialists fret that it doesn’t receive enough. Lawmakers argue schools should teach to the test, and schools argue they should teach the way they think best. Researchers criticize teachers for not using primary sources, teachers criticize students for not wanting to learn, and students criticize textbooks for being deadly boring. What a mess. (p. 1)

The subject of teaching history is a contentious one for educators, policy makers, and scholars, with most in agreement that there is a problem.

One way to rectify the problems with teaching history is to use local or community history to engage students. This use provides critical reflections, primary source documents, and the connection that eliminates the deadly boring factor. Stevens (2001) stated,

Local history offers a way out of some of these problems. It is the lifeblood of a community, imbued with traditions, beliefs, social and economic forces, religions, and ethnicities that are stitched together like a quilt. And like a quilt, it provides a pattern that has meaning. It also offers a multiperspective approach to the understanding of history. (p. xi)

The premise of this study is to determine what type of history is being taught while teaching the civil rights and the hope to bring to Central Florida the idea that the methods on teaching history and the content used need to change.
Research Questions

In this study, this researcher describes both the content taught about the civil rights movement and the methods used to teach that content. The primary research questions for this study are:

- How is the civil rights movement being taught in Florida?
- What is the lived experience of Central Florida history teachers related to their teaching of civil rights history?
- What people, places, and events are taught during the unit in the civil rights movement?
- What methods are being used?
- Is the teaching method lecturing or student centered?
- Are primary sources used?
- What factors, if any, contribute to what is being taught?

Definition of Terms

Dewey (1910) in How We Think defines critical thinking in this manner

To turn the thing over in the mind, to reflect, means to hunt for additional evidence, for new data, that will develop the suggestion, and will either, as we say, bear it out or else make obvious its absurdity and irrelevance. (p. 26)

For this paper, the term critical thinking means engaging in a process of raising questions and making connections backed by solid evidence to support a response. It is true reflection as offered by Dewey. Historical thinking means looking at documents like a historian and evaluating evidence and multiple perspectives in the context of the time period. Primary sources are first-hand accounts of an era. They are letters, diaries, newspapers, government records, artifacts, and historic sites. Inquiry is an active process that engages students in learning. The Schreyer Institute for Teaching Excellence at Penn State University defines this process,
“Inquiry-based learning is a research-based strategy that actively involves students in the exploration of the content, issues, and questions surrounding a curricular area or concept” (Lane, 2007, p. 1). This is the definition of inquiry that will be used. *Local history* is the history of a particular area which could be one or more communities. And lastly, the *civil rights movement* is the process that began after Reconstruction and continues today that strives for equality for African Americans politically, socially and economically.

**Rationale**

The objective of this study is to describe the experiences that teachers in Central Florida have in their classrooms when teaching the civil rights movement:

- content and curriculums
- presence of “ordinary” voices
- presentation of local history
- use of inquiry
- identification of factors that contribute to this experience

Many students dislike history because they find it to be dull and boring. Clarke and Lee (2004) stated, “Through collaboration and interaction with the community, students and teachers develop relationships that allow them to answer questions about their past” (p. 87). Teaching local history is a way to help students make personal connections to the past. Although there are theoretical pieces on teaching the civil rights movement, few empirical studies have been conducted, which indicates a void in the research. This study should also benefit both teachers and students by focusing teachers’ attention on the content and methods they are using to teach the civil rights movement. Therefore, the rationale for this study is the need for personal
connections to engage students in history, the gap in the research in history education, and the advantages for students and teachers in both history and education.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The segregation which kills the vitality of history is divorced from present modes and concerns of social life. The past, just as past, is no longer our affair. If it were wholly gone and done with, there would be only one reasonable attitude toward it. Let the dead bury their dead. But knowledge of the past is the key to understanding the present. . . The true starting point of history is always some present situation with its problems (John Dewey: The Middle Works, 1899-1924, pp. 221-222).

Introduction

One’s views of teaching are gathered from many different perspectives. Teachers’ beliefs stem from their philosophies of teaching and pedagogical theories, content knowledge, the history of the subject, the apprenticeship of observation, and the actual realities of classroom life. Yilmaz (2009) stated, “Any given vision of history education in secondary and high schools [is] supposed to draw on the philosophy of history, different learning theories, the conceptual and empirical works on history education, and the realities of actual social studies or history classrooms” (p 37). Social studies teachers’ use of content in their classrooms is based on many different factors as stated above. This use of content is also filled with questions such as What do I know? What are the state standards? How do my students learn? How much time do I have? What sources do I have and where do I find these sources? The answers to these questions may form the basis for how a subject is taught, instead of the constructs of student-centered learning, inquiry, and the connections students can make with local history.

Some educators today approach the teaching of history as if they are schooling students to be historians. Therefore their teaching is based on analyzing evidence from the past. Monte-Santo (2008) wrote, “I approach history as evidence-based interpretation in which inquiry is
central. Inquiry involves working with and interrogating historical documents in an effort to understand and explain the past” (p. 1046). Other educators agree. According to Dutt-Doner, Cook-Cottone, and Allen (2007), “Historians and history teachers describe history as an interpretive, constructive, analytic, and dialogic process—a discipline concerned with both knowledge of the past and acts of constructing the knowledge” (p. 1).

History is much more than names and dates. History is made up of layers of human experiences that gain meaning through historians’ ability to connect the dots. There really is no meaning in the past without historical interpretation, because names and dates need to be connected and seen from the perspective of those in the past. History is not a fixed belief. It changes through time as new perceptions are uncovered, allowing for a multiplicity of viewpoints (Yilmaz, 2009). Using local history, student-centered learning, primary and secondary sources and items from the public domain can help students learn to see history through their own eyes. It can also help them connect the dots and view multiple perspectives.

The use of primary sources by social studies teachers requires content knowledge and a good deal of time researching multiple sources. There is much discussion on the link between content knowledge and classroom practice (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Monte-Santo, 2008; Van Sledright, 1993). A review of the literature on teaching the civil rights movement should include the history of the civil rights movement, the topic of historical thinking along with a rationale for student-centered learning, the research on using local history, and a summation/discussion of how the civil rights movement is being taught in classrooms today (see Figure 1). In this literature review, I cover the research and scholarship on teaching social studies and history with primary sources as well as the research on local history in the classroom. A review of the literature shows that although qualitative studies have been done on teaching history and primary
The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2010) defined social studies as:

the integrated study of the social studies and humanities to promote civic competence. Within the school program, social studies provides coordinated, systemic 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. The primary purpose of social studies is to help young people make informed decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world (p. 9).

So, the teaching of social studies is the bridging of many disciplines to teach students critical thinking skills that they can use for the rest of their lives. Teaching history then must be seen
the broader picture of social studies and as a representative of one subject from this discipline (Yilmaz, 2009).

Civil Rights History

The civil rights movement was originally defined as taking place during the time period between the 1950s and 1970s, when national protests transpired on behalf of African Americans for equal rights in the South. This movement started with the 1955 bus boycott and ended with the campaign for voting rights in Selma, Alabama, in 1965 (Aldrich, 2011). However, scholars pinpoint the start of the civil rights movement at different times. Cashman (1991) wrote,

"What is meant by civil rights? For the generations who witnessed the apogee of the drama in the Second Reconstruction of the 1950s and 1960s, civil rights had a very precise meaning: they were political, social, and economic rights of African-American citizens to vote and to enjoy equality of opportunity in education, employment, and housing. This also entailed free access to places of public accommodation such as parks, bars, cafes and restaurants and public transport. The essential means of this loose coalition we call the civil rights movement to address its ends were litigation and demonstration whether by rallies and marches, economic boycotts, or debates in the mass media. (p. 4)

This would, therefore, be the most commonly accepted starting point for the movement, and the definition notes that the movement was created so African Americans could enjoy the same political, economic, and social rights accorded to Whites.

Today, many scholars differ as to the timing of the start of the movement. Revisionist historians of the civil rights movement no longer believe it occurred only during the 1950s and 1960s in the South. Aldrich (2011) pointed out that previous historians assigned the dates differently: Hall and Sugrue to the 1920s and 1930s, Aldridge and Fairclough all the way back to the 1800s. Although many agree that it occurred across the entire country and still exists today, Alridge (2002) disagreed:
I differ from other revisionist scholars in that I argue that the long civil rights era ended during the decade following the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. After 1965 Black Americans could vote throughout the nation and were no longer subject to Jim Crow segregation. Racial discrimination, although still significant, diminished. The quest for the basic rights and dignities of American citizens should be distinguished from the types of ethnic political issues that followed in the wake of the civil rights revolution. (pp. xii-xiv).

The timing of the civil rights movement depends upon the historian’s strict definition of the movement. To Aldridge, it was finished in 1976, once Blacks could actually vote in every state. To others, it is ongoing because racial prejudice still exists today.

Regardless of the length of the movement, many students in this country know very little about any of the specific individuals involved in the civil rights movement except for Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks (Aldridge, 2002; Dunn, 2005; Mormino, 2003). Considering that the movement is one of the key events in U.S. history in the twentieth century, this is unacceptable. Dunn (2005) stated, “The civil rights movement is the most important historical event of the last fifty years, and it remains central to contemporary society” (p. 455). Action to correct this problem is long overdue.

In terms of the historiography of the civil rights movement, Lawson (1991) divided the writings into sections based on time periods. In the 1960s and 1970s, scholars wrote of the national story. In the 1970s and 1980s, historians believed the story should focus on local communities, and recently, many sought to tie the local to the national. Lawson (1991) noted, “In recent years, many researchers have begun pursuing a more interactive model, recognizing the need to connect the local with the national, the social with the political” (p. 457). If history teachers are teaching the national story then they are following historiographers of the 1960s.

Not only is the narrative being taught today in history classes with only two key players, it is also only a story of glory and heroes which can be typical of American history textbooks
today. One professor, Charles Payne (2004), offers the following as the typical narrative of the civil rights movement:

Traditionally, relationships between the races in the South were oppressive. In 1954, the Supreme Court decided this was wrong. Inspired by the court, courageous Americans, Black and White, took to protest in the streets, in the form of sit-ins, bus boycotts, and freedom rides. The protest movement, led by the brilliant and eloquent Dr. Martin Luther King, aided by a sympathetic federal government, most notably the Kennedy brothers and a born-again Lyndon Johnson, [was] able to make America understand racial discrimination was a moral issue. Once Americans understood that discrimination was wrong, they quickly moved to remove racial prejudice and discrimination from American life as evidenced by the Civil Rights Act of 1964-65. Dr. King was tragically slain in 1968. Fortunately, by this time the country had been changed for the better in some fundamental ways. The Movement was a remarkable victory for all Americans. By the 1970s, southern states where Blacks could not have voted were sending African Americans to Congress. Inexplicably, just as civil rights victories were piling up, many Black Americans, under the banner of Black power, turned their backs on American society (p. 69).

This paragraph, meant to be used as a starting point for teaching the civil rights movement, is probably what most students believe today. It is an example of the hero story and contains a simplistic view showing only one perspective of the movement for civil rights.

And while historians are still debating the length, breadth, and definition of the civil rights movement, Florida is still missing from most accounts. Mormino (2003) asked, “Just where does Florida belong? Is it the southernmost American state, or is it the northernmost colony of the Caribbean?” (p. 133). Geographically and politically, Florida is a southern state that seceded from the Union with the other states of the South during the Civil War. Referring to Florida, Rabby (1999) wrote, “Its culture, politics, and above all, race relations, shared striking similarities with the rest of the former Confederacy” (p. 1). There are more than just striking similarities between Florida and the rest of the South, yet its civil rights history is not found in textbooks or American history classrooms even in the state in which it happened. Across the United States, students know the narrative of the bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama, but what about the bus boycott in Jacksonville, Florida?
Historical Inquiry

The debate over how history should be taught—through lectures, problem-solving, critical thinking skills, multiple perspectives, historic empathy, or a combination of all of these—is not new. The discussion on critical thinking among educators has its roots in the Committee of Seven, which was formed in 1896 by the American Historical Association on behalf of the National Education Association (Evans, 2004). It continued with Harold Rugg in 1921 with his call for a problem-centered social studies curriculum, John Dewey who believed that children were active beings who learned through problem-solving activities, and Fannie Shaftel who emphasized the power of role-playing in the classroom in the 1940s and 1950. Harold Berlak and the Metropolitan St. Louis Project in the 1950s and the 1960s promoted thinking skills such as value analysis, listening, and inferential thinking, while Allan Knowslar emphasized inquiry at the beginning of the new social studies movement in the 1960s and 70s. Edwin Fenton from Carnegie Institute of Technology called for the use of primary source documents in his classes for pre-service teachers in the 1960s, and Donald Oliver, Fred Newmann, and James Shaver, education scholars from Harvard, advocated and tested an inquiry-based approach to social studies in the 1970s (Stern, 2010). This discussion has been occurring for more than a century, but there are still not student-centered, inquiry-oriented curriculums that incorporate the use of primary source documents in every social studies class in the United States.

Rationale for Student-Centered Learning

Most students dislike history. They find it to be boring and irrelevant and a subject in which they cannot make personal connections (Chiodo & Byford, 2004; Doppen, 2002; Dutt-Doner et al., 2007; Loewen, 2007; Wineburg, 2001). Using active student participation with
primary sources, inquiry, and multiple perspectives is one way to facilitate the making of connections. Dutt-Doner et al. (2007) argued the following:

Primary source document analysis offers students an opportunity to connect to history in a more personal, human, and active manner. That is, the student becomes the historian, the person who seeks out and discovers the truth. Now, for the student, it becomes a journey of personal discovery as opposed to the story of someone else’s journey of discovery. (p. 2)

The point is that once students are active, they can usually become engaged and connected to the material being presented. Historical inquiry also allows students to make their own judgments about the role of people and events in the civil rights movement and a chance to develop critical thinking skills (Abbott & Greyson, 2011; Dutt-Doner et al., 2007; Gradwell, 2010; Shedd, 2007; Shorr, 1985).

The use of primary sources has been advocated and discussed by historians, educators, and policy makers from around the world (Barton and Levstik, 2004; Dutt-Doner et al., 2007; Eamon, 2006; Ensminger & Fry, 2012; Gradwell, 2010; Levy, 2004). The Library of Congress now has millions of online documents originally housed in their archives for use by the public. It also offers a website for teachers with themed primary source sets and lesson plans to encourage the use of primary sources (http://loc.gov/teachers). The Library of Congress also offers grants to schools and universities to train teachers and promote the use of primary sources. Michael Eamon (2006) from the Library and Archives of Canada commented,

Using primary sources in the teaching of history transcends the rote learning of facts and figures. It encourages critical thinking skills, introducing students to issues of context, selection and bias, to the nature of collective memory and to other like aspects in the construction of history. (p. 297)

Student-centered learning, therefore, can engage students in a subject in which they originally had no interest.
NCSS also supports the use of inquiry. In its *National Curriculum for Social Studies*, Standard 2 (Time, Continuity, and Change), they stated,

High school students use historical methods of inquiry to engage in the examination of more sophisticated sources. They develop the skills needed to locate and analyze multiple sources, and to evaluate the historical accounts made by others. They build and defend interpretations that reconstruct the past, and draw on their knowledge of history to make informed decisions and decisions in the present (p.15).

Teaching inquiry and critical thinking gives students a set of skills they can use throughout their lives, thus promoting students to become life-long learners as opposed to mere memorizers of dates and names for a test that would soon be forgotten.

Certain time periods offer more perspectives than others when using primary sources, which are obviously based upon availability. We do not have primary sources from cavemen because they couldn’t write, but there have been drawings found in caves. The 1960s, only one decade of the civil rights movement, is an era from which there are quite a few sources. Levy (2004) wrote,

One final reason for using primary sources in classes on the 1960s is that they have the potential to produce a broader, more balanced and complex sense of the decade than is obtained customarily from either textbooks or popular culture. (p.10)

The lack of availability of primary sources from the civil rights era is not an issue.

Researchers are investigating how and why primary sources and inquiry are being used in classrooms throughout the world. In an investigative case study, Gradwell (2010) followed one section of eighth graders and its third year social studies teacher, Ms. Cooper, in a suburban school outside a large city in western New York. These students were mostly white, from lower and middle classes with skills ranging from gifted to learning disabled. This study also tested Barton and Levstik’s (2004) framework or approaches for teaching history: identification, analysis, moral responses, and exhibition. Gradwell found this framework and Cooper’s teaching to be successful because Cooper possessed history expertise and pedagogical skills. This teacher
also had a guiding goal for why she used primary sources. One of these goals was to have students defend their ideas garnered from the use of primary sources. The defense of the students’ ideas and arguments taught the students a useful life skill (Gradwell, 2010).

Chiodo and Byford (2004) researched students’ attitudes on social studies. In this phenomenological study, two groups of 8th- and 11th-grade students were studied from four classes in two schools, for a total of 48 students. These participants were then interviewed regarding their perceptions of social studies. Two major themes emerged. The first was that “active involvement and teacher enthusiasm” caused the students to think about the subject of social studies in a positive light. The second was that students’ views of social studies were based on their “perceived utilitarian value” of the subject. Students also expressed their appreciation for active participation in the learning process. Both grades spoke of the need for a variety of teaching methods to be used for social studies to combat boredom. This research is research for the field of social studies education because it shows how teachers can affect their students just by being enthusiastic. Utilitarian value is also something teachers can use to their advantage. Chiodo and Byford (2004) stated,

Based on the interviews, students perceived a utilitarian value for social studies. While students did not necessarily believe that social studies was their favorite choice among classes, students did believe social studies was needed in school curriculum. Factors such as teacher enthusiasm, previous experiences, technology and content methodology were all influential in the development of student choices. (p. 22)

All classes of participants were from the same school system, which the researchers noted could have affected the reliability of this study.

In 2007, Dutt-Doner and colleagues studied seventy 5th and 7th graders’ abilities to analyze multiple primary source documents. Their research questions revolved around the skills needed to analyze document-based questions. Over a two-week period, a media specialist walked the students through an analysis of documents pertaining to the earthquake of 1906 in San
Francisco. Each day the students received one document to analyze. The researchers observed and noted this process. Then, using a set of rubrics, the researchers scored each analysis, as well as the final multiple-document analysis. Seventy-five percent of the participants in this study were seventh-grade students who showed basic-level processing skills. However, they did not score as well on background knowledge or knowledge of the earthquake, as many did not answer these questions. Also, although the students could analyze a document, they could not necessarily put it in historical context.

Research is also being done outside the United States on using primary sources. Ormond (2011) surveyed high school and college students on their views of using a “Three Level Guide.” This guide, divided into 3 levels, is based on scaffolding questions at increasing levels of difficulty written by the teacher to aid in the interpretation of a visual. There was a positive response from students when using this method. Ormond stated (2011), “The Three-Level Strategy guide facilitates the intersection of the contextual knowledge of student and teacher with the visual evidence inherent in a historical image” (p. 188). In this study then, the use of documents was successful in conjunction with scaffolding directions and questions from the teacher. This finding emphasizes the guiding role of the teacher when using primary sources.

In 2008, Monte-Santo researched historical writing instruction. A mixed-methods case study was done comparing two different teachers with different teaching strategies through observations, feedback, interviews, and classroom artifacts. One class each of two urban high school teachers with backgrounds in history was chosen. One teacher, Ms. Bobeck, had a Bachelor of Arts in history while the other, Mr. Rossi, had a doctorate in history, and both wanted to improve the writing skills of their students. Ms. Bobeck taught using evidence based-interpretation, multiple perspectives, and frequent feedback. Mr. Rossi used lecture and
emphasized covering a topic and memorization to prepare his students for an U.S. Advanced Placement history exam. The first teacher’s students showed much more improvement than the second. Monte-Santo states,

In comparison to Bobeck’s students, Rossi’s students started off the year with higher scores but ended with slightly lower scores. Overall 81% of Bobeck’s students improved in argumentation and 75% improved in historical reasoning, whereas 8% of Rossi’s students improved in both areas (p.1067).

This case study shows a link then, between teaching methods, and student achievement when writing historical essays. However, questions may be raised on the reliability of these results because the classes were not identical and the questions used for the pre and post-tests were different.

History today is still largely taught through lecture and the use of a single textbook (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Loewen, 2007; Monte-Santo, 2008). This use of a single perspective leads students to believe that the past is a set timeline of names and dates. Fertig (2008) wrote,

Teaching young learners that understanding history requires only the memorization of acts and predetermined meanings presents the past as a fixed sequence of inevitable events that eliminates any need for interpreting its meaning as problematic, contingent, and subject to multiple perspectives. According to an inevitabilist conception of history, no event in the past could have turned out differently. (p. 147)

The use of a single textbook or perspective to teach history promotes the idea that history is set in stone and not open for discussion. This overly simplistic version provides patriotism, but it overlooks very important controversy. History is a narrative. It is a story with blemishes and warts, which may be viewed differently by each who examines it. And this simplistic, single vision of history taught in secondary classrooms today may be the only history students ever learn. In Lies My Teacher Told Me (2007), Loewen argued,

We’ve got to do better. Five-sixths of all Americans never take a course in American history beyond high school. What our citizens ‘learn’ in high school forms much of what they know about the past…. Not understanding their past renders many Americans incapable of thinking effectively about our present and future. (pp. 8-9)
So in order to develop future citizens, we must teach them history through the use of multiple perspectives and sources that not only engage students but teach critical thinking skills and historic empathy.

Not every educator is sold on the use of primary sources. Without proper training of students and teachers, proper positioning may not occur. For Eamon (2006), “The most significant problem with the use of pre-packaged selections of documents for the effective teaching of history, however, is that they fail to create the heuristic experience of archival research” (p. 303). He also believed that copied documents may lose some of their authenticity. Barton and Levstik (2004) also had concerns with history teachers’ knowledge and understanding of interpreting primary source documents, saying “teachers typically have little acquaintance with such disciplinary concerns as the context, authorship, and perspective of historical documents” (p. 246). So, it is not the use of primary sources that is the issue but the manner in which they are used in a classroom. Even when instructors ask questions about sources or attempt to use the model of proper document reading, they do not connect the dots as historians do. Again, it is the way sources are used, not the use of them, that is being questioned.

Using primary sources, as historians do, enables students to learn to analyze and question and put into context a specific document or artifact. It also offers them multiple perspectives so they see that history is not concrete. These skills that students can be taught are examples of critical and/or historic thinking. Figure 2 shows the methods available for teaching history that allow for critical thinking.
In terms of historical research, most writing is theoretical. However, there are a few empirical studies to be found. In a national study in the 1990s conducted by Rosenzweig and Thelen (1998) at Indiana University, 808 people were studied according to how they connected to the past. It was a mixed-mode study which started with a survey and was followed by 1500 interviews in the field. According to Rosenzweig and Thelen, the Americans who participated in this study, “refute the idea that Americans don’t care about the past” (p. 176). They engage in hobbies connected to the past, appreciate their heritage and family’s history, and enjoy museums. The connections they were missing could have been found in history classrooms.

In 2004, Jakubowski and Burman piloted a case study at a small liberal arts college on community-based learning. After listening to professionals from the community discuss their projects, students were given a choice as to which projects they wanted to participate in. Starting
with the first day of class, students kept reflections of their ideas, work, and preparation. These journals became a good source of data for this study. These researchers found that students enjoyed the move from the classroom to the community and appreciated the connections this project afforded. One student wrote,

   I believe that has solidified my decision to become a teacher in a non-affluent school. I also feel that it has encouraged me to do community development in the future. My placement was a great learning experience for me personally and academically. It has opened my eyes to a whole new world of community” (p. 172).

   Two distinct themes from this project were found. The researchers state, “The first is that the students seem to change from being ‘involved’ to ‘involving’—permitting their own example to serve as a model for others” (p. 173). The second theme was that students adapted and were responsive when faced with unpredictable events that occurred, such as one member of a community project leaving mid-course who was replaced by another with different objectives. This community-based course had a positive impact on students learning through the community.

   The Montana Heritage Project is another example of students exploring their community and its place in the world by “doing” history. Since 1995, students in Montana have conducted research in their community by answering questions such as what has changed in our community and what has stayed the same? Through primary and secondary sources such as photographs or newspaper clippings and information in local archives, students answer their own research questions. Upon completion of these research projects, the students presented their projects and results to the community, offering a link between students and the community members. Mitchell (2006) noted that “places are alive only when their stories are kept alive. By bringing young people into the stories of Montana’s past, the Montana Heritage Project develops
academic skills while linking the generations” (p. 67). These students were engaged by learning about their community while they built academic skills such as writing.

A teacher in Los Angeles has used local history to combat apathy amongst his students through an elective course entitled the History of Boyle Heights, which is a community in East Los Angeles. Students study the history of their community and its conjunction to the rest of Los Angeles, the state of California, and the rest of the world. Shorr (1985) wrote,

I have found that community history breaks down student indifference. It helps students understand their neighborhood and themselves and gives new meaning to the word “roots.” Moreover, community history, unlike a project on presidential administrations, offers students the opportunity of using a variety of research methods as they investigate their subject. (p. 489)

In this course students learned research and writing skills through the use of primary and secondary sources.

At Indiana University Southeast in 1998, one professor started the Floyd County Oral History Project to engage students in local history in two American history courses. First the students learned how to conduct oral history interviews. Then two-person interviewing teams were formed. Along with transcribing the interviews, a presentation was put together to share with the class, linking what each team found to historical themes. And finally, each student had to write a reflective essay. These students completed ninety interviews with veterans of the Korean War and Second World War that were edited and placed in the school and county libraries. Not only did students learn about local community history, but they preserved that history as well. Crothers (2002) commented,

The interviews enable students to place individual experiences within a historical context, to make connections between their own community and regional, national, and international events. In the process, students develop a keen appreciation of the importance of studying history and of ways their own community was shaped by historical events they might hitherto have considered distant and insignificant. (p. 1444)
Clarke and Lee (2004) at Georgia State University offered a local history course, exploring the history of Cherokee County. Students in this class focused on developing a digital version of a survey of historic properties in Cherokee County that had been completed in 1988. Then, these students chose a site and, using historical questioning, conducted further research on that site. From their individual research, the students wrote narratives that were added to the original survey. Students and teachers made personal connections with the community from this project. Clarke and Lee (2004) commented, “The project aims to demonstrate how current practices in the teaching and learning of history can be altered by applying the unique and dynamic characteristics of the Web to local historical education and research” (p. 87). This is another example of the benefits of using community history in the classroom.

Students in other countries are using local history to understand their past. In Hertfordshire, England, students conducted interviews with local members of the community on their experiences in World War II. These interviews were used to start a website of local history, *Hemels at War* (www.hemelatwar.org). Abbott and Grayson (2011) commented, “in providing real purpose (the preservation of memory on a website) for a real audience (the local community) such a project can offer an incentive for involvement to those who might find school history dull” (p. 11). Not only did this type of project help students make a personal connection to their community, but it offered a wide range of opportunities for students with varied learning abilities.

Teaching the Civil Rights Movement

Limited research exists on teaching the civil rights movement, although there are a few journal articles, as well as books, for teachers with strategies and lesson plans. One book, *Teaching the American Civil Rights Movement: Freedom’s Bitter Song* (Armstrong, Edwards,
Roberson, & Williams, 2002), started with a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) to teach the history of the southern civil rights movement at the W.E.B. Du Bois Institute for African-American Research at Harvard. After the five summer seminars at the W.E.B. Du Bois Institute held for college teachers from around the country, teachers who attended this program created a book for different disciplines and methods that not only incorporates new scholarship but offers comparative narratives and teaching tools as well. With topics ranging from legacies of the civil rights movement to personal oral histories to women and the freedom struggle to teaching Black Nationalism, the movement is covered from multiple perspectives using various methods.

Another resource guide for teachers is *Putting the Movement Back into Civil Rights Teaching* (Menkart, Murray, & View, 2004). This book offers reflections on teaching the movement, along with lesson plans and suggested sources on topics such as citizenship and self-determination, education, economic justice, and culture. In the foreword, U.S. congressman from Georgia and notable civil rights leader John Lewis wrote,

All of us—Black, White, Latino, Asian, and Native American—must pull together for the common good. This is our American mission. This is our charge, to build what I call the Beloved Community, a nation at peace with itself, one nation, one people, one house, and one family. This is, above all, the greatest lesson of the Civil Rights Movement, that our work is not done until our collective dreams of freedom, equality and justice are made real for every life in this country (p. xiii).

The voices of many disenfranchised people are heard through these curriculums along with those of Ida B. Wells and the Black Panther Movement. The material in this guide was intended to fill in gaps in the teaching of the civil rights movement by looking at it through six, often unused lenses: women, youth, organizing, culture, institutional racism, and the interconnectedness of social movements. And although the book does this with excellent primary and secondary sources to encourage critical thinking and inquiry, it is still missing pieces of the
story which would have been seen through the eyes of a Harry T. Moore. It is more of a text on civil and social justice for all than the history of the American civil rights movement.

The American History Series offers *The Civil Rights Movement: Opposing Viewpoints* (Dudley, 1996). In this book, writings and speeches are offered on topics in African American history. For each point there is a counterpoint. There are writings from W. E. B. Du Bois, Booker T. Washington, Malcolm X, Martin Luther King, Jr., James Weldon Johnson, and Presidents Kennedy and Johnson that would offer students multiple perspectives of this history of the civil rights movement.

The Alabama Department of Archives and History (2001) has a teaching unit on the civil rights movement that incorporates the use of primary sources. It is part of a series of ten unit plans designed for the teaching of Alabama state history. The civil rights unit includes six lesson plans on topics from the Montgomery bus boycott to the march from Selma to Montgomery. The Montgomery boycott lesson plan calls for the use of seven documents. They range from the codes from the city of Montgomery to newspaper articles to a telegram from a judge. Scaffolding questions, activities, and objectives are also included. This is one state offering a curriculum to teach its civil rights history. However, although these events did occur in Alabama and are Alabama’s history, they are the same events taught throughout the country, because these occurrences received nationwide media coverage and are now part of the American civil rights narrative. The events in this unit plan, then, are not new, but their use of multiple perspectives and analysis follows the path of those using inquiry skills.

Levy (2004) also advocated the use of primary sources in his teaching of a course on the 1960s. In a unit on Black Power and White Backlash, he offers students multiple perspectives through a speech from Malcolm X, the “Ten Point Program” of the Black Panthers, a speech
from Spiro Agnew, and an excerpt from the Kerner Commission report. Students are also shown the PBS documentary, *Eyes on the Prize*. Analyzing these documents offers students opposing views on a controversial subject, allowing them to form their own interpretations and opinions.

The Office of Education (DHEW) in Washington, D. C. sponsored the writing of a curriculum guide for high school called “Voices of Protest” that offered writings and speeches from the Industrial Revolution as seen through the eyes of protest groups such as farmers and the Muckrakers. The original did not include the voices of any African Americans. In 1969, a unit was added that included W. E. B. Du Bois and Booker T. Washington, two early leaders of the civil rights movement. In this new unit, multiple sources are used, from Du Bois and Washington, along with five or six other authors. One specific objective indicates that their purpose is “to develop habits of critical thinking and questioning in students as they read history” (Barnes, 1969, p. 9).

This literature search on research in both history and social studies using primary sources and inquiry in the classroom supports the premise that the use of these pedagogical methods increases student understanding and engagement. When primary sources, multiple perspectives, and inquiry increases are used, students learn to think, analyze, and inquire. Articles have been written on teaching the civil rights movement, but no quantitative or qualitative data have been found. This is especially true for teaching the civil rights movement in Florida. Therefore, this research will expand the focus of teaching with primary sources and also include the civil rights movement in terms of what content and methods are being taught in central Florida.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This is a phenomenological study, the purpose of which was to describe the experiences of central Florida high school teachers in terms of the content and methods they use to teach the civil rights movement. The research design was composed of a survey and follow-up interviews. The survey was administered first to sample a larger number of teachers and also to determine what factors, if any, contributed to this experience. From this sample, participants were asked to participate in a 30 minute personal interview for a more in-depth conversation. Questions for the interview were built from responses to the surveys. This, then, produced a multi-layered collection of data that includes descriptive statistics from the surveys and qualitative data from the interviews.

Research Questions

- What is the lived experience of Central Florida history teachers related to their teaching of civil rights history?
- What content is being used when teaching the civil rights movement?
- When teaching the civil rights unit is it a top-down, national story?
- Are the stories of Floridians and ordinary people included in the civil rights unit plan?
- What factors contribute to the teaching of the civil rights movement?
- What methods are being used to teach the civil rights movement?
• Are primary sources being used to teach the civil rights movement?
• When teaching the civil rights unit, is it student-centered learning?
• When teaching the civil rights unit, is historical inquiry being included?

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research can be used to tell people’s stories. It is a research method focusing on words instead of numbers and it can incorporate the narratives of ordinary people. According to Creswell (2007), “The logic that the qualitative researcher follows is inductive, from the ground up, rather than handed down entirely from a theory or from the perspectives of the inquirer” (p. 19). Researchers frame their studies according to their views.

This study was based on the educational theory of social constructivism, in which researchers seek understanding of the world in which they live (Creswell, 2007). Social constructivism is built on the theory that students learn actively and in context with the world around them, and the focus needs to be on the student thinking about learning (Powell & Kalina, 2009). This theory has its roots in John Dewey and Lev Vygotsky and their ideas on constructivism. According to Kim (2001), “Social constructivists see as crucial, both the context in which learning occurs and the social contexts that learners bring to their learning environment” (p. 3). This study was qualitative as it described the experiences of classroom teachers and how and why they teach the civil rights movement. It also included five features of qualitative research as described by Bogdan and Biklen (2006):

• Naturalistic: to be conducted in a naturalistic setting
• Descriptive Data: contain descriptive data
• Concern with Process: Researcher must be concerned with the process
• Inductive: analyze data inductively
• Meaning: emphasizing participant perspectives

Phenomenology

Phenomenological research describes an experience or phenomenon in which the researcher finds a personal experience. Moustakas (1994) stated, “In phenomenological research, the question grows out of an intense interest in a particular problem or topic. The researcher’s excitement and curiosity inspire the search. Personal history brings the core of the problem into focus” (p.104). That is the case for this project, as the researcher is a history major with an emphasis on American history and an educator interested in what is happening in the classroom.

Surveys

Surveys are reliable and efficient ways to collect data on peoples’ habits and opinions. A relatively large number of surveys can be conducted in a short amount of time. From these samples, estimates can then be formed on a larger population (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Surveys can be the starting point for a qualitative research study and can serve as the basis for interviews to be conducted. They are also a good source for descriptive statistics and general demographics of those surveyed. This study started with a thirty-two question survey on the content and methods being used to teach the civil rights movement in Florida along with demographics of those who participated. Twenty-six questions were asked on content and teaching methods, and there were six demographic questions.
Participants/Sampling Strategies

Purposeful sampling was used. Participants were selected according to which ones had experienced the phenomenon of teaching the civil rights movement in Florida (Creswell, 2007). This sample can also be considered convenience sampling because of the location of the participants. The sampling of teachers was also determined by their proximity to the Moore Cultural Center, and their proximity to the researcher was an added benefit. The sample size for the surveys was 318 high school social studies teachers.

The population for this study was high school teachers in three counties in Florida. Therefore, a thirty-two question survey was administered to 318 social science high school teachers. A survey was used initially to target a larger audience. Questions were asked as to the specific content and methods being used by these participants in teaching the civil rights movement today. There were questions pertaining to topics, events, and people along with the type of materials being used. For example: were they using textbooks, primary sources, multiple perspectives, etc.? Demographic questions were also asked regarding age, gender, years of teaching, section of country in which they were educated, and type of American history class taught: AP, standard, ELL, etc. (See Appendix A.) Quantitative statistics were reported as far as which group said what, and these responses can also be sorted by topic as well.

Data Collection/Instrumentation/Research Protocols

The purpose of the survey was to find a starting point for discussing teaching the civil rights movement and to target a larger audience. Surveys were sent by email using the four-contact method. Letters were sent to the participants by email describing the study along with an explanation of research and a link to the survey site which was connected to Qualtrics, a software product for conducting and analyzing survey results purchased for use at this university. This
communication was repeated three times in each county for a total of four contacts for each member of the sample (Dillman et al., 2009). The responses of the survey were then used to guide the interview questions. During data collection from the surveys, participants were asked to volunteer for a personal interview. Eight respondents were interviewed; according to Creswell (2009), three to ten interviews is the average for phenomenological studies. During the personal interviews, approximately 25 additional questions were asked for a more in depth perspective on teaching the civil rights movement. The participants were asked to further describe the content and methods used in their classrooms and the reasons behind both. Each interview had a list of basic questions and additional questions were added based on the survey results (Creswell, 2007). This then, is a multi-layered approach, combining quantitative survey data and qualitative interview data as two sides to triangulate findings.

As previously stated, an initial survey was used to sample a larger number of teachers on their thoughts regarding teaching the civil rights movement. The survey consisted of 32 questions pertaining to the content and methods used in the teaching of the civil rights movement. A Likert scale from 0 to 5 was used for the survey (0=Never, 1=Very Unlikely, 3=Somewhat Unlikely, 4=Somewhat Likely, and 5=Very Likely). The six demographic questions delved into age, sex, years of teaching, section of country in which the teachers were educated, and the type of American history class being taught: AP, standard, ELL, etc. A section for comments and additional information was also included. Based on the survey results, a phenomenological study was administered to those teachers who agreed to participate in a 30-minute interview. This type of study was chosen because of the history and experiences of the researcher.
This study was approved by the Internal Review Board (IRB) of this university and received exempt research status (Appendix C). An explanation of the research form was used and the study was strictly confidential with only the researcher’s knowing the names of the participants. Validation was obtained by a triangulation of methods, quantitative, qualitative, and by this researcher’s knowledge of her positionality.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the surveys. By comparing statistics from all of the surveys, overall descriptive statistics were formed. In order to compare multiple variables, statistical ANOVAs (analysis of variance) were used as well. Statistical ANOVAs were run for many survey responses, not only to compare multiple variables but to determine if any demographic categories such as age, sex, or the geographic location of education were factors that contributed to the contents or methods being used by central Florida teachers. The data found from the surveys were input into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Studies). All eight interviews were audiotaped, transcribed, and read several times. Significant pieces of the interviews were highlighted, as suggested by Saldana (2009), and phrases describing the experience were written in the margins. These formed the beginnings of the coding system. Next, a code book was started, containing definitions of each code, how it is to be used, and where the example was found in the transcription. Then, the researcher began to look for contrasts and similarities. Once these were established and revised, a code book was started with themes, sub-themes, codes, and direct quotations. The quotations in the theme book are examples of In Vivo coding because these exact quotes were too descriptive and precious to lose. The final theme book can be found in Appendix D.
These analytic procedures were utilized for a number of reasons. Surveys were used to target a larger sample size and as a good way of obtaining demographics and comparing means. Personal interviews were used for in-depth questions, responses, and descriptions that can only be found in the qualitative method. By using both quantitative and qualitative methods, not only was the research multi-layered, but with researcher clarification it was triangulated as well. The answers to the research questions on reporting the lived experience when teaching the civil rights movement were found in both the surveys and personal interviews. Table 1 depicts each research question and the method used to compile the results.

Table 1
Research Questions and Methods Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Research method &amp; answers obtained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How is the civil rights movement being taught in Florida?</td>
<td>Survey and Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What content is being used when teaching the civil rights movement?</td>
<td>Survey and Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When teaching the civil rights unit is it a top-down, national story?</td>
<td>Survey and Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the stories of Floridians and ordinary people included in the civil rights unit plan?</td>
<td>Survey and Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What factors contribute to the teaching of the civil rights movement?</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What methods are being used to teach the civil rights movement?</td>
<td>Survey and Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are primary sources being used to teach the civil rights movement?</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When teaching the civil rights unit, is it student-centered learning?</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When teaching the civil rights unit, is historical inquiry being included?</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Validity/Ethical Concerns

This is not a controversial subject that could do harm in any way to the participants. The purpose of describing the experience of teachers when conducting the story of civil rights can only benefit teachers, educators, and students in the future. None of the questions in the survey or interviews caused any harm, embarrassment, or hurt feelings. The study had the Internal Review Board (IRB) approval (see Appendix C), and received an exempt human research status from this board. An explanation of research form was given to each research participant, explaining the purpose of the study and whom to contact with any problems or issues, and this form was attached to the survey letter and then also given to each participant of the interviews as well. Each interview began with a statement reiterating that participation did not entitle him/her to any compensation, monetary or otherwise. The surveys were anonymous with exceptions for those who agreed to be interviewed. Those names were only known by the researcher. The names used throughout the findings were fictitious and unidentifiable. All documents when not in use were kept in a locked filing cabinet in an office that is also locked when not in use.

Validity was obtained through several methods, and triangulation occurred by collecting data by two different methods—survey (quantitative) and personal interviews (qualitative)—and by clarifying researcher bias throughout the process. These are two of the eight strategies suggested for researcher credibility as summarized by Glesne (2011) as well as the number of strategies that he suggests using.

Positionality

Position can be a kind of outlook. It is the combination of a researcher’s heritage and experience and takes into account one’s gender, race, background, education, and life lessons. According to Glesne (2011), “Researchers cannot control positionality in that it is determined in
relation to others, but they can make certain choices that affect those relationships” (p. 157). In terms of positioning, this researcher has experience in teaching the civil rights movement as an American history teacher in a community college, and as a student in secondary, college, and graduate classes. This researcher is also a Graduate Teaching Associate (GTA) and a white woman who has had a good educational experience in the Northeast and has questions about the way history is being taught in Florida high schools. This researcher has also supervised pre-service social studies teachers in central Florida counties.

It may be that this researcher knows one or more of the teachers to be interviewed. Prior knowledge and/or a relationship can influence positionality. Milner (2007) wrote, “because teacher educators often serve the dual role of providing instruction to teachers and to studying their own teaching practices and the learning of teachers, dangers can show up in complex ways” (p. 394). Being aware of this positioning, and constantly questioning herself, kept this researcher on the right path.

Frameworks exist for researcher positionality. Milner (2007) included the following topics: racial and cultural positionality, researching the self, and researching the self in terms of others. This researcher referred to this framework to begin the process of engaged reflection about her beliefs when it comes to race and culture, so exploitation or misrepresentation of the participants did not occur.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

This phenomenological study concentrated on the experience of teaching civil rights movement in terms of content and teaching methods being used, as well as determining if any demographic factors contributed to this teaching. Given the theoretical assumptions from many historians found in the literature review, that the national story is the only narrative being taught regarding the civil rights movement, this study depicts whether this is the case in the state of Florida, which incorporates the use of local history in its state standards. In this chapter, the results of the survey and interviews are revealed and these results are divided by survey demographics and themes. The primary research question for this study was:

- How is the civil rights movement being taught in Florida?

The answers to this question as well as the other research questions are found throughout this chapter. The themes were developed from two data sources, surveys and personal interviews. Seven of the nine themes found began with the survey results and were confirmed later, with the personal, qualitative interviews. All original research questions were answered by at least one method, as seen in Table 1.

Descriptive statistics and ANOVAS were used for the survey analysis, and coding and theming were used for the qualitative interviews.

Although many themes were based on the research questions concerning teaching methods and content used to teach the civil rights movement, three additional themes emerged without initial questioning. These additional themes were the impact of the end-of-course exam
on the teaching of American history, the impact teachers have on the way their students feel about history, and the fact that teachers do not have a good opinion of the textbooks they are required to use. One of the premises of this study was the theory that teaching the civil rights movement in the classrooms in Florida may focus on textbooks and the national story but contain a very limited view of those involved locally. This premise was found to be true.

Survey Results

Surveys were distributed to 319 high school social studies teachers in three counties, and from this distribution, 65 responses were obtained. Not every teacher answered every question and a copy of the survey is found in Appendix A. Demographics were included in the survey to determine if any factors contributed to the phenomenon studied. From these responses, the following demographics were found: 55% of the respondents were female and 45% were male, which is only a slight difference in numbers (see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By age, the respondents ranged from 20-61 and above, with the largest group (29%) being from 41-50 years old and the smallest group (4%) being from 20-25 years of age (see Table 3). The three midrange groups, 31-40, 41-50, and 41-60, had the majority of respondents, which totaled 42 of the 55 respondents for this question.

Table 3
What Is Your Age?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of teachers who responded to the survey received most of their education in the South (64%) and the smallest group received the majority of their education in the East (0%) (see Table 4).

Table 4

Where Did You Receive the Majority of Your Education?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Number of responses</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>North</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>South</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>East</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical ANOVAs (analysis of variance) were run for many survey responses, to determine if any demographic categories such as age, sex, or the geographic location were factors that contributed to the contents or methods being used by central Florida teachers. This type of statistical test was run because of the number of variables involved. Although there were
differences, they were very slight. ANOVAs were first run on two figures and the type of content used. First, a national figure, Martin Luther King, Jr. was compared to gender and then a local figure, Harry T. Moore was also compared to the demographic of gender (see Table 5 and Table 6).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics: Martin Luther King, Jr., and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.902</td>
<td>.162</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.688</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 5, men were more likely to include Martin Luther King, Jr. ($M = 4.0, SD = .000$) in their lesson plan while women ($M = 3.71, SD = .902$) were a bit less likely. Since there were only two categories of gender, male and female, the range was from 4.0 to 3.71. This suggests that men were very likely to include Martin Luther King, Jr., in their civil rights lesson plans and that women were more than somewhat likely to include him as well.
Table 6

Descriptive Statistics: Harry T. Moore and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.526</td>
<td>.318</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.041</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.285</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, when comparing Harry T. Moore and gender, women ($M = 2.75, SD = 1.041$) were more likely to include Harry T. Moore in their lesson plan than men ($M = 2.35, SD = 1.526$) (see Table 6). In this example, women were closer to “somewhat likely” to include Mr. Moore and men were closer to “somewhat unlikely” to use Harry T. Moore as a civil rights figure. So although there is a slight difference in the means of both men and woman when comparing the figures of both Martin Luther, King, Jr., and Harry T. Moore, there is no statistical significance as seen in Table 7 and Table 8.

The following ANOVAs evaluate both MLK and Moore with gender. Table 7 compares Mr. King and gender. In this calculation, Martin Luther King is the dependent variable and gender is the independent variable.
Table 7

ANOVA: Martin Luther King, Jr., and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>1.140</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.140</td>
<td>2.478</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>24.387</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.527</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This ANOVA shows that although there is a difference in means as seen in Table 5 and Table 6, this difference is not statistically significant meaning that the difference could be a result of error rather than an actual difference (see Table 7). The same is true when comparing the differences in means of using Harry T. Moore and gender. But in this case, Mr. Moore is the dependent variable and again, gender is the dependent variable (see Table 8).

Table 8

ANOVA: Harry T. Moore and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2.042</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.042</td>
<td>1.244</td>
<td>.270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>80.467</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82.510</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Once again, the same two figures from the survey, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Harry T. Moore, were also compared by age group to determine any differences. For Martin Luther King, Jr., and age groups, the difference in means do not vary significantly. Means range from ages 20-25 ($M = 4.0, SD = .000$) to ages 26-30 ($M = 3.5, SD = 1.225$). The other age groups fell between these two groups, which indicates that all age groups were close to “very likely” in terms of using Martin Luther King, Jr. in their classroom (see Table 9).

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics: Martin Luther King, Jr., and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20–25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26–30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.225</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41–50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.694</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences between means were broader for age groups where Harry T. Moore was concerned. Ages 51- 60 ($M = 3.23, SD =1.235$) had the highest mean while ages 41-50 had the lowest ($M = 2.14, SD = 1.610$). This says that teachers were between a little above somewhat
likely for ages 51-60 and a little above somewhat unlikely for ages 41-50 to use a local figure, Harry T. Moore, when teaching the civil rights movement (see Table 10).

Table 10
Descriptive Statistics: Harry T. Moore and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Upper bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20−25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26−30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31−40</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>1.286</td>
<td>.388</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41−50</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.610</td>
<td>.430</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51−60</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.235</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.837</td>
<td>.374</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>1.295</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference between means, when comparing Harry T. Moore and age groups is even more evident in the means plots (see Figure 3).
Next, in Table 11, the difference in means for Martin Luther King, Jr., is compared by age group. In this table, Martin Luther King, Jr., is again the independent variable, and age groups are the dependent variable.
Table 11

ANOVA: Martin Luther King, Jr., and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2.400</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>23.100</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.481</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.500</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 compares the difference in means for Harry T. Moore and age group. This time the differences were greater but still not statistically significant. Harry T. Moore is again the dependent variable and age the independent variable.

Table 12

ANOVA: Harry T. Moore and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>10.013</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.003</td>
<td>1.221</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>72.167</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82.180</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that no statistical significance is found could be because of the unequal number of respondents in age category, which is just sampling error. This occurs because regardless of
the numbers of surveys sent, only certain people in certain age groups responded, and, therefore, the age groups are not evenly distributed.

Statistics were also run comparing Martin Luther King, Jr., and Harry T. Moore and the factor of geographic location, or where teachers received their education. This factor did not show much difference between means either. The largest mean, or those most likely to include Martin Luther King, Jr., in their lesson plans, were those teachers educated in the Midwest ($M = 4.0, SD = .000$) and West ($M = 4.0, SD = .000$) and those educated in the North ($M = 3.54, SD = 1.27$) had the lowest mean. However, all groups were very close to the scale of “very likely” when teaching the civil rights movement (see Table 13).

Table 13
Descriptive Statistics: Martin Luther King, Jr., and Education Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.127</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.507</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.688</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences in means were more varied for geographic location of teachers’ education and the use of Harry T. Moore in their classrooms. The means ranged from the highest from the
West ($M = 3.33, SD = .577$) to the lowest from the North ($M = 2.45, SD = 1.440$), which says that teachers’ education location was between “somewhat likely” to “somewhat unlikely” (see Table 14). It is interesting to note that the group that is likely to use Harry T. Moore the most, are those educated in the West, the furthest in proximity to where this figure lived.

Table 14
Descriptive Statistics: Harry T. Moore and Education Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>1.440</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.325</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.285</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, content, both textbooks and primary sources, was viewed by the demographic factors of age and the geographic location of their education. Again, two different types of pedagogical methods on either end of the spectrum were analyzed: using a textbook and using primary sources and both, then were compared by age and then geographic location of the teachers’ education.

When comparing the difference in means of teachers surveyed on the likelihood of teaching using a textbook, depending on the geographic location of their education, the
difference in means were very close. Those educated in the North ($M = 3.31, SD = 1.182$) had the lowest mean, while those educated in the West ($M = 3.67, SD = .577$) had the highest. Regardless of education site, all of those surveyed would be more than somewhat likely to use the text in their teaching of the civil rights movement (see Table 15).

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics: Text and Geographic Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.182</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.942</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next the teaching method of using a text was compared by age groups. The results for the difference in means when using the text when compared by age groups was a little more diverse (see Table 16). The means for using the text by age ranged from 20-25 ($M= 3.0, SD = .000$) to ages 51-60 ($M = 3.69, SD = .480$). Again, these age groups were all more than “somewhat likely” to use their textbooks. This finding is depicted quite well in the means plot graph in Figure 4. This graph does show that the means of the likelihood of using a text to teach the civil rights movement does increase with age, but only slightly. Therefore, this is the first factor that
shows a difference in contributing to the content used in a classroom and that is by age group, however slight the difference.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics: Text Compared to Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20−25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26−30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.095</td>
<td>.447</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31−40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.231</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41−50</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.138</td>
<td>.285</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51−60</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td>.245</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Next, the use of multiple perspectives in the classroom was compared by age. The opposite end of the teaching spectrum, in terms of engaging students, is using multiple perspectives. When comparing this method and age groups, the difference in means between age groups is slightly more varied. Both ages, 20-25 ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .000$) and ages 61 and above ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .000$), were both very likely to include the use of primary sources when teaching the civil rights movement (see Table 17). The second youngest group, 26-30 ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.169$) were the least likely of those interviewed to use multiple perspectives. However,
they were still above “somewhat likely” in their use. This is shown again by the mean plot in Figure 5.

Table 17
Descriptive Statistics: Multiple Perspectives and Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20–25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26–30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.169</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41–50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.915</td>
<td>.236</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 and above</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the means plot in Figure 5, it is clear that the difference in means for the likelihood of use of the text increases with age. Again, the mean for the likelihood of using multiple perspectives starts in the first group as “very likely,” declines, and then ends up with the oldest age group as again being “very likely.”
The difference in means for use of the textbook in the classroom was then compared by the geographic location of the respondents’ education. Those most likely to use the text came from those educated in the West ($M = 3.67$, $SD = .577$), while those least likely to use the text came from the North ($M = 3.31$, $SD= 1.82$). Thus, all the teachers in this sample were more than “somewhat likely” to use the textbook in their classroom when teaching the civil rights movement (see Table 18).
Table 18

Descriptive Statistics: Text and Geographic Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>95% Confidence interval for mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.182</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.942</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.289</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These conclusions are simplified in the Means Plot showing both the Midwest and Western group with a 4.0 or very likely (see Figure 6).
After the surveys were distributed, personal interviews were conducted to describe the lived experience of high school instructors when they teach the civil rights movement. The survey asked for volunteers who would be willing to participate in a follow up, personal interview. Eight teachers agreed to be interviewed, and they were each asked a base of 30 questions. Theses interviews were recorded, transcribed, and then coded for significant words.

Figure 6: Means Plot: Multiple Perspectives and Geographic Location

Qualitative Interviews
This formed the basis for the code book. The words or codes were then grouped together along with significant statements, and these codes and statements became the themes for this study. Sixty-eight significant statements were extracted and Table 19 is an example of one theme, theme 3, along with direct quotes or significant statements. The entire theme book with significant statements is found in Appendix D.

Table 19

Theme 3: Book of Significant Statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The impact the end of course exam has on the teaching of U.S. history.</td>
<td>End of course exam</td>
<td>Ann- “Again, got to love social studies. We're the first ones to be tested for US history. The EOC for US history, a year course, is April 29th. Five full weeks before the end of school. We don't get out of school until June 5th. But they're tested April 29th. So then you look and go, &quot;After the test, I've got five weeks to go. 'Well, the test is done.'&quot; So then you start doing projects and stuff. But you really find yourself, especially at the end, you start going, &quot;Oh.&quot; When you hit February, &quot;Whoa, I'm running out of time. It's February. I've got Spring Break. I'm going to lose a week in March.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ann – “I have never, even been a teacher that says, &quot;I teach to the test.&quot; I'm one of those rebels who say, &quot;I will never do that.&quot; I'm never one to belittle our educational system or try to be one of those that's just, &quot;You're so pessimistic,&quot; because that's not my character. But unfortunately, the times are changing and it's come to the point where, due to time constraints, depending on how much time I have, I wish I had a lot more time to teach civil rights and I don't, I gear it towards what potentially will be on the test. I'd love to spend a whole day doing a Socratic seminar on literacy tests and let's talk about specific entrances to Mercy, Mississippi or Alabama or the Little Rock Nine. Let's talk about Central High School. I mention it. I don't have time to get into a real good discussion or Socratic seminar about it, because of the time constraints. Really and truly, it's kind of like, if it's not overly important or one of those added pieces of history, we don't get too detailed.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Codes</td>
<td>Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of course exam</td>
<td></td>
<td>Debbie- “Oh, yes. Unfortunately, yeah. There are a lot of topics that because of time constraint, because end-of-course exam that I administered yesterday. We still have five more weeks to go, and I already administered the end-of-course exam. Yes, timing is a big problem. What I do is, I cater it depending on the population I have. If I have more African Americans in the group, I tend to emphasize on their part. If I have more Hispanics depending where the Hispanics are from, then I go to the Chicano movement or then I go to Allulak. It depends.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of course exam</td>
<td></td>
<td>Edith-“The end-of-course exam was on April 26th this year and I'm still teaching, so obviously then my kids didn't get all of the curriculum. It impacts, because it causes me to want to just go to this whole, &quot;OK, let's just lecture and move through quickly, because we have to get ready for the EOC.&quot; I think it shortchanges the kids by focusing on the test, and when that is, and manipulating your curriculum to fit that, which I haven't done yet.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The social studies teachers who participated in the personal interviews were a diverse group from three counties in Florida. One member of the group was Black, one was Hispanic, and six were White. Of these teachers, five were female and three were male, and the entire group was between the ages of 35 and 65. They all had a passion for teaching history.
Overall Results

Theme 1

- Teachers included use more than Martin Luther King, Jr. and Rosa Parks.

The first question in the survey was created to define the content: people, places, and events, being used in central Florida classrooms to teach the civil rights unit and to determine if local history is being included. Choices ranged from national figures such as Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks, to local figures such as Harry T. Moore and Mary McLeod Bethune. The choices for events ran again from the national, which included the march to Selma Alabama, to local history, which included the Jacksonville bus boycott.

A Likert scale was used in creating the choices for the survey, with a scale of 0-4 with 4 being very likely, 3 being somewhat likely, 2 being somewhat unlikely, 1 being very unlikely, and 0 being never. Using descriptive statistics, the means were analyzed to compare results. In terms of people, teachers were more likely to teach about Martin Luther King, Jr. ($M = 3.84$, $SD = .69$) and Rosa Parks ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .80$) than Harry T. Moore ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 1.16$) and Mary McLeod Bethune ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .99$). An $M = 3.84$ for Martin Luther King, Jr., shows that the teachers responses’ were between “somewhat likely,” which was a 3 on the Likert scale and “very likely,” which was a 4. This group of teachers were also more likely to teach the national story of the Birmingham bus boycott ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .72$) than the local one of the Jacksonville bus boycott ($M = 1.58$, $SD = 1.18$), regardless of the fact that Jacksonville’s is local history and in close proximity to central Florida. The mean of the response for the Birmingham bus boycott is only slight below “very likely,” and the mean of the Jacksonville bus boycott is between “somewhat unlikely” and “very unlikely.” This theme of teaching more than just Martin
Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks was also supported by the interviews. Table 20 shows all the responses from Q. 1-14 of the survey.

Table 20
Questions 1-14 of Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/Place</th>
<th>Very likely</th>
<th>Somewhat likely</th>
<th>Somewhat unlikely</th>
<th>Very unlikely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th># of Responses</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>W.E. B. Du Bois</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.42</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rosa Parks</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>55</td>
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<td>Harry T. Moore</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>The march to Selma, AL</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3.78</td>
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<td>0</td>
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Again, these results show that central Florida teachers cover the national story more than local events, and these responses are repeated and confirmed in the interviews. This research supports the conjectures of historians and educators, Dunn (2005) and Mormino (2003), whose
theories can be found in Chapter One. They believe that in classrooms across the country, the civil rights movement may be taught with little more than just Martin Luther King, Jr.

In the personal interviews, the theories of Mormino (2003) and Dunn (2005) were supported as well. More than the two original national historic figures are used in a civil rights lesson plan in Florida. When asked specifically who else was being taught besides Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks, Ann stated,

I talk about Malcolm X. I talk about Meredith. I talk about...You just said people in general, so not just African-Americans? Because, like, I teach about Bull Conner, Randolph, A. Philip Randolph is a huge one. JFK, Civil Rights Act, 1964, signed, of course, by Lyndon B. Johnson, and then his brother, Robert Kennedy…1968 Olympic Games, Carlos and they gave the Black Panther symbol and their medals were stripped. Linda Brown and Thurgood Marshall. That's huge, Brown versus Board of Education. Absolutely have to teach that, because they have to know Plessy versus Ferguson. It gets overturned. Linda Brown, Thurgood Marshall, Rosa Parks. I'm just trying to go through my timeline here. I do Little Rock Nine. I don't want to say that's it, but I'm drawing a blank at this point. That's the main people we cover.

For this teacher, other figures are included besides Martin Luther King, Jr., but most of the figures or documents are from the national stage. Chris had similar comments,

There are quite a few people in there. This is off the top of my head, OK? Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Du Bois, Marcus Garvey. Rosa Parks, Dr. King, Malcolm X, quite a few groups like the Black Panthers and so forth. Ralph Abernathy. Quite a few individuals, actually. I mean, I could go through my lesson plans, I'm sure there are more.

Again, additional figures were included but not local ones. Frances agreed and stated,

Martin Luther King, Rosa Parks. I do the ERA Amendment and we do the ERA rights. I do Brown vs. Board of Education. Let's see, off the top of my head...I do not do the Moore. I know that was on the list, and I don't do them. I do the Alabama, the registering the voters. If I have a time where I know I'm not going to have a lot of kids sometimes use of testing, or field trips or something, sometimes I show the "Secret Life of Bees," which really shows how people were treating in the south, in a movie that the kids will sit and not be bored through. I use that a lot.

Greg followed with similar people and events. He stated,

Rosa Parks. Also bring in Medgar Evers. We talk about Thurgood Marshall, as a chief prosecutor in the NAACP. We also talk about Malcolm X, as an alternative perspective. We include Stokely Carmichael in the discussion, as somebody who went from one
extreme of nonviolence, to one of a little bit more aggressive approach with SNCC. We also talk about...His name is escaping me now. Emmett Till. We start with Emmett Till and then we come forward. Those are some of the people. I'm sure there's more. I'd have to look at my notes.

Edith was the only teacher to mention that she included Harry Moore in her unit plan. The rest were national figures. She said, “Malcolm X, Stokely Carmichael, Emmett Till, Medgar Evers, Harry T. Moore...Think back to my unit. I may think of others as we go through.” Harry also used more than Martin Luther King, Jr., in his lesson plans. He said,

Malcolm. We look at Bobby Scale. We take a look at Stokely, definitely Stokely, Black Power, we take at the Black Power, Stokely Carmichael. We do a lot of primary source stuff. We look at people. We watch the Birmingham stuff. Bull Connor, if you want to look at the other side of that obviously we need to include him. We do look at Bull Connor. We talk about Kennedy's involvement in it, those types of things. Obviously the presidential issues are in there at that level. We take a look at, and I don't know the guy's name and I should by now because I show the clip, the white guy that gets his face kicked in on The Freedom Ride. We see them.

Lewis, we talk about Lewis, because he's in the news again because they were coming back with trying to repeal the Voter's Rights Act of ’65. I don't know if you saw that. That was really nice. I could pull Lewis in and then show Lewis, and that was happening concurrently, which was really cool. I'm sure there are several I'm forgetting in the Civil Rights Movement, if you're talking about the black Civil Rights Movement.

Now I integrate into the Civil Rights Movement AIM. We talk about the American Indian Movement. I integrate the Women's Rights Movement into the Civil Rights Movement. We talk about Caesar Chavez. I always get him and Jake O'Hara mixed up. Caesar Chavez and, oh my God I'm going to forget her name, there's a woman....

All of these teachers offered more than just Martin Luther King and Rosa Parks and it is from these statements that the theme was found. Topics taught ran from JFK to the Black Panthers to Emmett Till to the Little Rock Nine, but only once was Harry T. Moore mentioned. This finding is also confirmed in the survey results where the mean for national people and events, Martin Luther King ($M = 3.83$) and the march to Selma, Alabama ($M = 3.78$), were greater than those of local ones, Harry T. Moore ($M = 3.06$) and the St. Augustine wade-ins ($M = 2.77$).
Table 20 shows the survey results by figure.

Theme 2

- Teachers use more than the textbook when teaching the civil rights unit.

Question 2 in the survey was to define the pedagogical methods used when teaching the civil rights movement. By teaching methods, specific types of procedures were asked as to explain what different types of sources or learning techniques were used. The specific question on the survey was: When thinking about teaching the civil rights movement in terms of methods, which of the following are you likely to use? Teachers used: textbooks ($M = 3.38, SD = .95$), primary sources ($M = 3.75, SD = .74$), film ($M = 3.61, SD = .87$), DBQs, document based questions, ($M = 3.45, SD = .91$), and multiple perspectives ($M = 3.65, SD = .78$) more than role play ($M = 2.30, SD = 1.11$), experiential activities ($M = 2.23, SD = 1.62$), and historical empathy ($M = 2.8, SD = .86$). Therefore, the responses for methods used: textbooks, primary sources, film, DBQs, and multiple perspectives are close to the choice of very likely while role play, experiential activities are almost one whole category lower below somewhat likely. See Table 21 for the entire survey results for question two.
This section of the survey describes the types of pedagogical methods used to teach the civil rights movement in Central Florida high schools. In terms of methods, a wide range of techniques and sources methods are being used which became theme three: a variety of methods are used to teach the civil rights movement. No major differences were found by analyzing the demographics of the surveys except when comparing the use of the text by age.

The findings in the interviews reinforce the survey results seen in Table 21. Teachers do use more than just the textbook when teaching the civil rights unit. One teacher, Betsy, uses...
visuals, discussion, and multiple perspectives. When asked what teaching methods she used,

Betsy stated,

A lot of visuals. I know this is very hands on, very visual. "Can I see it? Can I touch it? Can I feel it? It has to be quick, has to be entertaining yet thought-provoking. I do a lot of discussion and try to tie in where we are today, compared to the era that we're studying at that particular time. I do a lot of readings from particular periods. I taught the Harlem Renaissance a couple of years ago, about four years, with a group at University High School. We wound up doing some writings. They did their own personal writings. We did a lot of reading of Langston Hughes, Zora Neale Hurston and some of the other Renaissance writers. Letting them read a lot and write and connect with the period. They did a presentation, during Black History Month, on the Harlem Renaissance. Also Motown. It was very funny. We also did a chronological musical, going from slavery from present day.

Her teaching methods also included other sources like poems and music.

Chris also used visuals, DBQs, and music. He commented,

Do the usual things. I give them notes, usually in the form of Power Points that I can accompany with visuals and music. That kind of thing, to go with it. My students do quite a bit of work with primary sources. Including what we call DBQs, document-based-questions. They do quite a few of those. In fact, not long ago, they did one on Dr. King and Malcolm.

Frances also used DBQs, combined with Power Point presentations, and lectures. She said,

I base it upon common core and the standards that I have to teach and then I try to throw things in to keep the kids interested. I do PowerPoint lectures and in most of my lectures I throw in YouTube things, with different things all the time, so I'll break out my lecture and they'll watch a little bit of a clip and keep going so it makes it real. I do a DBQ with the equal rights amendment where the kids work on that in the classroom and I divide them up into groups. I do a huge case, I forgot about this, a DBQ with Malcolm X versus Martin Luther King and how they looked at civil rights a little bit differently. And I have the kids make a magazine up with that. They make a magazine. I probably have some I could show you in a little bit.

Harry combines reading, questions, and discussions. When asked, he responded,

I integrate 10- to 15-minute segments. It's usually revolving around one or two topics, like today it'll be Oklahoma City and the World Trade Center '93. I integrate reading, questioning, discussion. Today I'm going to get some kinesthetic in there, because we're going to do a little project I stole from Smith. I'll put the little Post-Its up on the board about which one of Reagan's scandals they like best. I always incorporate video, given
any chance, unless it's review or strictly PowerPoint. We've had some PowerPoint. I do a lot of imaging. The only thing I really use the textbook for is looking at the graphs and the charts and the tables and things like that. Most of the readings I get. I grab the stuff from online and put them together myself.

When during the interview process he was prompted, “You said you use a lot of video. Tell me about that. Why do you use a lot of video?” Harry stated,

It's just these kids. They watch video. I have two teenage kids. They're on YouTube all the time. Why wouldn't I? That's, again, another thing that I actually knew. I was teaching concurrently with getting my graduate degree. I had already realized this YouTube thing is awesome, because I can put a YouTube thing on for four or five minutes and they'll watch it. It can either open discussion and they know a little bit about it when we read about it, or we can read about it and it can solidify as they see the audio/visual with it.

Harry then, uses the text only for charts, graphs, and tables, and also supports the frequent use of videos.

Ann has the methods of discussions, video clips, and visuals in common with the previous teachers, but also mentions speeches. She declared,

The buzzword now, especially in Lake County, is collaboration. There has to be a lot of collaboration. In fact, whoever's going to listen to this can't say this, but, right now, my desks are set up in rows. This is a big no-no. They don't like this. They want the kids sitting in collaborative groups and discussing. For a long time of the year, that's exactly what I did. It works great. Problem is, it's time consuming. "Take a few minutes to talk about it with your group. Let's share out." Like I said, you come back from Spring Break and I'm going, "Oh my Gosh. I have no choice but to lecture." I hate that. I don't want to be a lecturer. I use a lot of video clips. YouTube is awesome. There's something called Teacher Tube, so you can get to it. When we talk about the March on Washington, I'll show a clip of it. I'll show Dr. Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" speech. They make a lot of videos themselves, too, and we'll share those out. I like to tell a story as I told you, but as I tell them the story, I like to put faces to names. So I'll use my Smart Board, and I'll bring up pictures of people. For me, I rely a lot on Internet resources, video clips.

Greg strictly uses textbooks and a documentary. He said,

I'm embarrassed to even say this. Because my civil rights lessons for that unit is content driven, not necessarily standards driven. I'm not engaged in as much critical evaluation as I once had. I've got a comprehensive video called "Eyes on the Prize," that gets me from Emmett Till, all the way up to the March on Edmund Pettus Bridge, the March on Selma. That's my lesson, folks. You've got a textbook, here's the video. That's going to go over the primary material that I want to cover. Watch the video to learn it.
Barton and Levstik (2004), who are mentioned in Chapter One, do not believe that primary sources are being used in every high school classroom in the United States. This survey does not confirm that premise. Teachers in central Florida do use primary sources in the form of DBQs, speeches, and video clips.

Theme 3

- The end-of-course exam has a major impact on the teaching U. S. history.

This theme was found during the discussion of who else was included in the content used, as well as in the question: Does time have anything to do with your decision? Why or why not? The end of course exam was not mentioned specifically in either the survey or in the first few personal interviews, yet this exam was brought up again and again. Ann mentioned the end of course exam when time was first mentioned. She declared,

> Again, got to love social studies. We're the first ones to be tested for US history. The EOC for US history, a year course, is April 29th, five full weeks before the end of school. We don't get out of school until June 5th. But they're tested April 29th. So then you look and go, "After the test, I've got five weeks to go, 'Well, the test is done. So then you start doing projects and stuff. But you really find yourself, especially at the end, you start going, 'Oh.' When you hit February, 'Whoa, I'm running out of time. It's February. I've got Spring Break. I'm going to lose a week in March.'"

Ann mentions the fact that the history exam was held before every other subject, causing her school year to be five weeks shorter. Edith indicated that the exam so cut into her school year that she felt forced to hurry along as quickly as possible. She stated,

> The end-of-course exam was on April 26th this year and I'm still teaching, so obviously then my kids didn't get all of the curriculum. It impacts, because it causes me to want to just go to this whole, "OK, let's just lecture and move through quickly, because we have to get ready for the EOC." I think it shortchanges the kids by focusing on the test, and when that is, and manipulating your curriculum to fit that, which I haven't done yet.
To Edith, the end-of-course exam cuts into her teaching time for the year and forces her
to use teaching methods that are quick, like lectures, which she feels “shortchanges” her
students. She went on to discuss the difference in the end-of-course exams and the two subjects
she teaches, psychology and American history. Edith commented,

Whereas, with American History, I feel like I'm just kind of out there. A week, maybe
two weeks, before the EOC test, they gave us three practice tests and said, "You can use
these in your classroom, and have the kids take these tests." Then I find out the next day,
"Oh, but they can't talk to you about it two weeks before the test," or something
ridiculous like that. I only had really a couple of days, like one day, where I was like,
"OK, here's the test. Take the test. Now we'll grade the test, and, OK, after Friday you
can't ask me any more questions." It was really rushed and...

Debbie concurred with Edith and affirmed,

Oh, yes. Unfortunately, yeah. There are a lot of topics that because of time constraint,
because end-of-course exam that I administered yesterday. We still have five more weeks
to go, and I already administered the end-of-course exam. Yes, timing is a big problem.
What I do is, I cater it depending on the population I have. If I have more African
Americans in the group, I tend to emphasize on their part. If I have more Hispanics
depending where the Hispanics are from, then I go to the Chicano movement or then I go
to Allulak [sic]. It depends.

Again, the exam causes additional time constraints. Greg agreed and discussed how
during the last two months of the school year, students are being pulled away from his American
history class to take a test, and how these tests negatively impacted topics usually taught later in
the school year, like the civil rights movement. He stated,

Yeah, I would say so. The civil rights movement is something towards the end of the
year. Now that we're affected by end of course exams and a series of testing for other
subjects, my kids are being pulled all the time. The last two months of the school year, I
almost never have a full class of students. They're all being pulled out at different times,
for different testing. For me, I feel the crunch, especially now with the common core for
social studies, in getting everything in, in time so that they're ready to go for the EOC. If
I'm being evaluated on that EOC that's given at the end of April, I've just lost an entire
month of May in instruction time. The civil rights movement usually falls in line with the
end of April. Now, I've got to back that up. If I want to get to Reagan by the end of April,
everything has to be sped up.
Harry also discussed running out of time. He does not skimp on the topic of civil rights but does have to cut other topics short. He declared,

With the end-of-course exam being in April, I'm going back now and teaching the things that it just killed me to not teach, because I couldn't. I didn't have the time. So yeah, that's something. Civil rights - I did not skirt on civil rights, and I did not skirt on Vietnam. I can't skirt on Vietnam, because it's a pet to me. And I couldn't skirt on civil rights, because the kids dig it. I teach minorities. This is a minority population. We white folks are minorities here. So, the ability to hook the kids with showing them the police dogs and saying, "Hey, look, they were throwing fire hoses on these kids, and these kids are your age." It's just too important, and I also was kind of guessing that they might have put some stuff on the EOC about it.

We guessed incorrectly that they would go airel [sic] with the questioning, that they would give us maybe six or eight from 1900 back. They'd give us two on the World War I era, oh, maybe one on the '20s and the Harlem Renaissance. We figured that and then when we were looking at civil rights, we were like, "Well, you've got to have 5 things - at least 5 or 6 questions out of 60." And then of course they didn't do anything from what we understand from the children. But time is always a critical issue.

All of the teachers interviewed felt the impact of the end-of-course exam. Some felt the need to shorten topics found at the end of the year like the civil rights movement and others glossed over other year-end topics.

Initially, during coding, the end of course exam was considered part of the issue of time. But after rereading the transcripts a few times, the end of course exam was found to be more prevalent than the simple topic of time. Therefore, time became a subtheme.

Subtheme: Not Enough Time.

During the personal interviews, Ann was the first teacher to mention time. After being asked: “What kind of decisions go into what you will teach?” she mentioned,

I have never, ever been a teacher that says, “I teach to the test.” I'm one of those rebels who says, “I will never do that.” I'm never one to belittle our educational system or try to be one of those that's just, "You're so pessimistic," because that's not my character. But unfortunately, the times are changing and it's come to the point where, due to time constraints, depending on how much time I have, I wish I had a lot more time to teach
civil rights and I don't. I gear it towards what potentially will be on the test. I'd love to spend a whole day doing a Socratic seminar on literacy tests and let's talk about specific entrances to Mercy, Mississippi or Alabama or the Little Rock Nine. Let's talk about Central High School. I mention it. I don't have time to get into a real good discussion or Socratic seminar about it, because of the time constraints. Really and truly, it's kind of like, if it's not overly important or one of those added pieces of history, we don't get too detailed.

This is just one example of the phenomenon of teaching to the test, where topics are reduced or not covered at all because of the time restraints that come with standardized testing.

Theme 4

- The length of the civil rights lesson plan varies.

This theme was found as a direct response to the question: How long is your civil rights lesson plan? The length of time for these teachers varied between two days to three weeks. To Frances, there was no set time. When asked the length of her civil rights lesson plans, she commented, “I don't know, a couple weeks. Sometimes a month, it depends on how I feel the kids are taking it. Because sometimes, I'll steal from Peter and give to Paul.” So student’s perceptions, interest, or engagement are considered by Frances when determining the length of her lessons. Another participant, Edith, stated, “I would say it's about three weeks. I probably could take a little bit more time but I, in the interest of finishing, can't do that.” The time spent teaching the civil rights movement for Edith then, is determined by her desire to finish every segment of American history possible through President Obama or up to and including modern day. Ann, the first teacher interviewed, only spends two days on the civil rights movement while it is obvious that she would like to spend more time. She noted, “I'm almost embarrassed to say. I wish that I could spend a week. I wish I could spend two weeks. Honestly, at most, two days.” Betsy, another contributor, spends about five days on the civil rights movement and replied, “A
year. [laughs] That's all I want to do is teach African-American history. How long would my lesson plans be? Probably a week.” The fourth teacher, Debbie, consistently places emphasis on the civil rights movement and revealed, “I do it longer than what is suggested. I spend about an hour in a month.” Greg was in the middle of the group in terms of length. He stated, “Six, tops. However, prior to this year, this year being an aberration of course, it was ... I spent about two-and-a-half weeks on civil rights. I usually spend about four.” And when prompted by the researcher with: “When you're saying that this year was an aberration, are you referring to the end-of-the-year exams?” He said, “Absolutely, yeah, because the time constraints were shortened.” The length of Greg’s unit was different than usual and much shorter this year because of the end-of-course exam in American history which commenced this year, 2013. Therefore, the length of time teaching the civil rights movement varies because of time frames, the end-of-course exams, and even personal interest. One of these teachers even changed the length of her lessons to accommodate students’ responses to her teaching.

Theme 5

- The timeline for civil rights lesson plan varies.

This theme was found by asking for the specific dates that were covered when teaching the civil rights unit. It was found that the dates vary by teacher, and since historians are still debating the time frame of the civil rights movement, these findings follow their differences. Chris teaches the civil right unit in pieces where necessary throughout the school year. He mentioned,

Again, it's broke up into pieces. I do a unit on Reconstruction that takes at least a week. I spend a day or two in roughly the Progressive Era talking about Washington, Du Bois and Marcus Garvey. I do a unit on the Harlem Renaissance that lasted a couple days, and
I do an entire unit on the modern Civil Rights Movement that lasts one and a half, two weeks. I really am a firm believer in working things in where they're relevant.

When prompted by the researcher, “Rather than together?” He said,

I find that my students have a hard enough time with chronology. I'm not interested in them memorizing a lot of dates, but I think it's important that they know what order things happened in. So if I were to do just a separate unit on the African-American experience in the United States, I'm sure they would enjoy it and everything. But they wouldn't be able to place it into the context of the other things that were happening. So that's why I tend to break it into pieces and fit it in where I think it's relevant.

Chris interjects the people and events of the civil rights movement throughout the school year because he wants his students to understand the timeline chronologically and in the framework of other events. Ann starts in 1954 but does include events from the 1920s and 1930s, as well. She stated,

I know CORE was introduced in the 1940s during World War II, and they staged the sit-ins and stuff. For me, because I talk about A. Philip Randolph and the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters from the '20s, they have a little bit of a background. But the Civil Rights Movement per se, I usually generally start in 1954 with the Brown versus Board of Education.

Betsy also began her civil rights unit in 1954 and commented, “Gosh. I usually start pretty early. Normally, around Brown v. Board of Education, and moving forward from there.”

Debbie begins her unit in the late 1800s with Plessy v. Ferguson and said, “Civil rights movement… I use it as a unit and usually cover from Plessy v. Ferguson all the way until today.”

Harry also starts in the late 1800s and stated,

Interestingly enough, I start talking about civil rights obviously from 1877, which is where the course starts. Reconstruction… because we're talking about '13, '14, '15. We're talking about black codes. We read before the Constitution and we talk about going forward, Jim Crow. Then of course we have to go away from it and do industrialization. Then it always comes back. It will come back and we talk about Garvey, Du Bois and Washington. Well, those are three guys I didn't mention.

In the ’20s, we talk about the black civil rights movements, and the influx of the World War I black soldier in France and the experience that the French soldier has. I have a little video and a reading from a soldier that they do. We analyze that and we talk about how the blacks feel coming back. Look, here's this movement. Here's our renaissance. That
ties together. Then of course we lose it because of the Depression. Nobody cares about anything but food. Then we're picking back up in '54. We don't because one of the first things we take a look at is the first one, the '40s one. God, all the acronyms I've lost. I have to pick them up again.

In the '40s, there's a '40s cure, hope, something. Then we come forward. We come to '54 to Brown v. Board, which, interestingly enough, I use something that was an assignment for Smith's class, a PowerPoint for the Board v. Brown, the desegregation of schools timeline. I use that. That was one of the benefits of concurrently teaching and going to school. I would make assignments that were good.

Frances also started her civil rights unit plan in the late 1800s. She mentioned,

We go all the way from Plessy v. Ferguson. I start with that and we build our way all the way up, even into today's world, things that are going before the Supreme Court and things like that on equal rights. Really, are they equal rights? Are they state rights, are they government rights? We have great debates about it.

Plessy v. Ferguson was the starting point for Edith as well, and she said,

I take them all the way back to Plessy v. Ferguson. We talk about that, although we've already done that previously. But I feel like it's important to look at that court case versus Brown v. Board of Education, and talk about the change that's going to occur. Then we go all the way through until Martin Luther King's assassination, '68.

These teachers had a variety of starting points as well as ending points for teaching the civil rights movement. This diverse assortment of timelines correlates with history scholars, who are still debating the start and end dates of the civil rights unit which can be found in the literature review under civil rights history.

Theme 6

- Local or community history is rarely used.

Teachers were asked, specifically, Do you use local/community history in your classroom? Their responses showed that they may use a piece or two, but not much. Ann mentioned, “The Groveland Four” and told how fascinated her students were with the subject. She said, “Once the EOC and AP exam’s over, I do a lot on the Groveland Four. The kids are
just like, “What? No?” Chris also offered a few additional topics like Eatonville and the Ocoee race riot of 1912. He said,

About the only one that really works well for me locally is ... two things. One is Eatonville, of course, and our famous writer, Hurston, of course. I also do something on the Ocoee race riot of 1920, that we go over in my class. We talk about the Rosewood thing. That's about as much local. And then little odds and ends. When we're talking about the race riots, we mentioned the one that was in Jacksonville, and why there wasn't one in Orlando. We talk about the protest marches and so forth. I don't do a whole lot on local, but I do work it in where it's relevant.

Debbie, whose teaches a large Hispanic population, noted, “No. My students come from many different places. That is something that is not relevant to them, unfortunately.” Frances did not use local history in her classroom, and mentioned the difficulties involved in taking a class trip that would include community history. She disclosed,

No, I wish. I wish we were near the Holocaust one. I do a big unit on the Holocaust, but it's all the way over in Tampa. It's getting a bunch of students and taking them all there, and then taking them out of all their classes. It gets kind of hard.

Another teacher, Edith, mentions how much she would like to incorporate community history in her classroom and even discusses Harry Moore. However, although she wrote her master’s thesis on civil rights in Florida, she does not mention using very much specific Florida history in her lesson plans. Edith replied,

Not as much as I would like to. I feel like Harry T. Moore is so right in our backyard, and I would love to pull him in more. My master's thesis is on civil rights in Brevard County, and a huge portion of my thesis is on Harry T. Moore. But this was done back in the '90s when nobody really knew who that was, and I'm fishing through microfiche at USF trying to find sources. Now it's everywhere. It's a lot easier. Yeah, I would like to incorporate him more. I think I don't because of time, but it's a very interesting story, and it's local. It should be part of the curriculum. Maybe if it was presented to me...For me, I've got this much Harry T. Moore in my head and if it was presented as, "Here's a one-day group thing they could do to understand Harry T. Moore," I might be more apt to incorporate him.
These teachers, in close proximity to the Moore Cultural center, do not often include the narrative of local Florida figures in their civil rights lesson plans. Greg does not use local history in his classroom either and noted, “No. Haven’t been motivated to seek it out.”

Harry was the most enthusiastic teacher interviewed when it came to local history, and he does use it in his classroom. He revealed,

Absolutely. Zora Neale, I forgot to mention Zora Neale. I talk about Zora Neale. Of course, I talk about Mary McLeod Bethune, because I have to. I wasn't thinking civil rights, I'm thinking World War II, because she's in the World War II unit as well. We talk about Bethune, we talk about all that. And I taught Florida history at the private school for four years, five years, so I'm fairly up on that. And then Zora, I live over in Casselberry, so in Eatonville, they have that, we talk about Eatonville. I integrate Florida, because that's part of what I'm supposed to do. So that takes it local, and then, of course, current events, if anything happens in Orange County that's interesting, we talk about those types of things. And race does become an issue. Demmings, over at ONC, did something last year. We talked about a race issue because he's, you know, the president—or the sheriff is black in Orange County, so those types of issues do come up.

None of the teachers interviewed, with the exception of one, discussed the using of local, community history with much passion. The reasons for this ranged from lack of interest to lack of time to a desire for a lesson plan on Florida civil rights figures.

Many historians and educators note the importance of using local history in classrooms to engage students and to form connections. These theories can be found in the literature review in Chapter Two. Rosenzweig and Thelen (1998), and Lee and Clarke at Georgia State University discussed both the use and benefits of using community history.

Another reason that Florida teachers do not use local history may have to do with the lack of specificity in the state standards themselves. The Florida Department of Education CPALMS (2012) Sunshine State Standards for American history in high school contain suggestions only as to local figures and events to be discussed. Fourth-grade Next Generation Sunshine State Standards are much more detailed and precise in the use of local history. The following standards clearly call for the inclusion of Florida figures as well as events when teaching the civil rights
movement: SS.4.A.8.1: Identify Florida's role in the Civil Rights Movement and SS.4.A.1.1: Analyze primary and secondary resources to identify significant individuals and events throughout Florida history. If high school standards were more explicit, perhaps local, community history would be included in the classroom.

Subtheme: Central Florida History Teachers Do Not Take Classes to the Moore Cultural Center.

This subtheme was found by asking the question, have you ever been to the Harry T. Moore Cultural Center? Although Mr. Moore was also mentioned by teachers previously when discussing both local and public history, some teachers did not know who he was. Harry’s response to the question was, “Where's that at?” and “no.” Edith knew of the center but her response was still negative. She said,

No, just that it's complicated. Because I know we have a small group that does go to the Harry T. Moore Festival every year. I think it's with [indecipherable 07:04]. Yeah, I just don't know how they would do with that, you know?

Greg replied, “No” to the question and was then asked, “Do you know if anybody from this school takes students to the Moore Cultural Center?” His answer was, “I feel very certain in my answer that no social studies teachers are going on field trips to any place locally.” Ann had not been to the cultural center either; neither had Chris or Debbie. Betsy did not know of the center and replied, “No. I have not. I didn't know there was one.” So, not only did those interviewed not leave the classroom, but the majority had not even been to the Moore Cultural Center on their own. Some Florida history teachers did not know who this local, civil rights figure and martyr even was. This follows Green’s line of thinking in Before His Time: The Untold Story of Harry T. Moore, America's First Civil Rights Martyr which is also stated in Chapter One of this study. Green (1999) wrote,
I couldn’t understand why I’d never heard of Harry T. Moore. I’m a native Floridian, I’ve been a history teacher, and I pride myself on paying attention to issues like this. At first, I wondered, “Is it because I am a white guy?”—thinking that perhaps only the white community was ignorant of the story. I learned very quickly that Florida’s black community was just as unaware of Harry T. Moore (p. x).

These results confirm Green’s position.

Theme 7

- Teachers do not have a good opinion of the history textbooks they use.

This theme was found strictly through the interview process. Initially, the discussion of the textbook used was only included as to the likeliness of its use in the survey. It was also not part of the personal interviews until one teacher mentioned it so forcefully that it was then included. The sample of teachers interviewed did not have a good opinion of the textbook, even though 62% of those surveyed said they were very likely to use their textbook when teaching the civil rights unit. Betsy did not approve of the textbook being used in her county because of the lack of faces of color. She stated,

Well, probably because I realize that history books are so devoid of African-American history and African-American cultural contributions. I want my students to understand that we did more than pick cotton and run away. There were some real contributions.

Debbie did not like the fact that the textbook was designed for students at a certain reading level and said,

The main problem I have with the students, that they don't like history, it is that they are not reading up to grade level. Textbooks are designed to grade level. All the ancillary materials we have are designed for students that read up to grade level. If a student is not reading up to grade level, he's not going to understand the material. History might be the most language-demanding they have.

According to Frances, “They put the worst textbook they could up for our county. It's so watered down. I use my notes from old books, and I use my notes from other books. This is the
worst textbook. I don't know why we picked it. When asked which one she stated, 'The Florida United States History and Geography of Modern Times by McGraw Hill. It is horrible. I wouldn't recommend this for my enemy.” Greg stated, “I think it's a comic book of a textbook.”

When asked, “Why?” He replied,

Very light on content. It's got a lot of bells and whistles. We don't have access to everything, so we can't utilize them. The level of reading is significantly lower than what I would anticipate for an honors level in high school. I've identified errors.

Greg had concerns regarding the reading level of the text used and was prompted, “Do you have a specific textbook for honors or does the honors class use the same one?” He answered, “They use the same one. Honors and non-honors are getting the same text.” So Greg felt, besides having little content, the textbook should be based on students’ abilities, as did Debbie. Harry thought that the text was biased and not inclusive. The text used in his county was by McGraw-Hill, United States History & Geography: Modern Times. He stated,

Well, given the fact that the textbook is going to be biased from the very beginning, biased to a delusion, because it's biased across many levels, no matter what they say, it's never going to be inclusive. It's never. And it really is—what was the term I learned out there—half a mile wide and a half-inch deep. So that's really not anything I've ever really used a textbook per se. The kids don't like it. The kids don't like to read. They'll look at the pictures, but you've got to give them little blurbs or give them things that are interesting. My kids. Now, again, I must differentiate between the level of academia at which I'm teaching versus perhaps someone who's not me.

My kids are not going to read a textbook. It's the Devil as far as they're concerned. The fact that I use last year's textbook—and shh, shh, don't tell Orange County—that's the actual book they used. That book is worthless, absolutely worthless. I don't know who the heck thought that you could fit all of American history in 262 pages.

At this point in the discussion, Harry was very passionate about the textbook and he continued with,

Now, there's the second one that was supposed to have been the Honors curriculum. I do not have the Honors classes; therefore, I was not given the Honors curriculum. This is the book that I was given for my basic—oh; I'm sorry—for the ones and twos. It's woefully inadequate, woefully inadequate. Now, what does it do? First-year teacher on the corner, zip through the book, straight through the book, finish well in time for a week and a half,
two weeks of review for the EOC in April. If you stick to the book and you don't really
digress, you didn't do a whole lot of added stuff, if you stick to the book and you stick to
the readings and you stick to the notes and you stick to the basic 20th-century teaching
plan, beautiful. It's right through, you're zipped, and you’ve got plenty of time to review.

So as far as being like an AP book, yeah, but if you look at it, it's like a third-grade level.
It has pictures. It’s that, you know that textbook-building they're trying to do with the
snap, snap, snap, the ADHD generation we teach and trying to get short reading, lots of
graphic images, lots of things like that.

But I have a lesson plan that's designed around that textbook, and given the fact that U.S.
history really hasn't changed that much, I don't really even—I get a class set of these and
put them over there. I'm not even going to bother with it. I went to the training downtown
when they were integrating both of the books, and I looked at both of the books, and I
said, "Well, I'm going to end up with this one. I'm just going to use the one that I had,
because this one is not really reinventing the wheel at any certain degree."

Edith did not have a good opinion of the text either and said,

I’ll give you an example of the vocabulary that is highlighted and defined for them in the
margin, because we were laughing about it in class the other day. The word gender.
[laughs] I have one child who’s extremely intelligent, and he’s very focused. He said,
“Miss Smith, look in the book here. They’ve got ‘gender’ defined, like we don’t know
what gender is” [laughs] I’ve gone through the whole book at this point, pretty much read
the whole thing, because I make study guides for my kids. Some of the things filled in
some of the holes that the other book had, but it’s just very incomplete and inadequate,
and way below their level.

None of the teachers interviewed had a good opinion of the texts used in their counties to
teach American history, and their responses ranged from “watered down,” to “a comic book” to
“inadequate” with one reading level being used regardless of the students’ abilities. And it is
important to reiterate that, this being said, 62% of those surveyed were very likely to use the
textbooks when teaching the civil rights movement.

Theme 8

- Teachers have an impact on how students feel about history.
This theme emerged when teachers were asked whether their students liked history and, as was discussed in Chapters One and Two, some students still dislike history. However, the majority of teachers interviewed felt that they made a difference as to students and their enjoyment in history. Betsy’s students did not connect to history. When she was asked if her students liked history, Betsy said,

No. [laughs] Because they don't see it as relevant to them. Why should I care about what happened two days ago, let alone 500 years ago? Because they live in the moment. No, most of them don't like history. But again, I try to make it something that they are going to be able to understand, relevant to where they are today. And how history actually played a part in where we are today.’’

Debbie agreed that her students did not like history either, and replied to the same question, “They find it boring.” When prompted on what else they said besides the fact that history was boring, she stated, “It's a lot of work…. They don't like to read.” Greg felt that students started his classes not liking history, but found it interesting by the end of the school year. He commented,

If you asked them, they would say no. They don't typically like it especially at the beginning of the year. By the end of the year, I probably have more students that said, "You've made it interesting." Whether they like it yet or not, that’s undeterminable.

So to Greg, whether students liked history after finishing his class was still undetermined, but at least they found it interesting. Frances and Edith responded in the same way with, “I think so.” Then Edith went on to say, “Some of them are coming to me, and you can tell they’re science-oriented or math-oriented, and they don't want to be bothered. But I think a lot of them like it.” Frances felt, because she made her classes exciting and fun, that her students engaged with the subject. She stated,

I think so. I get students from the past, especially some who have gone on to be teachers, they'll email me or send me letters and say they're a teacher because of me or they majored in history because of me. They say I make it exciting, because I'm a little crazy. I make it fun.
Harry also mentioned the role of the teacher in engaging students in the subject of history. He answered,

No…. Most people don't like history because prior to getting to me, it was rote memorization. It was facts and dates. It was homework and things like that. That's not how I teach. When they leave me, they like history.

Because Harry did not have students memorize historical facts, students finishing his class liked history. Chris agreed with Harry and went on to speculate that if a student liked his or her teacher, then he or she might like the subject. He said, “Most of mine do. But they like me. I'm sorry, but that's serious. They like the way I do it.” He was then prompted, “We’re saying that if students like you, they're liable to like the subject?” and Chris replied, “Quite often. My approach is [that] I tend to teach history as a series of stories. That seems to go over well.” Greg agreed that teachers can hook students on the subject of history. When asked, “We could say that because you made it interesting, you might have hooked more students on history than previously, before they came in?” he answered, “Which is my goal.” To confirm his response and to go one step farther, Greg was asked, “Can we state, from there, that a teacher has an impact on whether students like or dislike history?” And his reply, “Absolutely, yes.” confirmed the theme that teachers have an impact on how students feel about history.

Other Findings and Voices

It is also important to note significant statements that did not turn into themes but stood out on their own. Greg felt that teachers still did not do a good job teaching the civil rights movement. He stated,

But I do want to say this. Based on my own experience in learning civil rights at UCF and the continuing education that I felt compelled to pursue, I still think we do a pretty poor job at teaching the civil rights. I'm guilty of it myself. Whatever the reason, at least in the southern states, we're not being historically honest. We're giving the politically correct... We're sugar coating the history, out of sensitivity to the race relations. More
often, at least, some of the colleagues I spoke to are very gun shy about talking about the civil rights movement, out of fear that something they say is going to be misconstrued, taken out of context and then have the experience I did. That's been the case more than I care to admit.

Not only did Greg feel that teachers in the South were not being historically accurate, but he thought the teachers might be concerned about teaching the subject because of the sensitivity of race relations.

Another finding was that the content teachers use in their classrooms may be a reflection of who they are. When discussing the content she used in her classroom to teach the civil rights movement, an African American teacher stated,

A lot of the Harlem Renaissance people. I'm an artist myself. I write, so I'm very interested in the arts. I try to reach the students that don't know a lot about a lot of different people that really aren't spoken about in the history books. Right off the top of my head, I can't really think of anybody in particular. But a lot of sports figures, a lot of writers, composers, people that may have been involved in the Civil War that we don't know anything about, those types of people. Because Rosa Parks, and Harriet Tubman and Sojourner Truth, all those folks always come up all the time.”

A different teacher who was Hispanic, when discussing the content used in her civil rights unit plan commented, “Robert Moses, Fannie Lou Hamer, Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, Malcolm X. Who else? Jesse Jackson, Those are the top of my head.” In her classroom, Hispanic figures were used.

This finding confirms the theory of Costigan and Crocco (2004) found in Chapter One that meaningful teaching depends on who the instructor is and what he or she has experienced. Costigan and Crocco stated, “Teaching is not only a skill, a set of learned lessons for delivering a lesson; who you are, what you think, and how you feel about the people, social conditions, and structure of education matter in an essential way” (p. 7). For two of the teachers interviewed, who they were influenced their teaching.
During both the surveys and interviews, teachers were asked if they had anything else they would like to discuss regarding the teaching of the civil rights movement. Edith wanted to delve into engaging students in history. She stated,

I don't even know. I think kids would be bored with that, if you had people come to the schools and do a seminar or something. I remember, one time, I took a day off and went and listened to a guy that was a Holocaust victim. Living history, to me, is always amazing compared to just reading it in a book. You've got to make it interesting today. You've got to make the kids feel connected. They're walking around with their iPhones, their iPods, the Internet. If we don't incorporate any of that stuff in, we lose them. If we just use the textbook, we lose them. We need to do other things. Sometimes we'll say get your smart phone out and they'll have one. I know all schools don't, but our school they all have one. In fact, they all have a better phone than I do. I'll have them do stuff on the phone because that's what they're used to.

We need to teach to the climate we have now and it's nothing like it was when we were young, and nothing like it was 10 years ago. We need to keep up. That's why I'm thinking sometimes, as teachers, we fall short. I don't think it's the teachers, I think it's the bureaucracy of the administration and the whole bureaucracy of the school system and legislative and stuff. They tie our hands to keep us not teaching how the kids are learning. Everything, it's all about a test.

I'm telling you, my students learn more from doing the Great Depression games that they made and they were proud of where we all sat and played different games and everyone's game and learned stuff than taking a multiple choice test. But you can't get anyone to understand that. That just drives me nuts.

To Edith, one of the most important factors was making history interesting and relevant, especially to today’s tech savvy students.

Summary of Findings

Nine themes were found in this study with some results being expected. On the whole, central Florida teachers do a better job than has been thought by both educators and historians on teaching the civil rights movement. Not only do they include more than Martin Luther King, Jr. in their unit plans but they also use more than the textbook. However, they do not include or use local community history or public history.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to describe the experience of high
school teachers when teaching the civil rights movement, to report the content and methods
being used in central Florida classrooms as well as the factors that might contribute to this
phenomenon. The primary research questions for this study were

- How is the civil rights movement being taught in Florida?
- What is the lived experience of Central Florida history teachers related to their teaching
  of civil rights history?
- What people, places, and events are taught during the unit in the civil rights movement?
- What methods are being used?
- Is the teaching method lecturing or student-centered?
- Are primary sources being used?
- What factors, if any, contribute to what is being taught?

These questions were answered, and nine themes and two subthemes were found, along
with statistical data from the surveys comparing responses and demographics. Each theme can be
related back to a research question. Therefore, each research question was answered and
additional information was also found. Table 22 shows how each theme relates back to each
research questions.
### Table 22

**Research Questions and Themes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How is the civil rights movement being taught in Florida?</td>
<td>Theme 1-Teachers use more than MLK and Rosa Parks.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theme 2-Teachers use more than just the text.</td>
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<tr>
<td>What is the lived experience of Central Florida history teachers related to their teaching of civil rights history?</td>
<td>Themes 1-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What people, places, and events are taught during the unit in the civil rights movement?</td>
<td>Theme 1-Teachers use more than MLK.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theme 6-Teachers rarely use local history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What methods are being used?</td>
<td>Theme 2-Teachers use more than the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the teaching method lecturing or student-centered?</td>
<td>Theme 2-Teachers use more than the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are primary sources being used?</td>
<td>Theme 2-Teachers use more than the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What factors, if any, contribute to what is being taught?</td>
<td>Theme 7-Teachers do not have a good opinion of the texts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theme 1**

- Teachers use more than Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks.

In terms of the content being taught in central Florida American history classes when teaching the civil rights movement, this study found that more than just Martin Luther King and Rosa Parks were being taught, which is in conflict with the theories of Mormino (2003), Dunn (2005), and Alridge (2002). However, these historians also believe that only the national story is being taught in classrooms, which was confirmed by this research. So, although central Florida teachers include more figures in their unit plan on civil rights, these people are all part of the
national story, and local community history is used sparingly, if at all. This finding leads to the question of why this occurs. Is it the time frame, the teacher’s ethnic background, state standards, or the ethnicity found in different classrooms? The only answer available is that it is not the Sunshine State Standards, which do offer more than Martin Luther King, Jr., and Rosa Parks, as seen in the following standards.

- **SS.912.A.7.4** - Evaluate the success of 1960s era presidents' foreign and domestic policies. (e.g., civil rights legislation, Space Race, Great Society).
- **SS.912.A.7.5** - Compare nonviolent and violent approaches utilized by groups (African Americans, Women, Native Americans, Hispanics) to achieve civil rights.
- **SS.912.A.7.6** - Assess key figures and organizations in shaping the Civil Rights Movement and Black Power Movement. (Urban League, SNCC, CORE, Charles Houston, Thurgood Marshall, Rosa Parks, Constance Baker Motley, the Little Rock Nine, Roy Wilkins, Whitney M. Young, Philip Randolph, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Robert F. Williams, Fannie Lou Hamer, Malcolm X (El Hajj Malik El Shabazz), Stokely Carmichael (Kwame Ture), H. Rap Brown (Jamil Abdullah Al Amin), the Black Panther Party (e.g., Huey P. Newton, Bobby Seale).
- **SS.912.A.7.7** - Assess the building of coalitions between African Americans, whites, and other groups in achieving integration and equal rights. (e.g., Freedom Summer, Freedom Rides, Montgomery Bus Boycott, Tallahassee Bus Boycott of 1956, March on Washington).
- **SS.912.A.7.8** - Analyze significant Supreme Court decisions relating to integration, busing, affirmative action, the rights of the accused, and reproductive rights. (e.g., *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), busing *Swann v Charlotte*

- SS.912.A.7.9 - Examine the similarities of social movements (Native Americans, Hispanics, women, antiwar protesters) of the 1960s and 1970s. (floridastandards.org, p. 61).

Theme 2

- Teachers use more than the textbook when teaching the civil rights unit.

When discussing the types of methods used to teach the civil rights movement, it was found that central Florida teachers use more than the textbook. Primary sources, discussions, multiple perspectives, film, and DBQs are more likely to be used than the text. This finding is contrary to what educators and historians believe. Barton and Levstik (2004) believe that teachers do not always include historical inquiry because they want to fit in and Levy (2004) feels that it is because of how much material they have to cover in one school year. Regardless, those who participated in this survey, do use historical inquiry ($M = 3.29$), which means that those surveyed were more than somewhat likely to use inquiry in their classrooms. Does this mean that central Florida is an anomaly or that teachers do not have faith in the text? Or it is possible that the truth was exaggerated?

Age was a factor when comparing the means of the likelihood of using a text. The likelihood of using a text rose by age group. Was this because of the apprenticeship of observation where teachers use the methods they observed as students? Were older teachers taught only using a textbook and so they use it as well? Or does it follow Barton and Levstik’s ideas (2004) that teachers want to fit in? These are all good ideas for debate and further study.
Theme 3

- The impact that the end-of-course exam has on U. S. history.

Students in central Florida American history classes took an end-of-the-year exam this year, 2013, for the first time. This exam was taken on April 25, five weeks before the end of school, which cut the timeline of American history by five weeks. Some teachers continued on with the study of history, while others did not. Even those who continued after the end-of-course exam spoke of the absentees in their classes after that date due to other tests. This appears to be another example of how the tests Florida students have to take affects what goes on in the classroom. If students are really losing the last five or six weeks of classes, all classes that is, we are cutting into their time learning. Educators, administrators, and politicians need to pay careful attention to what is happening because of the increased number of tests and ask themselves whether the testing results are significant enough to warrant losing five weeks of education.

Subtheme: Not Enough Time

The subtheme of not enough time in a day to really pass on to students everything they need to learn to become participating adults is a familiar subject with educators. History is not the only subject with this issue. American history part two starts with reconstruction and continues to current day. It is very difficult to cover more than 150 years of history in a school year. Many teachers are lucky to get to the 1970s, and that leaves a huge part of current history and its impacts and lessons untold.

Theme 4

- The length of the civil rights lesson plan varies.
No consensus was found as to the number of days teachers spent on their civil rights unit plan. The length of a unit cannot only be based on state standards but must also take into account the interest of students in the subject, the passion of the teacher, where the unit falls into the school year, and the teacher’s definition of exactly what the civil rights movement is. Should the length of the civil rights line be standardized, or is it good enough to cater to the interests of a group of students?

Theme 5

- The timeline for civil rights lesson plan varies.

The actual timeline, or beginning and ending dates, for the civil rights movement also varies in central Florida classrooms. This finding concurs with the debate occurring among historians as to when the civil rights movement started and as to whether it continues today. The most common definition of the timeline of the civil rights unit is the time period from the 1950s to 1970, especially for those scholars who lived in these times (Cashman, 1991). Hall and Sugrue argue that it started in the 1920s to 1930s, while both Aldridge and Fairclough state that it started as a “long history” and began in the late 1800s (Aldrich, 2011). Most revisionists agree that it occurred across the entire country and still exists today except for Aldridge in *Becoming American: The African American Quest for Civil Rights, 1861–1976* who believes that the movement ended in 1976.

This brings up the discussion of what time periods should be used when teaching the civil rights movement. Florida state standards do not include much outside the timeline of the 1950s-1970s except for *Plessy V. Ferguson*, which was decided in 1896 and really is the precursor for the legislation that was written in the 1960s and 1970s. The questions are then: what timeline
should be taught in Florida schools, and should it be taught together as one unit, which was what was found by the majority in this study, or woven throughout the scholar, which did occur in one classroom? These are all legitimate questions that should be addressed by educators.

Theme 6

- Local or community history is rarely used.

Even though local history is found in the standards in Florida, it is rarely used. These results were supported in the surveys and interviews, and although a few people and events were mentioned, such as Eatonville or Zora Neale Hurston, these figures did not appear in every civil rights movement lesson plan. So the question for further discussion is: why not? Is local, community history not being used because of time constraint, lack of materials, the diversity of students?

The use of Florida history in American history classrooms is one of the standards pertaining to every chapter of history. Sunshine State Standard, SS.912.A.6.15 states

Examine key events and peoples in Florida history as they relate to United States History (e. g., Mosquito Fleet, "Double V Campaign," construction of military bases and WWII training centers, 1959 Cuban coup and its impact on Florida, development of the space program and NASA, Harry T. Moore). (floridastandards.org, p. 61).

As seen in this study, there are plenty of local figures or topics that could be included but they are not. Maybe adding more specific, local figures to each chapter of American history would be beneficial in Florida standards. Then all teachers would know whom to include in their unit plans.
Subtheme: Central Florida History Teachers Do Not Take Classes to the Moore Cultural Center.

The topics of local history and public history are sometimes difficult to distinguish because they can be inseparable. Harry T. Moore is an example of both. He is a local figure whose life is celebrated in a cultural center in Mims, Florida. Teachers not only rarely use public history, but they do not even take advantage of it when it is available and in their own backyard. The Moore Center is located on the central Florida coast in Mims, Florida. Even those teachers who taught in a school approximately 14 miles from the Harry T. and Harriet V. Moore Cultural Center did not take classes there, although it was mentioned that a group of language arts teachers did.

Theme 7

- Teachers do not have faith in their history textbooks.

As mentioned in Chapter Four, 62% of teachers surveyed were very likely to use the textbook in their civil rights movement lesson plans. However, those surveyed thought that the American history textbooks they used were inadequate. This should be a red flag for administrators that something is wrong. The reasons why teachers did not have faith in their textbooks along with the reasons why they are still being used so prevalently need to be discussed.

Theme 8

- Teachers have an impact on how students feel about history.

This is a subject that is becoming more prevalent in the subject of education. Numerous studies now point to the impact of the teachers on how students feel about history. Chiodo and Byford (2004) discovered in their research that “active involvement and teacher enthusiasm”
caused the students to think about the subject of social studies in a positive light. Many teachers in this study agreed that their teaching style or passion for the subject improved students’ feelings toward history. These ideas are confirmed by this study.

Limitations

First, this study is limited because only teachers in three central Florida counties were surveyed and interviewed. There is also the possibility that this group might not be a good representative selection or not “typical” of other high schools in the rest of Florida or even in the nation. Second, some teachers are not receptive to suggestions on how to teach, and therefore may falsify their answers because of embarrassment. Others may not be totally truthful because they know me personally. Lastly, another limitation is that this researcher did the interviews on her own. Although audiotaping was used, sometimes it is helpful to have another pair of eyes and ears present.

Implications

Suggestions from this research are relevant to both the fields of education and social studies. Since little empirical data exist on the teaching of history in Florida, the implications of this research are groundbreaking. This research contains data on the teaching of the civil rights movement that can be used to refocus how the topic should be reworked and to consider how other subjects in American history are also being taught. The results of this study show that the content or subject matter in the classroom needs to be amended to include the use of local history where it exists, as does the use of public history. It is also apparent that very few teachers have faith in the textbooks chosen by their school districts and that the end-of-course exams are
cutting into valuable teaching time. The results of this study therefore, benefit teachers, students, school administrators, and researchers.

This study demonstrates that while teachers are using more than just the text as a source in their classrooms, there is an issue in central Florida high schools regarding the use of public history and community or local history. These types of histories are not being used, and, therefore, there may be a lack of engagement between the subject of American history and students. In terms of the civil rights movement, community history exists and is readily available, but it is not being used. Public history, for example in museums, also exists in central Florida, and these are not being utilized either. The biggest question that needs to be asked is why not? Why aren’t teachers using these resources?

Educators need to question whether our future teachers are being properly trained. Does this gap have anything to do with the fact that many colleges and universities house the education department under a different umbrella from the history department? Is this the apprenticeship of observation? It does not appear to be the case, since so many teachers are now including multiple perspectives in their unit plans. Is the lack of community history’s being used in the classroom the result of improper training in teaching or in teaching the specific discipline? These are all questions that need to be discussed, and educating for future teachers’ teaching may need to be restructured.

Another issue of concern is the American history textbooks themselves. The texts used in these central Florida counties are not well respected, although they are still being used by more than 80% of the teachers. It is reality that an American history textbook cannot cover every topic in detail, but we should be asking ourselves whether the covered topics are the important ones. Is every “man”—person—represented, or are too many textbooks still the story of White, Anglo-
Saxon, Protestant, Males? These findings should be a warning to all educators and administrators to rethink the texts being used to teach American history.

The debate over how social studies should be taught has gone on for more than 100 years but still exists today. Why can’t educators agree on how social studies should be taught? This research shows that teaching methods have changed and that teachers are using more than just the textbooks in their classrooms. Now the topics themselves need to be adjusted to include pieces that engage diverse students with different learning styles.

And then there is the question of testing. End-of-course exams in central Florida are cutting out weeks of classroom time that could be better spent actually educating students instead of testing and retesting them. What do these tests really show us? Are the tests important enough to lose weeks of learning? This research shows that teachers feel the impact of lost time in their classes.

These data alone can show teachers what else is offered in terms of content and teaching methods from which students will benefit. School administrators can see what is happening in their area and decide to follow a certain method of instruction. Educators and teachers can push for better textbooks and less testing. One of the most serious threats found in this research is that without the use of local history, students may not become engaged in the subject. These results are not just found in Florida alone and should be a red flag to educators. As Loewen (2007) so eloquently stated “We’ve got to do better. Five-sixths of all Americans never take a course in American history beyond high school. What our citizens ‘learn’ in high school forms much of what they know about the past” (p. 8). It is time to change this phenomenon.
Suggestions for Future Research

This is a subject that can proceed in many directions. Other counties in Florida could be added to the study to describe the teaching of the civil rights movement in their classrooms. The topic could then be expanded to include the rest of the country, and it would be interesting again to note whether local history is being included in the discussion of the civil rights movement in places where it does exist, such as with Harry T. Moore and Florida. Elementary schools could also be surveyed to see if these schools are teaching more than just the national story and to describe what types of pedagogical methods are being used. Again, elementary schools could be studied locally at first, and then the study can be moved to a national sample.

This method of study, starting with a survey and then moving on to personal interviews, could also be used to describe any other subject in American history or just the teaching of history in general. This type of study could also be modified into just quantitative study wherein a survey could be used to target a large number of teachers on the subject of teaching history. A pure qualitative study could also be done, as could a case study of teaching history.

In terms of the teaching of the civil rights movement, a testing of a specific curriculum containing the narratives of ordinary people using historical inquiry is planned for next April, which is when the subject is taught locally. Not only could the testing of this topic be studied, but curriculums for other history subjects could be studied as well.

The testing of content and methods being used in America’s high school history classes on other topics of American history would also be worthwhile, as would just the study of content on its own or just pedagogical methods. The use of local, community history as well as public history could also be studied, locally and nationally, to describe its use. Research can continue on this project at the local, state, or national level, and many similar inquiries on a range of different topics can be implemented.
Concluding Thoughts

Unfortunately, the debate over how history is being taught is still contentious, and educators, historians, administrators and teachers are unhappy. Barton and Levstik (2004) summed up this feeling:

No one likes the way history is taught. Conservatives think it’s too multicultural, and multiculturalists think it is too conservative. Politicians say it doesn’t promote patriotism and social reformers say it doesn’t promote critical reflection. Advocates of social studies fret that history receives too much emphasis, and history specialists fret that it doesn’t receive enough. Lawmakers argue schools should teach to the test, and schools argue they should teach the way they think best. Researchers criticize teachers for not using primary sources, teachers criticize students for not wanting to learn, and students criticize textbooks for being deadly boring. What a mess (p. 1).

Research such as that conducted in this study offers a starting place for how the teaching of the civil rights movement is being handled in the state of Florida in terms of the content and methods. It can be a starting place for change. Teachers in this study have taken the first step and are using teaching strategies that include more than the textbook. However, using local history, an intimate, personal way for students to connect to the past, is not being used consistently in every American history class in high schools in central Florida, although it is available, nor has it been incorporated into Florida state standards.
Teaching the Civil Rights Movement

Place an “X” in the box that best fits your response.

When thinking about teaching the civil rights movement, how likely are you to include the following people, places, and events in your lesson plans?

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<td>Black Panthers</td>
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When thinking about teaching the civil rights movement in terms of methods, which of the following are you likely to use?
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<td>To what type of class do you teach the civil rights movement? Place an X all that apply.</td>
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If you would like to participate in a follow up interview, please list your contact information, i.e. name and email or phone number.

____________________________________________________________

Thank You for Your Time!
APPENDIX B: PERSONAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
1. What type of history do you teach?
2. To what type of student?
3. When teaching the civil rights movement, who else do you include besides Martin Luther King, Jr. and Rosa Parks?
4. Why or why not?
5. Does time have anything to do with your decisions?
6. Do your students generally like history?
7. Why or why not?
8. What type of teaching methods do you use when teaching the civil rights movement?
9. Where did you learn these techniques?
10. Are your students engaged when you use these techniques?
11. What type of sources do you use in your classroom when teaching the civil rights movement?
12. Why?
13. How long is your civil rights lesson plan?
14. What dates does it cover?
15. Do you use community/local history in your classroom?
16. How about when teaching the civil rights unit?
17. How do you incorporate it into your classroom?
18. Do you use public history when teaching the civil rights unit?
19. Specifically what types?
20. Have you ever been to the Moore Cultural Center?
21. Have you taken a class there?
22. Why or why not?
23. What type of civil rights history did you learn on college?
24. In high school?
25. Where were you educated?
APPENDIX C: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL
Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00001138
To: Barbara A. Houser
Date: March 11, 2013

Dear Researcher:

On 03/11/2013, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

- Type of Review: Exempt Determination
- Project Title: Teaching the Civil Rights Movement
- Investigator: Barbara A Houser
- IRB Number: SBE-13-09180
- Funding Agency:
- Grant Title: 
- Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual. On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 03/11/2013 02:51:35 PM EST
IRB Coordinator
APPENDIX D: THEME BOOK WITH CODES, THEMES, AND SIGNIFICANT STATEMENTS
**Theme Book with themes and significant statements.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Quotations/ Significant Statements</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1</strong> – Teachers use more than MLK and Rosa Parks</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Ann- “I talk about Malcolm X. I talk about Meredith. I talk about...You just said people in general, so not just African-Americans? Because, like, I teach about Bull Conner, Randolph, A. Philip Randolph is a huge one. JFK, Civil Rights Act, 1964, signed, of course, by Lyndon B. Johnson, and then his brother, Robert Kennedy...1968 Olympic Games, Carlos and they gave the Black Panther symbol and their medals were stripped. Linda Brown and Thurgood Marshall. That's huge, Brown versus Board of Education. Absolutely have to teach that, because they have to know Plessy versus Ferguson. It gets overturned. Linda Brown, Thurgood Marshall, Rosa Parks. I'm just trying to go through my timeline here.

I do Little Rock Nine. I don't want to say that's it, but I'm drawing a blank at this point. That's the main people we cover.”

Betsy-“A lot of the Harlem Renaissance people. I'm an artist, myself. I write, so I'm very interested in the arts. I try to reach the students that don't know a lot about a lot of different people that really aren't spoken about in the history books. Right off the top of my head, I can't really think of anybody in particular. But a lot of sports figures, a lot of writers, composers, people that may have been involved in the Civil War that we don't know anything about, those types of people. Because Rosa Parks and Harriet Tubman and
Sojourner Truth, all those folks always come up all the time.”

Chris - “There are quite a few people in there. This is off the top of my head, OK? Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Du Bois, Marcus Garvey. Rosa Parks, Dr. King, Malcolm X, quite a few groups like the Black Panthers and so forth. Ralph Abernathy. Quite a few individuals, actually. I mean, I could go through my lesson plans, I’m sure there are more.

Debbie: “Robert Moses, Fannie Lou Hammer, Cesar Chavez, Dolores Huerta, Malcolm X. Who else? Jesse Jackson, Those are the top of my head.

Frances: “Martin Luther King, Rosa Parks. I do the ERA Amendment and we do the ERA rights. I do Brown vs. Board of Education. Let's see, off the top of my head...I do not do the Moore. I know that was on the list, and I don't do them. I do the Alabama, the registering the voters. If I have a time where I know I'm not going to have a lot of kids sometimes because of testing, or field trips or something, sometimes I show the "Secret Life of Bees," which really shows how people were treating in the south, in a movie that the kids will sit and not be bored through. I use that a lot. [laughs]

Edith: “Malcolm X, Stokely Carmichael, Emmett Till, Medgar Evers, Harry T. Moore...Think back to my unit. I may think of others as we go through.

Greg: ”Rosa Parks. Also bring in Medgar Evers. We talk about Thurgood Marshall, as a chief prosecutor in the NAACP. We also talk about Malcolm X, as an alternative perspective. We include Stokely Carmichael in the discussion, as somebody who went from one extreme of nonviolence, to one of a little bit more aggressive approach with SNCC. We also talk about...His name is escaping me now. Emmett Till. We start with Emmett Till and
then we come forward. Those are some of the people. I'm sure there's more. I'd have to look at my notes.

Harry “Malcolm. We look at Bobby Seale. We take a look at Stokely, definitely Stokely, Black Power, we take at the Black Power, Stokely Carmichael. We do a lot of primary source stuff. We look at people. We watch the Birmingham stuff. Bull Connor, if you want to look at the other side of that obviously we need to include him. We do look at Bull Connor. We talk about Kennedy's involvement in it, those types of things. Obviously the presidential issues are in there at that level. We take a look at, and I don't know the guy's name and I should by now because I show the clip, the white guy that gets his face kicked in on The Freedom Ride. We see them.

Lewis, we talk about Lewis, because he's in the news again because they were coming back with trying to repeal the Voter's Rights Act of 65. I don't know if you saw that. That was really nice. I could pull Lewis in and then show Lewis, and that was happening concurrently, which was really cool.

They kind of laughed. They didn't laugh at him, but he talks a little high pitched. When they saw him talking in the first part of it, I said, "I'm going to show you something in about a week or so, and you're not going to laugh at that guy." I was pretty pissed. They started kind of making fun of him.

I said, "You don't understand. That guy got his face kicked in so he could stand there." Then I showed them that, and I was able to tie that together. That worked well. I'm sure there are several I'm forgetting in the Civil Rights Movement, if you're talking about the
black Civil Rights Movement.

Now I integrate into the Civil Rights Movement AIM. We talk about the American Indian Movement. I integrate the Women's Rights Movement into the Civil Rights Movement. We talk about Caesar Chavez. I always get him and Jake O'Hara mixed up. Caesar Chavez and, oh my God I'm going to forget her name, there's a woman....

Ann- I have never, even been a teacher that says, "I teach to the test." I'm one of those rebels who say, "I will never do that." I'm never one to belittle our educational system or try to be one of those that's just, "You're so pessimistic," because that's not my character. But unfortunately, the times are changing and it's come to the point where, due to time constraints, depending on how much time I have, I wish I had a lot more time to teach civil rights and I don't, I gear it towards what potentially will be on the test. I'd love to spend a whole day doing a Socratic seminar on literacy tests and let's talk about specific entrances to Mercy, Mississippi or Alabama or the Little Rock Nine. Let's talk about Central High School. I mention it. I don't have time to get into a real good discussion or Socratic seminar about it, because of the time constraints. Really and truly, it's kind of like, if it's not overly important or one of those added pieces of history, we don't get too detailed.

**Theme 2-** Teachers use more than the text.

Ann- “Again, got to love social studies. We're the first ones to be tested for US history.
The EOC for US history, a year course, is April 29th. Five full weeks before the end of school. We don't get out of school until June 5th. But they're tested April 29th. So then you look and go, "After the test, I've got five weeks to go, 'Well, the test is done.'"

So then you start doing projects and stuff. But you really find yourself, especially at the end, you start going, "Oh." When you hit February, "Whoa, I'm running out of time. It's February. I've got Spring Break. I'm going to lose a week in March."

Debbie- “Oh, yes. Unfortunately, yeah. There are a lot of topics that because of time constraint, because end-of-course exam that I administered yesterday. We still have five more weeks to go, and I already administered the end-of-course exam. Yes, timing is a big problem. What I do is I cater it depending on the population I have. If I have more African Americans in the group, I tend to emphasize on their part. If I have more Hispanics depending where the Hispanics are from, then I go to the Chicano movement or then I go to Allulak. It depends.”

Edith-“The end-of-course exam was on April 26th this year and I'm still teaching, so obviously then my kids didn't get all of the curriculum. It impacts, because it causes me to want to just go to this whole, "OK, let's just lecture and move through quickly, because we have to get ready for the EOC." I think it shortchanges the kids by focusing on the test, and when that is, and manipulating your curriculum to fit that, which I haven't done yet.

Greg-“: Yeah, I would say so. The civil rights movement is something towards the end of the year. Now, that we're affected by end of course exams and a series of testing for other subjects, my kids are being pulled all the time. The last two months of the school year, I
almost never have a full class of students. They're all being pulled out at different times, for different testing. For me, I feel the crunch, especially now with the common core for social studies, in getting everything in, in time so that they're ready to go for the EOC.

If I'm being evaluated on that EOC that's given at the end of April, I've just lost an entire month of May in instruction time. The civil rights movement usually falls in line with the end of April. Now, I've got to back that up. If I want to get to Reagan by the end of April, everything has to be sped up.

Harry “With the end-of-course exam being in April. I'm going back now and teaching the things that it just killed me to not teach, because I couldn't. I didn't have the time. So yeah, that's something. Civil rights - I did not skirt on civil rights, and I did not skirt of Vietnam. I can't skirt on Vietnam, because it's a pet to me. And I couldn't skirt on civil rights, because the kids dig it. I teach minorities. This is a minority population. We white folks are minorities here.

So the ability to hook the kids with showing them the police dogs and saying, "Hey, look, they were throwing fire hoses on these kids, and these kids are your age." It's just too important, and I also was kind of guessing that they might have put some stuff on the EOC about it.

We guessed incorrectly that they would go ariel with the questioning, that they would give us maybe six or eight from 1900 back. They'd give us two on the World War I era, oh, maybe one on the '20s and the Harlem Renaissance.

We figured that and then when we were looking at civil rights, we were like, "Well,
you've got to have 5 things - at least 5 or 6 questions out of 60." And then of course they didn't do anything from what we understand from the children. But time is always a critical issue.

**Theme 3**-The impact that the EOC has on teaching history.

Ann-“The buzzword now, especially in Lake County, is collaboration. There has to be a lot of collaboration. In fact, whoever's going to listen to this can't say this, but, right now, my desks are set up in rows. This is a big no-no. They don't like this. They want the kids sitting in collaborative groups and discussing. For a long time of the year, that's exactly what I did. It works great. Problem is it's time consuming. "Take a few minutes to talk about it with your group. Let's share out." Like I said, you come back from Spring Break and I'm going, "Oh my Gosh. I have no choice but to lecture." I hate that. I don't want to be a lecturer.”

. I use a lot of video clips. YouTube is awesome. There's something called TeacherTube, so you can get to it. When we talk about the March on Washington, I'll show a clip of it. I'll show Dr. Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" speech. They make a lot of videos
themselves, too, and we'll share those out.

I like to tell a story as I told you, but as I tell them the story, I like to put faces to names. So I'll use my Smart Board, and I'll bring up pictures of people. For me, I rely a lot on Internet resources, video clips, texts.”

Betsy “A lot of visuals. I know this is very hands on, very visual. "Can I see it? Can I touch it? Can I feel it?" “It has to be quick, has to be entertaining. Yet thought-provoking. I do a lot of discussion and try to tie in where we are today, compared to the era that we're studying at that particular time”: I do a lot of readings from particular periods. I taught the Harlem Renaissance a couple of years ago, about four years, with a group at University High School. We wound up doing some writings. They did their own personal writings. We did a lot of reading of Langston Hughes, Zora Neale Hurston and some of the other Renaissance writers. Letting them read a lot and write and connect with the period. They did a presentation, during Black History Month, on the Harlem Renaissance. Also Motown. It was very funny. We also did a chronological musical, going from slavery from present day.”

Chris

- “do the usual things. I give them notes, usually in the form of PowerPoints that I can accompany with visuals and music. That kind of thing, to go with it. My students do quite a bit of work with primary sources. Including what we call DBQs, document-based-questions. They do quite a few of those. In fact, not long ago, they did one on Dr. King and Malcolm X, where they had to create a chart comparing the differences and similarities between the two men on a series of issues. I do use video when it's appropriate. When I do, they almost
always have a study guide that they have to complete, while they're watching the film, to keep their attention on it. The best one I have for civil rights is a 90 minute, condensed version of Eyes on the Prize. Which is the one I like to use the most for the civil rights movement.”

Frances-“I base it upon common core and the standards that I have to teach and then I try to throw things in to keep the kids interested. I do PowerPoint lectures and in most of my lectures I throw in YouTube things, with different things all the time, so I'll break out my lecture and they'll watch a little bit of a clip and keep going so it makes it real. I do a DBQ with the equal rights amendment where the kids work on that in the classroom and I divide them up into groups. I do a huge case, I forgot about this, a DBQ with Malcolm X versus Martin Luther King and how they looked at civil rights a little bit differently. And I have the kids make a magazine up with that. They make a magazine. I probably have some I could show you in a little bit.

**Interviewer:** I'd love to see them.

**Interviewee:** They make up a magazine and they have to have some articles in it and they have to have facts and they have to compare the two, which way was more successful, obviously. The kids like that. When they do more hands-on things they seem to be really interested in things.

Frances (cont’d)” I lecture some because I know that when they get to college they're going to have to have that. I do PowerPoints. I like to do a lot of hands-on. I like the kids to dig and find out information. My government kids, I make them watch a show called "Meet
the Press" and they have to report on it so they can see the different politics. Just recently, because of lack of being able to get into the media center, I came up with...Dr. Seuss is very political. I got about five of his books that are very political based on different things and first I had them look at the political parties and everything and then look at the Dr. Seuss books and really see the statement he was coming out with. They seemed to really enjoy that. I had high school kids in here reading Dr. Seuss books and they're like whoa, this really is political. That's kind of cool. I brought in when he was a political cartoonist in World War II and how a lot of those pictures are really in the Dr. Seuss books.”

Edith-“We do small groups, a lecture. I use a condensed video of the 14-hour documentary. [laughter]

It's condensed into two hours. It's divided with titles for each section. I'll talk to them about Emmett Till, and they'll take some notes, and then I'll let them watch a five-minute section. The next day, we'll come back, we'll talk about the next thing that comes in order would be...I think it goes to Montgomery Bus Boycott. We'll do notes, and then we'll watch the clip. I take them through like that.

It prepares them for college, what's coming.”

Greg-“: I'm embarrassed to even say this. Because my civil rights lessons for that unit is content driven, not necessarily standards driven. I'm not engaged in as much critical evaluation as I once had. I've got a comprehensive video called "Eyes on the Prize," that gets me from Emmett Till, all the way up to the March on Edmund Pettus Bridge, The March on Selma. "That's my lesson, folks. You've got a textbook, here's the video. That's going to go
over the primary material that I want to cover. Watch the video to learn it."

Harry “I integrate 10- to 15-minute segments. It's usually revolving around one or two topics, like today it'll be Oklahoma City and the World Trade Center '93. I integrate reading, questioning, discussion. Today I'm going to get some kinesthetic in there, because we're going to do a little project I stole from Warring. I'll put the little Post-Its up on the board about which one of Reagan's scandals they like best. I always incorporate video, given any chance, unless it's review or strictly PowerPoint. We've had some PowerPoint. I do a lot of imaging. The only thing I really use the textbook for is looking at the graphs and the charts and the tables and things like that. Most of the readings I get; I grab the stuff from online and put them together myself.

| Theme 4- The length of the civil rights movement varies. |

Ann- “I'm almost embarrassed to say. I wish that I could spend a week. I wish I could spend two weeks. Honestly, at most, two days.”

Betsy-“A year. [laughs] That's all I want to do is teach African-American history. How long would my lesson plans be? Probably a week.”

Debbie-“I do it longer than what is suggested. I spend about an hour in a month.”

Frances-“I don't know, a couple weeks. Sometimes a month, it depends on how I feel the kids are taking it. Because sometimes I'll steal from Peter and give to Paul.

Edith-“ I would say it's about three weeks. I probably could take a little bit more time
but I, in the interest of finishing, can't do that.

Greg-“: Six, tops.

Harry “Prior to this year, this year being an aberration of course, it was...I spent about two-and-a-half weeks on civil rights. I usually spend about four.”

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<th>Theme 5- The timeline of the civil rights movement varies.</th>
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Ann “I know CORE was introduced in the 1940s during World War II, and they staged the sit-ins and stuff. For me, because I talk about A. Philip Randolph and the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters from the ’20s, so they have a little bit of a background. But the Civil Rights Movement per se, I usually generally start in 1954 with the Brown versus Board of Education.”


Chris-“Again, it's broke up into pieces. I do a unit on Reconstruction that takes at least a week. I spend a day or two in roughly the Progressive Era talking about Washington, Du Bois and Marcus Garvey. I do a unit on the Harlem Renaissance that lasted a couple days, and I do an entire unit on the modern Civil Rights Movement that lasts one and a half, two weeks. I really am a firm believer in working things in where they're relevant.
**Interviewer:** Rather than together?

**Teacher:** I find that my students have a hard enough time with chronology. I'm not interested in them memorizing a lot of dates, but I think it's important that they know what order things happened in. So if I were to do just a separate unit on the African-American experience in the United States, I'm sure they would enjoy it and everything. But they wouldn't be able to place it into the context of the other things that were happening. So that's why I tend to break it into pieces and fit it in where I think it's relevant.”

Debbie-“Civil rights movement, I use it as a unit and usually cover from Plessy v. Ferguson all the way until today.

Frances-“We go all the way from Plessy versus Ferguson. I start with that and we build our way all the way up, even into today's world, things that are going before the Supreme Court and things like that on equal rights. Really, are they equal rights? Are they state rights, are they government rights? We have great debates about it.

Edith-“I take them all the way back to Plessy v. Ferguson. We talk about that, although we've already done that previously. But I feel like it's important to look at that court case versus Brown v. Board of Education, and talk about the change that's going to occur. Then we go all the way through until Martin Luther King's assassination, '68.”

Greg-“The civil rights lesson's going to start with '54 and the Brown case. That's a transformational decision.

**Interviewer:** How far does it get?
Interviewee: Meaning?

Interviewer: Meaning is it the ’60s, the ’70s? Is it today?

Interviewee: We go from ’54 up to the ’72 civil rights bill.”

Harry “Interestingly enough, I start talking about civil rights obviously from 1877, which is where the course starts. Reconstruction because we're talking about ‘13, ‘14, ‘15. We're talking about black codes. We read before the Constitution and we talk about going forward, Jim Crow. Then of course we have to go away from it and do industrialization. Then it always comes back. It will come back and we talk about Garvey, Du Bois and Washington. Well, those are three guys I didn't mention.

In the ’20s, we talk about the black civil rights movements, and the influx of the World War I black soldier in France and the experience that the French soldier has. I have a little video and a reading from a soldier that they do. We analyze that and we talk about how the blacks feel coming back.

Look, here's this movement. Here's our renaissance. That ties together. Then of course we lose it because of the Depression. Nobody cares about anything but food. Then we're picking back up in ’54. We don't because one of the first things we take a look at is the first one, the ’40s one. God, all the acronyms I've lost. I have to pick them up again.

In the ’40s, there's a ’40s cure, hope, something. Then we come forward. We come to ’54 to Brown v. Board, which, interestingly enough, I use something that was an assignment for Waring's class, a PowerPoint for the Board v. Brown, the desegregation of schools timeline. I use that. That was one of the benefits of concurrently teaching and going to
Theme 6- Local community history is rarely used.

Ann- “The Groveland Four”

Paul- “About the only one that really works well for me locally is...two things. One is Eatonville, of course, and our famous writer. Hersa, of course. I do also do something on the Ocoee race riot of 1920, that we go over in my class. We talk about the Rosewood thing. That's about as much local. And then little odds and ends. When we're talking about the race riots, we mentioned the one that was in Jacksonville, and why there wasn't one in Orlando. We talk about the protest marches and so forth. I don't do a whole lot on local, but I do work it in where it's relevant.”

Debbie-“No. My students come from many different places. That is something that is
Frances—“No, I wish. I wish we were near the Holocaust one. I do a big unit on the Holocaust, but it's all the way over in Tampa. It's getting a bunch of students and taking them all there, and then taking them out of all their classes. It gets kind of hard.”

Edith—“Not as much as I would like to. I feel like Harry T. Moore is so right in our backyard, and I would love to pull him in more. My master's thesis is on civil rights in Brevard County, and a huge portion of my thesis is on Harry T. Moore. But this was done back in the '90s when nobody really knew who that was, and I'm fishing through microfiche at USF trying to find sources. Now it's everywhere. It's a lot easier. Yeah, I would like to incorporate him more. I think I don't because of time, but it's a very interesting story, and it's local. It should be part of the curriculum. Maybe if it was presented to me...For me, I've got this much Harry T. Moore in my head and if it was presented as, "Here's a one-day group thing they could do to understand Harry T. Moore," I might be more apt to incorporate him.

Greg—“No. Haven’t been motivated to seek it out.”

Harry “Absolutely. Zora Neale, I forgot to mention Zora Neale. I talk about Zora Neale. Of course, I talk about Mary McLeod Bethune, because I have to. I wasn't thinking civil rights; I'm thinking World War II, because she's in the World War II unit as well. We talk about Bethune, we talk about all that. And I taught Florida history at the private school for four years, five years, so I'm fairly up on that. And then Zora, I live over in Casselberry, so in Eatonville, they have that, we talk about Eatonville. I integrate Florida, because that's part of what I'm supposed to do. So that takes it local, and then, of course, current events, if
anything happens in Orange County that's interesting, we talk about those types of things.”

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<th>Theme 8- Teachers do not have faith in their history books.</th>
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<td>Betsy- “Well, probably, because I realize that history books are so devoid of African-American history and African-American cultural contributions. I want my students to understand that we did more than pick cotton and run away. There were some real contributions.”</td>
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<td>Debbie-“The main problem I have with the students, that they don't like history, it is that they are not reading up to grade level. Textbooks are designed to grade level. All the ancillary materials we have are designed for students that read up to grade level. If a student is not reading up to grade level, he's not going to understand the material. History might be the most language-demanding they have.</td>
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<td>Frances-“They put the worst textbook they could up for our county.</td>
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<td><strong>Interviewer</strong>: May I ask which one it is?</td>
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Interviewee: It's so watered down. I use my notes from old books, and I use my notes from other books. This is the worst textbook. I don't know why we picked it.

Interviewer: The "Florida United States History and Geography of Modern Times."

McGraw Hill. Great, thank you.

Interviewee: It is horrible. I wouldn't recommend this for my enemy.

Greg—"I think it's a comic book of a textbook.

Interviewer: Why?

Interviewee: Very light on content. It's got a lot of bells and whistles. We don't have access to everything, so can't utilize them. The level of reading is significantly lower than what I would anticipate for an honors level in high school. I've identified errors.

Interviewer: Do you have a specific textbook for honors or does the honors class use the same one?

Interviewee: They use the same one. Honors and non-honors are getting the same text.

Harry —“Well, given the fact that the textbook is going to be biased from the very beginning, biased to a delusion, because it's biased across many levels, no matter what they say, it's never going to be inclusive. It's never. And it really is -- what was the term I learned out there -- half a mile wide and a half-inch deep. So that's really not anything I've ever really used a textbook per se. The kids don't like it. The kids don't like to read. They'll look at the pictures, but you've got to give them little blurbs or give them things that are interesting. My kids. Now, again, I must differentiate between the level of academia at
which I'm teaching versus perhaps someone who's not me.

My kids are not going to read a textbook. It's the Devil as far as they're concerned. The fact that I use last year's textbook -- and shh, shh, don't tell Orange County -- that's the actual book they used, that book is worthless, absolutely worthless. I don't know who the heck thought that you could fit all of American history in 262...

**Interviewer:** Do you mind if I take a look?

**Man 1:** Here. This is the Teacher's Edition, which is extremely difficult to use.


**Theme 9** – Teachers have an impact on how their students feel about history.

Betsy-“No. [laughs] Because they don't see it as relevant to them. Why should I care about what happened two days ago, let alone 500 years ago? Because they live in the moment. No, most of them don't like history. But again, I try to make it something that they are going to be able to understand, relevant to where they are today. And how history
actually played a part in where we are today.”

Paul—“Most of mine do. But they like me. I'm sorry, but that's serious. They like the way I do it.

**Interviewer:** I agree. We're saying that if someone likes you, they're liable to like the subject?

**Teacher:** Quite often. My approach is, I tend to teach history as a series of stories. That seems to go over well.”

Debbie—“They find it boring.

**Interviewer:** What else do they say, besides that it's boring?

**Teacher:** It's a lot of work.

… They don't like to read

Frances—“I think so. I get students from the past, especially some who have gone on to be teachers, they'll email me or send me letters and say they're a teacher because of me or they majored in history because of me. They say I make it exciting, because I'm a little crazy. I make it fun.

Edith—“I think so. Some of them are coming to me, and you can tell they're science-oriented or math-oriented, and they don't want to be bothered. But I think a lot of them like it.

Greg—“If you asked them, they would say no. They don't typically like it especially at the
beginning of the year. By the end of the year, I probably have more students that said, "You've made it interesting." Whether they like it yet or not, that's undeterminable.

**Interviewer:** We could say that because you made it interesting, you might have hooked more students on history than previously, before they came in?

**Interviewee:** Which is my goal.

**Interviewer:** Can we state, from there, that a teacher has an impact on whether students like or dislike history?

**Interviewee:** Absolutely, yes.

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**Theme 7-** Teachers rarely use public history.

Chris-“Yeah, some. Things like local newspaper articles, and I told you, lots of primary sources.”

Edith-“I don't know that I would do that, just because planning the field trip, and you've got to get transportation, and it costs money. That to me is an overwhelming type of thing to do. I would be more apt to have someone come in and talk than I would to take the kids out
Interviewer: Are there any other reasons besides the fact that it's a lot of work in order to get a field trip going?

Interviewee: No, just that it's complicated. Because I know we have a small group that does go to the Harry T. Moore Festival every year. I think it's with [indecipherable 07:04]. Yeah, I just don't know how they would do with that, you know?

Greg-“We don't leave the classroom.

Interviewer: Why, if you don't mind me asking?

Interviewee: Time crunches. Shortened periods and the bureaucracy of getting approval.

Harry “Most people don't like history because prior to getting to me, it was rote memorization. It was facts and dates. It was homework and things like that. That's not how I teach. When they leave me, they like history.”
REFERENCES


