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ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, A DELIBERATE RECONSTRUCTION AND RECONFIGURING OF WOMEN IN HISTORY: ONE TEACHER'S ATTEMPT AT TRANSFORMING A U.S. HISTORY CURRICULUM, by CYNTHIA MARIE SCHAFER, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chair, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty. The Dean of the College of Education concurs.

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ABSTRACT

A DELIBERATE RECONSTRUCTION AND RECONFIGURING OF WOMEN IN HISTORY: ONE TEACHER'S ATTEMPT AT TRANSFORMING A U.S. HISTORY CURRICULUM

by

Cynthia Marie Schafer

For decades, researchers have noted that the representation of women within the social studies curriculum and historical narratives has seriously neglected meaningful contributions made by women (Crocco, 1997; Lerner, 1975, 1977, 1979, 1993, 2004; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 2001; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003). When women have received acknowledgement within traditional history, or the "great men" of history approach (Goldberg, Brattin, & Engel, 1993), it has mostly occurred in relationship to how men define women which leads to an unknowing acceptance of a dominant patriarchal tradition of knowledge and understanding (Minnich, 1990). Using a liberal feminist perspective, this interpretive inquiry examined the decision-making processes of one experienced social studies teacher as she attempted to integrate women into a high school United States history curriculum. The initial guiding question for this study was: How does a teacher intentionally include women in meaningful contexts in a high school U.S. history class? Additional sub-questions relevant to this study were: (1) How does a teacher decide the historical contexts in which women are to be included or not included? (2) What specific challenges does the teacher face when working to implement women into the U.S. history curriculum? (3) What positive factors have shaped the teacher's abilities or willingness to integrate women into the curriculum?

Data sources included interviews, observations, field notes, the participant's journal reflections, and other documents used during lessons. Data analysis occurred by using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to document any themes or patterns as they emerged. Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability helped enhance the trustworthiness and rigor of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The findings of the study suggest that the teacher's personal experiences helped to shape her goal to show her students that women were more than secondary characters in history. The findings also indicate that even though the teacher faced many challenges as she was attempting to transform her curriculum, when she drew upon the more positive influences from her past and the positive experiences she was encountering during the study, she became much more encouraged that she could move past any obstacles confronting her.

A DELIBERATE RECONSTRUCTION AND RECONFIGURING OF WOMEN IN HISTORY: ONE TEACHER'S ATTEMPT AT TRANSFORMING A U.S. HISTORY CURRICULUM

by
Cynthia Marie Schafer

A Dissertation

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in
Teaching and Learning
in
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in
the College of Education
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

> *There was a point in this book, as well as other history books that I have read where it seemed that the representation of women was too forced. It is hard, because now the question is what is important in history? If you are going to study the facts, the major events, and the dates, women are not and cannot be equally represented. It is a fact of history that women are not allowed to have an equal role in government or society; therefore we cannot study them in a role that they were denied.*
>
> (Patricia, March 3, 2005, reflective essay)

I was shocked when I read Patricia's (a pseudonym) comments in a reflective essay she had written for a class assignment. To read that a female student of mine believed that "*it is a fact of history that women are not allowed to have an equal role in government or society"* and thus, "*we cannot study them…"* amazed and startled me. It also challenged me to consider a number of questions. *Just what facts are teachers presenting to students when they teach history? Why would any of my students believe women could not be equally represented in history? Moreover, how can a teacher not "force" women into the social studies curriculum but rather integrate them so that students learn about the meaningful contributions women have made in history?*

Statement of the Problem

For decades, researchers have noted that the representation of women within the social studies curriculum and historical narratives has seriously neglected meaningful contributions made by women (Crocco, 1997; Lerner, 1975, 1977, 1979, 1993, 2004;

Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 2001; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Woyshner, 2002). In addition, when women have received acknowledgement within traditional history, or Thomas Carlyle's "great men" of history approach (Goldberg, Brattin, & Engel, 1993), it has mostly occurred in relationship to how men define women (Minnich, 1990). This leads to an unknowing acceptance of a dominant tradition of knowledge and understanding that is patriarchal (Minnich, 1990) and students learn little regarding the importance of women's lives to history (Crocco, 1997). Such an approach to teaching history ultimately places women at disadvantages to men.

Feminist scholars and social studies educators have suggested for years the marginalization of women's contributions to history. Minnich (1990) argues that the dominance of a patriarchal tradition perpetuates this marginalization and helps to create errors in thinking. In addition, recent quantitative studies of commonly used textbooks in World and U.S. history courses (Clark, Allard, & Mahoney, 2004; Clark, Ayton, Frechette, & Keller, 2005; Commeyras & Alverman, 1996) continue to reflect the omission of women in meaningful contexts as was found in earlier studies conducted in the 1970's and 1980's (Trecker, 1971; Tetreault, 1986). When there is an attempt to "infuse" or "write" women into the curriculum, it is often in smaller units covering commonly accepted contexts for women such as the antebellum period (Crocco, 1997; Levstik & Groth, 2002) or the suffrage movement (Crocco, 1995; Cruz & Groendal-Cobb, 1998; Karnes, 2000). Moreover, social studies curriculum standards and the 1994 social studies standards developed by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) reflect little emphasis placed on women and gender related topics (Hahn, Bernard-Powers, Crocco, & Woyshner, in press).

The classroom teacher ultimately controls what historical content their students encounter. When considering this position, it is important to understand the obstacles that may limit a teacher's ability to include women in more meaningful contexts in their lesson plans. Research suggests subject knowledge (Thornton, 2001; Wineburg, 1997; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991) and restraints and constraints (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002) may hinder a social studies teacher from attempting to transform their curriculum. All these conditions perpetuate a problem where students become unaccustomed to encountering women's contributions.

Purpose of the Study

This study addressed the problem of the social studies curriculum and the historical narratives taught in high schools neglecting the meaningful contributions made by women by examining how a single teacher integrated women within a high school United States history curriculum. I was also interested in understanding any challenges facing a classroom teacher as she attempted integration. Understanding how a teacher negotiates obstacles and makes decisions on when and where to integrate women more centrally into a traditional U. S. history course may provide other social studies teachers ideas on how they can begin to do this in their own lesson plans and classroom practice.

Women, in meaningful contexts, are missing from the history curriculum. If social studies teachers do not begin to challenge the traditional history that continues to dominate the curriculum, they are doing a disservice to "half of humankind" (Minnich, 1990). Leaving out the meaningful contributions women have made to history does not allow all students to learn the importance of citizenship education in a participatory democracy.

Woyshner (2002) contends that learning about women as political actors prior to the suffrage movement by using content and procedures developed by educational researchers and historians may enable secondary school curriculums to represent women "on their own terms and not set against a patriarchal standard" (p. 374). While Woyshner (2002) suggests that researchers need to take a more active role in changing the social studies curriculum, Thornton (1991, 2005) believes that the classroom teacher is the one with the greatest ability to promote change in the curriculum. Teachers are able to effect change in the classroom because they work, on a daily basis, behind closed doors and make the final judgment as to what content their students encounter. As mediators (Parker, 1987) and facilitators (Bickmore, 1993; Rossi, 1995; Rossi & Pace, 1998; Yeager & Davis, 1996), a teacher can play one of, if not the most important role in helping to bring a more inclusive social studies curriculum to their students. By expanding the curriculum to include the voices, actions, and thoughts of women, teachers will be avoiding teaching "history through a single lens" (Crocco, 1997, p. 37).

Cornbleth (2001, 2002) suggests that meaningful learning occurs when students move past the sheer memorization of facts. While most social studies educators would not argue the importance of teaching historical facts to their students, some teachers might question which facts students should be learning. Every time a social studies teacher creates a lesson, they must ask themselves what they want their students to learn. Should they emphasize political and military history over social and cultural history or develop a plan that incorporates all of these? In addition, teachers must also consider what resources they will be using with their students. If the class is textbook driven, does

the teacher ever consider if their textbook is inclusive of a variety of historical perspectives and people?

When a teacher decides what they want their students to learn in their classroom, they become the "gatekeepers" (Thornton, 1991, 2005) to the curriculum. By making the decisions as to the content covered in their classes, the social studies teacher, not textbook publishers or local and state curriculum standards, control whether women's contributions to history are included in their lesson plans. While researchers argue the history curriculum must change in a way that represents women in more meaningful contexts (Clark, et al., 2004; Clark, et al., 2005; Crocco, 1997; Noddings, 2001; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Woyshner, 2002), the classroom teacher determines the topics covered (Adler, 1991, 2004b; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Parker, 1987; Thornton, 1991, 2005). The classroom teacher becomes someone who can change the curriculum. Given the curriculum gatekeeping role teachers can play, the purpose of this study was to understand how a teacher can centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum.

Theoretical Framework

For any research, an effective theory should establish a framework that not only guides the research project but also the researcher. The very nature of qualitative research allows the researcher to become a primary instrument as she/he analyzes data and attempts to understand how people construct their own meaning of events and phenomena in their lives. While a researcher's theoretical lens helps structure their methodology, it also enables the researcher to situate their findings and assumptions. For

me, the choice of which theoretical framework I would use for this study was not an easy journey.

Because the focus of my research was on the integration of women into history, I knew my inquiry would develop through a feminist perspective. Using a perspective other than feminism seemed inappropriate because there has been and continues to be a marginalization of women's contributions to history and feminism allows an exploration of power relationships (Dietz, 2003; Scott, 1996, 2004; Tong, 1998) that may inhibit the inclusion of women. Feminism also raises consciousness (Stone, 1996) and it continues to redefine itself (Freedman, 2002), which allows a teacher interested in changing their curriculum the ability to have an ongoing, open discussion on how to begin the process.

While feminist theory has evolved into a multi-faceted and dynamic 'ism' enabling women, as well as men, to dialogue on the inequities women have encountered and experienced in all aspects of their lives, deciding my particular feminist orientation has not come naturally or without its challenges. As Scott (2004) suggests, "feminism emerged in the context of liberal democracy's proclamation of universal equality, discursively positioned in and as contradiction—not just in the arena of political citizenship, but in most areas of economic and social life" (p. 19). Feminism has also become, as Ruth (1998) contends, "…a perspective, a worldview, a political theory, a spiritual focus, or a kind of activism" (p. 5) and, according to Scott (2004), "…it works within and against whatever are the prevailing foundational assumptions of its time" (pp. 19-20). Ultimately, I believe, as bell hooks (2000) asserts, that feminism is "…a movement to end sexism, sexist exploitation, and oppression" (p. 1) but it is not, however, at the expense of men becoming the enemy of women.

This research inquiry forced me to choose between a number of diverse and dynamic feminist orientations that each, in their own right, attempt to target and/or challenge patriarchal structures. In addition, these multiple feminisms, with their extremely eclectic and varying perspectives, often challenge and appear conflicted (Dietz, 2003; Kensinger, 1997; Roth, 2004; Ruth, 1998; Tong, 1998), which cause some of us who call ourselves feminist to question each other's purposes and motives. In this questioning of theoretical orientations, feminists must contemplate whether we are actually doing a disservice to women and our accomplishments in history when and if we continue to challenge each other's views and suggest we must put our beliefs into tightly knit feminist categories.

Kensinger (1997) suggested almost a decade ago, trying to find a perfect fit, the exact feminist theoretical category that labels a person one type of feminist over another is not always easy because of the "fuzzy borders" (p. 178) that exist between them. No singular feminist label fits me perfectly. However, what I have come to discover is that because I began learning about feminism during my high school years in the late 1970's, most of my personal beliefs and the desire to be the best teacher I can be, for my students, have been developed through the lens of liberal feminism. Liberal feminism is, in my belief, the foundation of all other feminist orientations because it has continually focused on giving a voice to women through education.

Since the creation of the women's movement in the 1960's, liberal feminists have continually sought sexual equality and the eradication of gender discrimination by challenging hegemonic patriarchal institutions and structures that exist within society (Tong, 1998). Politically, liberal feminists have contested these inequities by focusing on

equality of opportunity in the classroom, on the playing fields, and in the workforce. While liberal feminists acknowledge that improvements have occurred in these areas, de facto discrimination, specifically in regards to gender, continues to exist today (Tong, 1998, Wendell, 1987).

In working to empower women to achieve a 'public' space at least equal to men and to bring about gender justice and eliminate de facto discrimination, liberal feminists have focused much of their attention on education. Education can allow women the opportunity to achieve advantages equal to men. Young people spend the vast majority of their formative years in classrooms with established standards and curriculums that often perpetuate sexual inequality and gender injustices. Women's accomplishments and their contributions to society, whether in the home or in public places, have often gone unwritten or even acknowledged in history classes as critical components to the development of the history of the United States.

Contemporary liberal feminists have always believed education offers one of the best avenues for change (Tong, 1998; Wendell, 1987). When people learn and understand "…the nature and causes of their own and other people's unnecessary suffering…" (Wendell, 1987, p. 89) and when women become valued for what they have accomplished in history, society will benefit. Liberal feminism challenges institutions and structures that are patriarchal, like those found in education, by including women and their experiences more centrally within the school curriculum. Under the framework of liberal feminist theory, this study addresses how a teacher intentionally includes women in meaningful contexts in a high school U.S. history class in order to bring meaning to women's lives and their contributions to history.

Background of the Study

As a female social studies teacher with over twenty years of teaching experience, I have always been interested in women's contributions to history. However, I was taught, as many social studies teachers were, that the core of the social studies discipline was history. Like most students in the 1970's, I took traditional history classes. These traditional courses centered on a white, patriarchal historical perspective (Lerner, 2004; Minnich, 1990) that remains as the foundation of the social studies curriculum today (Crocco, 1999; Stanley, 2001; Thornton, 2005).

For years, I saw myself as a history teacher and never even considered calling myself a social studies teacher. When I acknowledged myself as a history teacher, I focused on traditional history and I was not even aware that I was not including the missing voices of so many who had contributed to history. My teaching foundation and subject knowledge were shaped by a traditional view of history that marginalized many people, including women. I unconsciously accepted what was published in the textbooks because of the constraints on my time in planning lessons. Because I only relied on what appeared in the textbooks, I continued to reinforce the "great men" of history approach to teaching history.

After earning a graduate degree in social studies education, I stopped thinking of myself as a history teacher and started calling myself a social studies teacher. Enabling students to understand how to connect the past with the present by learning about the missing voices in history became much more significant to me than just the "great men" I was comfortable with teaching. As a social studies teacher, I discovered I could better

connect my desire to promote participatory democracy by working to represent the contributions of the many, rather than the few depicted in traditional history.

As I considered the meaning of social studies and the idea that history continues to remain the centerpiece of the curriculum, I began examining the history of social studies. Social studies curriculum history became an important part of my understanding of the literature related to the problems that I have observed in history teaching. The contentious nature of history and the ongoing "turf wars" (Evans, 2004) still prevalent today (Crocco, 1999; Stanley, 2001; Thornton, 2005; Vinson & Ross, 2001) exist within a context of deliberation over what teachers should teach in high school history classes. Understanding the history of the social studies helped me understand how traditional history supporters greatly influenced the purpose and meaning of social studies and the curriculum students encountered for most of the twentieth century.

In addition, when I started to consider my personal experiences in studying women in history, I began to understand I had acquired little background on the significant contributions women have made to history. This deficit in my background knowledge was not because I lacked the interest to study women's history; rather I believe it was because the teachers I had in history courses over the years placed little emphasis on women in their lesson plans. In fact, when I think back on my personal experiences in high school history classes, I fondly remember seeing the poster of 'Rosie the Riveter' for the first time. Here was a woman that did not look like other women. She appeared strong, confident, and ready to tackle the world head on, as I wanted to do. Sadly enough, I never learned about the roles women played throughout history because my history teachers rarely discussed women.

While I may not have had the high school experience of learning about the many voices that were missing from history, specifically women's, I believe my high school experience helped to shape who I am and what I do as a teacher. I love studying history and I have always been committed to bringing to life, for my students, those who have been marginalized in the curriculum. As I began to teach, I discovered that I had the power to change the curriculum by adding outside primary and secondary sources and telling the stories of those who were missing from the textbooks. I have always believed that when students have the opportunity to learn about what is not in the textbooks, they are much more receptive and engaged. I am committed to empowering my students, especially the young women, with the knowledge that history is more than just the "great men" most of us have experienced. It is about all people.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand how a teacher can centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum. The following research question guided this interpretive inquiry: *How does a teacher intentionally include women in meaningful contexts in a high school U.S. history class?* In addition, because research has already found obstacles teachers face when enacting curriculum, I believed three sub questions were relevant to my inquiry:

1) How does a teacher decide the historical contexts in which women are to be included or not included?
2) What specific challenges does the teacher face when working to implement women into the U.S. history curriculum?
3) What positive factors have shaped the teacher's abilities or willingness to

integrate women into the curriculum?

Participant

For this inquiry, I was not looking for a teacher who mirrored my feminist beliefs. I wanted someone who was a strong teacher, had good subject knowledge in American history, and was a female. I felt it was important to choose a female teacher over a male teacher because the life experiences of a female teacher would offer a more personal lens when searching for areas where women have been neglected in the contexts and narratives of history. Selecting someone confident in her knowledge of history could better challenge what should be included or not included in the curriculum and text they were using.

From a pilot study conducted on the hiring experiences of social studies teachers (Schafer, 2005), I discovered Barbara Morris (a pseudonym), a ten-year veteran teacher who has a B.A. in History and a Masters in the Art of Teaching (MAT). Barbara sees herself as a history teacher who specifically "loves twentieth century American history," but believed that social studies "feeds off of history" (Interview, March 10, 2005). When I asked her what she thought was the purpose of social studies, she commented, "the purpose of any of [the] classes that fall under social studies is to teach kids about the life they're living, their surroundings, where their background is, why things are the way they are" (Interview, March 10, 2005). In addition, even though I call myself a feminist and knew that I would be analyzing Barbara through a feminist lens, I was not specifically looking for a participant who mirrored my feminist beliefs. In fact, I had no prior knowledge of Barbara's views on feminism. However, because of Barbara's content

knowledge and her love of American history, I thought she would be a good choice as a participant in my inquiry.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection began fall semester 2006 when I interviewed Barbara to gather background on her beliefs regarding the curriculum content of a U. S. history course, her approach to developing her lesson plans, and how and why she decides what historical content to include. At that time, I offered her suggestions on where to find resources covering women in history. Within one week, I interviewed Barbara a second time to discuss keeping a journal as she created her lesson plans and taught her content. During this interview, I asked Barbara to decide how often she would be able to give me copies of her journaling. By the third week, I began observing her class twice a week, gathering handouts, lecture notes, and other materials and resources that she used in her lesson plans. For the remainder of the semester, I met with Barbara twice a month to record her reflections and discuss any issues or situations that arose. These meetings incorporated semi-structured and unstructured questions based on what I had been observing from Barbara's classroom and her journaling. The use of semi-structured and unstructured questions allowed for an open-ended response and offered a better understanding of an individual's own experiences (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). Analysis of data occurred by using a coding system to look for themes or patterns that emerged and to triangulate information (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). An audit trail consisting of field notes from ongoing observations, tape recordings of interviews, member checking of transcriptions and a codebook helped ensure trustworthiness and rigor in my inquiry.

Definition of Terms

De facto Discrimination

De facto discrimination represents the actual discrimination that occurs when women do not receive representation in historical texts and narratives. While de facto discrimination may also affect men, I believe, as many liberal feminists, that the "de facto discrimination men experience is not nearly as systematic as the kind women experience" (Tong, 1998, p. 33). In addition, the structures, specifically prevalent in education, "…favor men and disfavor women" (p. 33).

College Preparatory Level 1

College preparatory level 1 is the course level students at Barbara's school are placed in by the administration when they have good reading and writing skills and require little supervision to complete their work. While this is not the highest course level offered at Barbara's school, it is still presumed that students placed at this level will attend college. Barbara's class, for this study, was a college preparatory level 1 class.

College Preparatory Level 2

Students at Barbara's school can also be placed by the administration in college preparation level 2 for any core curriculum course. Although these students are expected to attend college, these classes move at a slower pace and generally consist of students who have some learning needs.

Contemporary Liberal Feminists

Contemporary liberal feminists believe that sexual equality or gender justice is a primary objective for women's liberation (Tong, 1998). In addition, contemporary liberal feminists use the "…power of education…" (Wendell, 1987, p. 66) to underscore "…the

importance of bringing women into the male public sphere…" (Arnot & Dillabough, 1999, p. 168) so they can achieve equal opportunities in society.

Feminism

Estelle Freedman suggests a definition of feminism in *No Turning Back: The History of Feminism and the Future of Women*. She states:

> Feminism is a belief that women and men are inherently of equal worth. Because most societies privilege men as a group, social movements are necessary to achieve equality between women and men, with the understanding that gender always intersects with other social hierarchies. (2002, p. 7)

I believe her definition most accurately reflects my beliefs about feminism.

Participatory Democracy

I define participatory democracy as encouraging students to become actively involved and engaged in the communities they live in order to better understand the needs of all members of society.

Patriarchy

Patriarchy represents how males define and control society. Carter (2002) suggests that patriarchy is "…all encompassing…[and] that it imposes values, rules, and assumptions that we [people] rarely even think to question" (p. 30).

Patriarchal Institutions and Structures

These are the institutions and structures found within society that males dominate such as the U.S. educational system.

Traditional History

Traditional history refers to commonly taught high school history courses such as Ancient, Medieval, Modern, and American History where the content of these courses

emphasize men and their accomplishments (Goldberg, Brattin, & Engel, 1993) with little regard to women's roles.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for a number of reasons. First, historical texts and narratives continue to under represent women's contributions to history (Clark, et al., 2004; Clark, et al., 2005; Crocco, 1997; Lerner, 1975, 1977, 1979, 1993, 2004; Noddings, 2001; Trecker, 1971; Tetreault, 1986)). If this under representation goes unchallenged, social studies teachers will continue to reinforce for their students that women were and are not as important as men are in history, which only perpetuates a patriarchal tradition that places women at disadvantages to men and limits their intellectual understanding (Lerner, 1993; Minnich, 1990).

Second, most research conducted on the integration of women in history lessons is often in contexts related to nineteenth and twentieth century topics such as antebellum, prohibition, or suffrage (Crocco, 1995, 1997; Cruz & Groendal-Cobb, 1998; Hickey & Kolterman, 2006; Karnes, 2000; Levstik & Groth, 2002; Woyshner, 2002). This study addresses a high school U.S. history curriculum and involves a high school teacher attempting to infuse women throughout periods where women have been notoriously missing, the sixteenth through nineteenth centuries.

Third, research has suggested that the classroom teacher is a critical component to controlling the content students encounter in school even when the teacher has a standardized curriculum to follow (Adler, 1991, 2004b; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Bickmore, 1993; Grant, 2003; Parker, 1987; Rossi, 1995; Rossi & Pace, 1998; Thornton, 1991, 2005; Yeager & Davis, 1996). Because the classroom teacher has the greatest

ability to promote change in their curriculum, this study focused on how a single social studies teacher tried to integrate more women throughout her lessons for an entire semester.

Fourth, research also suggests that teachers may face potential obstacles as they attempt to challenge or transform their curriculums (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002; Thornton, 2001; Wineburg, 1997; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991). In addition, teachers also need to be aware of any positive influences on them as they develop their lesson plans and transmit or facilitate the content they want their students to learn. If social studies teachers are not mindful of the possible constraints or the positive influences they may encounter, they may not be as effective in achieving their classroom goals. This study specifically looked at the challenges and positive factors that a high school social studies teacher encountered as she worked to integrate women into her curriculum.

In the following review of the literature, I highlight the history of the social studies curriculum and how it relates to the purpose and problem of my inquiry. In addition, I review feminist scholars and social studies educators' perspectives and suggestions for the inclusion of women into the curriculum along with the classroom teacher's role in shaping their own curriculum and the obstacles they may encounter. A description of the methodology for this study appears in more detail in chapter three.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

> *Women who did not know that others like them had made intellectual contributions to knowledge and to creative thought were overwhelmed by the sense of their own inferiority or, conversely, the sense of the dangers of their daring to be different. Without knowledge of women's past, no group of women could test their own ideas against those of their equals, those who had come out of similar conditions and similar life situations. Every thinking woman had to argue with the "great man" in her head, instead of being strengthened and encouraged by her foremothers. For thinking women, the absence of Women's History was perhaps the most serious obstacle of all to their intellectual growth.*
>
> (Lerner, 1993, p. 12)

As historian Gerda Lerner (1993) suggests, women's intellectual growth has been limited throughout history because women have been missing from the discourse of history. Being absent from the pages of history has caused women to appear as inferior and unequal to men. A number of scholars have noted the omission of significant contributions made by women from social studies curriculum and texts as well as narratives of history (Clark, Allard, & Mahoney, 2004; Clark, Ayton, Frechette, & Keller, 2005; Commeyras & Alvermann, 1996; Crocco, 1997; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 2001; Osler, 1994; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Tetreault, 1986; Trecker, 1971; Woyshner, 2002). When women finally make their first appearance in any meaningful way, it is often in relationship to the twentieth century suffrage movement (Woyshner, 2002). Noddings (2001) has suggested that such approaches to studying women lead to a failure

among students to "be impressed by any real female contributions" in history (p. 29). When students do not learn about the contributions made by women in history, their thinking or understandings perpetuate a patriarchal system that places women at disadvantages to men. Given such a context, this literature review will focus on the history of the social studies curriculum, feminist scholars and social studies educators' perspectives and suggestions for the inclusion of women into the curriculum along with the teacher's role in shaping their own curriculum and the obstacles they may encounter.

This chapter begins with an overview of the history of the social studies curriculum. Within this discussion, I address the ongoing debate over the definition and purpose of social studies centered on disagreements over whether the curriculum should emphasize a discipline-centered, social science approach or stress social education. Regardless of one's position, the research suggests the under representation of women in both traditions (Crocco, 1997; Kerber, 1998; Lerner, 1975, 1977, 1979; Noddings, 1992; Scott, 1999; Tetreault, 1987; Woyshner, 2002). A common theme that ties both the discipline-centered, social science supporters with the proponents of social education is the importance of educators instilling in their students some form of citizenship education. Feminist scholars suggest that citizenship rationales for social studies should occur within the context of concern for the presence of women in the curriculum (Hahn, 2002; Kerber, 1998; Makler, 1999; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 1992). As Minnich (1990) questions:

> What, after all, does it mean for us all that students find it odd, uncomfortable, uninteresting, even threatening, to begin seriously to study the majority of humankind—to learn about women, to learn about men other than privileged European-Americans? What does it mean for democracy that only some few kinds of humans can be imagined as our representatives? (p. 79)

As Minnich suggests, we need to question what we mean by citizenship in social studies education if the representation of women in meaningful contexts is missing from the curriculum.

The second part of the literature review addresses feminist scholars and social studies educators' perspectives and suggestions on the inclusion and integration of women within the social studies curriculum. In this section, I discuss why theorists and researchers suggest it is important to include women in more meaningful contexts (Bunch, 1987; Clark, et al., 2004, 2005; Crocco, 1997; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 2001; Scott, 1999). In addition, I address suggestions made by researchers on how educators can be more inclusive by examining models that offer classroom teachers ways to accomplish this goal (Crocco, 1997; Cruz & Groendal-Cobb, 1998; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Tetreault, 1986; Woyshner, 2002). I also discuss how language perpetuates the need to redefine and reconceptualize some common terms that have continued to allow the contributions of women to go unnoticed in history (Crocco, 1997; Hahn, 1996; Noddings, 1992; Ryan, 2003; Scott, 1999; Woyshner, 2002). Finally, I consider how research addressing gender issues in the social studies field may offer another means to include more effectively women in meaningful contexts within the social studies curriculum (Ryan, 2003; Scott, 1999; Zook, 2002).

The final component of the literature review provides a summary of the role and challenges teachers face when enacting curriculum. Regardless of the established curriculum for a course, research suggests the classroom teacher is ultimately the one who controls the content covered in a course (Adler, 2004b; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Cornbleth, 2001; Grant, 2003; Noddings, 2005; Thornton, 1991, 2005; Vinson & Ross,

2001) and they often face many obstacles regarding the content they are to teach (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002; Thornton, 2001; Wineburg, 1997; Wineburg & Wilson, 1991). This research centers on what happens when a teacher intentionally tries to represent the history of women within the framework of the traditional history most students encounter.

Social Studies Curriculum History

Historical Overview

From the late nineteenth century to the early twentieth century, arguments over the nature and purpose of education began to shape the structure of curriculum at the high school and elementary levels of public education in the United States. As early as 1857, when a number of teachers established the National Education Association (NEA), concerns over a lack of curriculum standards within public education were prevalent (Hertzberg, 1981). With the founding of the American Historical Association (AHA) in 1884, history education began establishing guiding standards, goals, and objectives (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981; Watras, 2002).

By the end of the nineteenth century, numerous committees guided by the AHA, such as the *Committee of Ten in 1892* and the *Committee of Seven in 1896*, focused attention on developing a secondary school program that centered on history. These committees supported the creation of a core curriculum focused on the study of traditional history subjects such as Ancient, Medieval, Modern, and American history (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981; Watras, 2002). Although these early reports contained some progressive antecedents (Bohan, 2003), they generally promoted a customary historical curriculum. In addition, these committees thought the transmission of historical

facts was the most effective means to promote social harmony and individual growth (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981; Watras, 2002).

With an emphasis on historical facts, most of the traditional history courses taught in the 20th century centered on the "great man" approach to history that developed out of the nineteenth century writings of philosopher Thomas Carlyle. Carlyle wrote about past historical figures and what their heroic deeds might offer to society (Goldberg, Brattin, & Engel, 1993). The problem with Carlyle's work, however, was that he rarely mentioned women as heroes, which helped to establish a traditional history, minus women's contributions to society (Crocco, 1997).

In 1916, the Committee on Social Studies, part of NEA's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Schools (CRSE), published a report that shifted the focus of the social studies curriculum away from historical facts to one more centered on social awareness. For most of the twentieth century, the 1916 report from the Committee on Social Studies became the guiding framework for social studies education (Crocco, 1999; Lybarger, 1991; Nelson, 2001; Vinson & Ross, 2001). According to this report, the purpose of social studies should be an emphasis on "…'the cultivation of good citizenship' as the 'conscious and constant' purpose of the social studies in the schools…" (Novick, 1988, p. 188).

In 1921, the AHA helped establish the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). This organization, similar to the Committee on Social Studies, believed that the purpose of social studies was to focus on citizenship education within the context of the rapidly changing industrial society of the time. NCSS believed both students and teachers needed to understand how these changes affected communities and the daily lives of

people. Because the NCSS worked closely with the AHA at its inception, history continued as the core subject taught within the social studies curriculum (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981). However, most NCSS members believed the mere emphasis on history was not going to achieve their goals (Lybarger, 1991). For the next few decades, NCSS worked to promote a more progressive educational agenda (Evans, 2004).

One of the most influential proponents of the concept of progressive social studies taught in this manner was reformer and educator John Dewey. Dewey believed that history was not functional if taught just as a set of facts and narratives. When teaching students about history, according to Dewey, current issues related to the everyday lives of people should also be included. The study of these issues reinforces citizenship goals. Another influential proponent of the social studies was Harold Rugg. During the 1920's and 1930's, Rugg and his colleagues developed a series of textbooks titled, *Man and His Changing Society*, which became popular in many social studies classrooms across the country. Such progressive texts offered social studies teachers the opportunity to focus on the accepted goal of citizenship preparation while considering social issues (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981; Lybarger, 1991; Nelson, 2001). Rugg's inclusion within these texts of "…material on minority groups, including African Americans and women…" (Stern & Riley, 2001, p. 57) made his books unique in their focus.

As the country entered World War II and the Cold War era, however, most progressive agendas, especially in education, began to face scrutiny from traditional history proponents. The fear of communism pushed supporters of traditional history to attack the social studies field because of its social reconstructivist tendencies. Rugg's textbook series became a target for anti-American rhetoric and conservatives began

presenting it as promoting socialist propaganda, causing a tremendous drop in the use of his series by the end of the 1940's (Evans, 2004). By the 1950's traditional history supporters were re-emphasizing the need for social studies education to focus more on academic disciplines and less on social problems (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981). Women and other minority groups were again marginalized in historical textbooks with little mention of their activism (Kerber & De Hart, 2004).

After the resurgence of traditional history in the 1950s, the 1960's saw the development of a "new social studies," which focused on shaping students to think more scientifically and in a sequential fashion (Evans, 2004; Hertzberg, 1981). By the 1970's, on the coattails of the civil rights movement, an increasing interest in multicultural education emerged with concerns related to race, class, and gender taking center stage. NCSS also began to take a more issues-centered approach to the teaching of social studies. A primary objective for NCSS, at this time, was promoting learning for students that was more meaningful, one where teachers would work to incorporate specific issues of the day within their lesson plans (Evans, 2004; Lybarger, 1991). Despite these efforts, social studies curriculums continued to neglect meaningful contributions made by women in history (Coulter, 1989; Crocco, 1997).

With political conservatives attacking education, the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 and no clear consensus on a definition of social studies, politics sealed the fate for an issues-centered or more inclusive approach to social studies. The increasing push for more testing and standardization in the 1990's helped move traditional history back to the forefront of the social studies curriculum, igniting the controversy over the purpose and definition of social studies that exists today (Crocco, 1999; Evans, 2004;

NCSS, 1994; Ravitch, 1989; Ravitch & Finn, 1987; Stanley, 2001; Thornton, 2005; Vinson & Ross, 2001). One relevant point of disagreement in the social studies field is whether the social studies curriculum should place more emphasis on the social sciences or on social education issues (Thornton, 2005).

Social Science vs. Social Education

> *…the paradox of social studies curriculum and practice is that it is marked by both the appearance of diversity…and the appearance of uniformity.*
> (Vinson & Ross, 2001, p. 51)

The *diversity* and *uniformity* suggested by Vinson and Ross (2001) lies at the heart of the debates over whether the field should support the social sciences and the individual disciplines within it or take a much more integrative approach by addressing social education ideas. The social studies field tends to acknowledge two fundamental and distinct versions of the curriculum term social studies: the social sciences and social education (Thornton, 2005). Typically, the social sciences comprise the traditional academic disciplines and social education encompasses a broader and more integrated understanding of content and purpose. More important to women, is how this *appearance of diversity and uniformity* has so often omitted women's historical contributions. Those supporting a social science approach tend to emphasize "great men" found in traditional history contexts and thus are more apt to neglect the contributions of women. In addition, as current scholarship suggests, those emphasizing social education have also neglected women's contributions in the social education field (Crocco & Davis, 1999, 2002).

The social science approach to the social studies represents an aggregation of individual courses within the social sciences. Courses such as history, economics, and

geography make up many of the academic subjects in this area (Thornton, 2005). Vinson and Ross (2001) suggest:

> From the social science viewpoint, social studies education is that which provides students with the social scientific content and procedures for successful citizenship, and for understanding and acting upon the human condition in its historical, contemporary, political, social, economic, and cultural contexts. (p. 43)

For those who support an aggregated or social science approach, the tendency is to place traditional history as the foundation of the social studies curriculum. Curriculum standards developed over the past decade continue to stress the significance of transmitting historical facts as related to the development of the United States (Evans, 2004; Thornton, 2005). Because traditional history has remained at the core of the social studies curriculum (Crocco, 1999; Stanley, 2001; Thornton, 2005), the content most often presented to students is from a white and patriarchal historical perspective (Lerner, 2004; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 1992; Ruth, 1998; Seixas, 1993; Scott, 1999).

The study of women's history grew in the 1970's through the work of scholars such as Gerda Lerner, but much of women's history was still not included within the content of the social studies curriculum taught to students (Coulter, 1989; Crocco, 1997). While there have been more recent attempts to be more inclusive of women, many women continue to appear as only side notes in the margins of these newer textbooks (Coulter, 1989; Clark, et al., 2004; Clark, et al., 2005; Noddings, 1992; Tetreault, 1986).

Social education, on the other hand, tends to focus on social issues and problems and often ignores boundaries found within individual subjects. Crocco (1999) defines social education as:

> …teaching and learning about how individuals construct and live out their understandings of social, political, and economic relations-past and present-and the implications of these understandings for how citizens are educated in a

> democracy. In short, social education seeks to address the issue of what skills and knowledge individuals need to live effectively in a democracy… (p. 1)

For social studies educators, this definition would not be in conflict with the goals of the NCSS. In fact, this definition is not antagonistic to the proponents of a traditional history or social science approach when both support citizenship education as a primary objective for social studies education at the secondary level.

The major problem with both camps is that they have consistently neglected meaningful contributions of women throughout history. Just as women historians began to address the missing voices of women in history, social educators from all disciplines have only recently begun to highlight the significant roles played by women in social education (Crocco & Davis, 1999, 2002). Until the names of such women as *Hannah Adams, Mary Sheldon Barnes, Rachel Davis DuBois, Hilda Taba,* and *Emma Hart Willard* become recognized for their contributions within the social studies, women will remain marginalized and on the fringe of society.

Citizenship Education and Women

> *One of the most effective ways in which dominant groups maintain their power is by depriving the people they dominate of the knowledge of their own history.*
> (De Hart & Kerber, 2004, p. 1)

Many scholars suggest public education in the United States exists in order to promote citizenship and participatory democracy (Hahn, 2002; Hochschild & Scovronick, 2002). In addition, the 1994 NCSS mission statement reaffirmed the importance of citizenship education by stating:

> Social studies educators teach students the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy. The mission of National Council for the Social Studies is to provide leadership, service, and support for all social studies educators. (NCSS, *Mission Statement*)

However, even within the social studies field there remains an ongoing debate as to what citizenship really means (Evans, 2004; Grant, 2003). For women, the meaning of citizenship is even more significant if the social studies curriculum continues to deprive women of knowledge of their history. In order for students to grasp the significance of women's historical contributions, the meaning of citizenship needs to expand beyond references to public and political domains dominated by males. The private and social areas women have participated in on a regular basis also need historical recognition.

Almost fifteen years ago, Noddings (1992) suggested that the "notion of citizenship" (p. 235) be expanded to include more of the private life of not only women, but all people who have been marginalized or left out of what has been called the public or "civic" realm of government. In *No Constitutional Right to be Ladies*, Linda Kerber (1998) noted that although women held citizenship since the early days of the United States, "the meaning of *rights* has been linked to gender" (p. xxi) and men and women's experiences in "relationship to the state has been different in substantial and important respects" (p. xxi). A key difference between men and women's experiences is the concept of their obligations to the community and society in which they live, along with how these experiences are publicly and privately viewed (Kerber, 1998; Makler, 1999).

Historically, men's obligations as citizens have generally been to the state or the public domain, and women's obligations were solely in relationship to their husbands and families or the private domain (Kerber, 1998). In addition, Kerber also notes, "married women owe[d] their primary civic obligation to their husbands…which continued to define relationships among men, women, and the state" (p. xxiii-xxiv). Makler (1999) further suggests that "because the rights and obligations of female identity were not, and

never have been, identical to those of male identity" (p. 257), adult citizens in the United States were not equal citizens. The concept of citizenship is important for teachers to understand when trying to bring attention to women in history because students often correlate citizenship to voting and public duties (Hahn, 2002). Additionally, teachers must consider if the curriculum is interrogating the construction of citizenship itself as a gendered, raced, and sexed term. This mindset may cause students to miss the significant contributions women have made with their private work (Noddings, 1992).

If social studies educators are to promote citizenship education and participatory democracy, all people, regardless of their gender, must have a place within the curriculum. As Minnich (1990) suggests, when "history concentrates on the activities from which women were excluded and ignores…women's lives and creations, students learn to think of all that is significant in the past as the domain of men" (p. 79). When this occurs, women (and men) never fully have the opportunity to explore the meaningful contributions other women have made to history.

One Feminist's Critique of a Dominant Tradition of Knowledge

> *Behind, and within, the curriculum is a long, complex cultural, intellectual, and political tradition. We must consider the multiple contexts of the curriculum if we would understand what we wish to change in more than a narrow, superficial way.*
>
> (Minnich, 1990, p. 1)

Feminist scholar Elizabeth Minnich's 1990 book, *Transforming Knowledge,* raised serious issues regarding the inclusion of women within the context of higher education and subject curricula. What she posed was a question that all citizens, regardless of gender, must ask: *why do we believe the things we believe?* Minnich argues that the acceptance of a dominant tradition of knowledge and understanding that is male-

centered has become the norm within our society. Because society has established this norm, people have unwittingly accepted the omission of women when studying history. When found in historical contexts, women appear only in relationship to how men define them. Given these conditions, according to Minnich, meaningful learning and understanding of the contributions women have made in history rarely occur.

In *Transforming Knowledge* (1990), Minnich argues that in order to make women more visible in the curriculum in fact, all of humankind, a transformation of people's knowledge and thinking must occur. Transformation needs to begin within the curriculum. Minnich points out that women have been left out of the curriculum, not necessarily by choice, but more often because all of us have inadvertently accepted what she calls "the root problem." Minnich suggests that we have allowed "a dominant few as the inclusive group, the norm, and the ideal for humankind" (p. 48). In order to address this problem, she believes that each of us, regardless of race, class, or gender, must think for ourselves and work to understand "what kind of thinking the dominant tradition has privileged" (pp. 28-29).

Errors of the Dominant Tradition

Within this dominant tradition, Minnich contends that all of us have been guided by basic errors and because we rarely, if ever, question the knowledge we are being taught, these errors have led to the establishment of "the universalization of the definitions and values of the few" in society (p. 53). In other words, many of the definitions and values we think we understand and believe to be correct for societies are not true representations of the people that make up society. Rather, each of us have allowed a small group to decide what all of humankind should and does believe. The four

errors that Minnich believes make up the dominant tradition: *faulty generalizations, circular reasoning, mystified concepts,* and *partial knowledge*, must be considered as critical pieces to people's conceptualization of what they have come to believe before teachers can understand how best to include women in meaningful historical contexts.

Faulty generalizations. According to Minnich, people often come to accept generalizations or abstractions that are actually false because they have accepted a small group of individuals, often white males in power, to be the "only ones who are significant, the only ones who can represent or set the standards for all of humans" (p. 51). By accepting what the few say is correct, the establishment of a dominant culture develops and people unknowingly fall victim to values and ideals that do not represent everyone. When females study women in history, they get comfortable being a "pre-fix" or "sub-category" (p. 78) within history, such as women's work, or women's history. The creation of a hierarchy occurs that often represents women and their roles in history through the power structure created by men. In other words, the tendency to define women and their roles in history often occurs through definitions and descriptions created by men. Even when women write about other women, it is often in the "domain of men" (p. 78) and rarely in the understanding of a public space for women in society.

Circular reasoning. The second error, according to Minnich, continues from the faulty generalizations and helps to develop standards that most take as universal and appropriate. "Our reasoning is circular when we end up where we began without recognizing, or admitting, that that is what we have done" (1990, p. 82). When people generalize their beliefs from only a few in charge, they tend to believe, or reason that any

standards stated by this group fit all of us. In other words, reasoning becomes circular, connecting each person to the faulty generalizations of the first error.

Mystified concepts. Minnich contends that because people have established and accepted the false generalizations created for us by a few and then reason that everything they say or develop is true, people get accustomed to their established values and ideas that then become mystified concepts. This third basic error is, according to Minnich, "so deeply familiar they are rarely questioned" (p. 51). A good example of the mystification of male-dominated concepts about history can be found in our consideration of women's roles in their private life versus the public arena. People can acknowledge a woman's role in her household, yet they have a difficult time accepting that her household work can also be political (Scott, 1999).

Partial knowledge. The fourth error noted by Minnich is a culmination of all three of the previous errors. In the partial knowledge error, people ultimately never fully attain the true knowledge or understanding of a concept because they have developed their knowledge through the process of the three previous errors. The interaction of these three errors results in partial knowledge of something, especially in regards to only a few individuals and not in relationship to all of humankind.

What Minnich offered in 1990 appears relevant to social studies teachers today. If they are concerned with finding ways that would successfully infuse women into the history curriculum, they must be aware of the origins and structure of knowledge and thinking. The only way to include all of humankind within society is by not being afraid to transform the ways in which we have come to think and understand. A social studies

teacher can transform her curriculum to represent a truer inclusion of the contributions women have made to history.

Scholars and Social Studies Educators' Perspectives

Prior to Minnich's work, Janice Trecker (1971), Gerda Lerner (1979), Mary Kay Tetreault (1986), and Charlotte Bunch (1987) explored similar issues and concerns regarding the lack of the representation and contributions of women in history. Trecker (1971) examined history textbooks from the 1960's and discovered there were severe omissions in terms of the coverage of women within these texts. Lerner (1979), on the other hand, focused her work on trying to conceptualize just how to include women within the history curriculum by suggesting a theoretical framework for history that included three stages for studying women.

According to Lerner (1979), the first stage, compensatory history, focused on notable women who had been previously missing from history. The second stage, contributory history, incorporated women's daily activities within larger events such as the progressive era and the suffrage movement. Lerner's final stage, transformative history, integrated the two previous stages of women into one that brought awareness to social history by eliminating male-dominated social structures.

Almost a decade later, Tetreault (1986) analyzed history textbooks from the 1970's and 1980's and found similar problems as Trecker (1971). In addition, Tetreault (1986) later codified Lerner's 1979 work into categories and labeled it a phase model. In Tetreault's phase model approach to the study of women in history she expanded on Lerner's previous stages by including a "male-defined history," an "oppression framework," and a "female-oriented consciousness in history" (Woyshner, 2002, p. 359).

In 1987, Bunch's "add-women-and stir" approach launched an entirely new phase of criticism regarding the lack of a true representation of women and their contributions to history (Noddings, 2001). Bunch (1987) suggested that by just adding women to textbooks and curriculums, the "add-women-and stir" tactic, women's real contributions during a particular historical period or event became meaningless to students. A "true" representation of women in history and women's "real" contributions to history means not limiting women "…to a male model…" of history which often confines women "…to the separate sphere of homemaking and private caregiving" (Noddings, 2001, p. 30). From the works of Trecker (1971), Lerner (1979), Tetreault (1986), and Bunch (1987), a new view on the study of women and their roles in history paved the way for advancing the inclusion of women in more meaningful contexts. As DeHart and Kerber (2004) suggest, "the new women's history challenges us…to *reconstruct* many historical generalizations, and to *reconfigure* the historical narrative" (p. 3).

Current Rationales on the State of the Social Studies Curriculum

The lack of representation of women in meaningful contexts is one of the central arguments scholars make when they seek change in the social studies field. Since the 1980's, the inclusion of women in history textbooks has increased, but often in smaller percentages than hoped and not always in meaningful contextual areas (Clark, et al., 2004). While textbooks show "more pictures of women and more references to women," Noddings points out, "women just appear in pictures, whether or not their presence is relevant" to the situation or event being discussed (1992, p. 230). What this continues to do, according to Crocco (1997), is keep "women's stories as peripheral to the real story of political and economic history" (p. 32). With political, military, and economic history

still dominating social studies textbooks and curricula (Clark, et al., 2004; Crocco, 1997), Crocco suggests students will continue to misunderstand women's roles in the past because they will "receive the message that [women's lives] have been unimportant to history" (p. 32). As Minnich (1990) noted, when this happens, a privileged dominant tradition will continue, leaving out half of humankind.

Another area scholars have been concerned with is the subject or content knowledge of the classroom social studies teacher. If social studies teachers do not have foundational knowledge in history, how can they challenge what appears or what does not appear in social studies textbooks? In addition, if the teacher is the transmitter, facilitator, or the gatekeeper of knowledge, without a strong background in historical context, he/she will only be exacerbating the problem of the omission of women in meaningful contexts (Crocco, 1997; Noddings, 1992; Thornton, 2005).

Feminist Inclusion Models and Suggestions

Over the past forty years, feminist historians and educators have offered a number of suggestions on how to adequately include and represent women in the social studies content. In the late 1960's, Lerner suggested a theoretical framework for the teaching of women in history that accurately represents women through various historical events and periods. Lerner (2004) also noted that there was a need for clearer gender definitions to address gender roles and stereotypes faced by women. This model, according to Woyshner (2002), "outlines the progression from male-defined history to a history in which the experiences of women in the past are valued…" (p. 358). When women's experiences in the past become valued, a "female-oriented consciousness [will] drive historical research and [then this becomes] central to the curriculum" (p. 358).

In the 1980's, Tetreault took Lerner's concepts and codified them into what she called a phase model approach to studying women in history. Her phases included a "male-defined history," "compensatory history" (the inclusion of famous women), "contribution history" (how women contributed within a male-centered context), an "oppression framework" (the history of women's oppression), and finally the "female-oriented consciousness in history" (women's experiences in the past become valued) (Woyshner, 2002, p. 359).

In 1983, Peggy McIntosh developed a model to fit with what she believed was a necessary cry for revision within the field of history (Crocco, 1997; Woyshner, 2002). The model she developed was not meant to be a chronological approach but rather one that worked to answer the question "how would the discipline [history] need to change to reflect the fact that half the world's population are women and have had, in one sense, half the world's experience" (Crocco, 1997, p. 34)? Her five phases consisted of a "womanless history," "woman in history," "woman as problem, anomaly, or absence," "woman as history," and "history redefined to include us all" (p. 33).

Regardless of which approach is used, the goal of each model is to develop a "history curriculum that places women's experiences more centrally" (Woyshner, 2002, p. 358) within the context of the traditionally centered male paradigm. In addition, these models, specifically McIntosh's, "give direction to those researching and teaching women's lives and helps check the progress and development in the field" (p. 359). While each model has advantages and disadvantages, a social studies educator that follows one of these heuristic devices, may be able to work to redefine and reconstruct

their knowledge and their students' knowledge, which will ultimately place all people, regardless of gender, at the center of history.

In addition to the phase model approach, scholars have suggested other ways to place women in contexts that are more meaningful. Cruz and Groendal-Cobb (1998) suggested an "infusion model" and more recently, Sincero and Woyshner (2003) have suggested a "writing women in" approach. Both of these approaches place significant emphasis on the classroom teacher's role and her/his understanding of women's history. Each model also suggests that a concerted effort on the teacher's part to include more women into their lesson plans will enhance students' understanding of women's place in society. These researchers follow the concept of the teacher's job as "gatekeeper." Thornton (2005) views a classroom teacher as curriculum and content gatekeeper, who is empowered to infuse or add in women into the context of their daily curricula. Thornton (2005) sees teachers as holding the key to further emphasizing the roles and contributions of women in history.

A gap in the research is evident, however, when considering the integration of women into historical texts and narratives for use in high school U.S. history courses beyond the suffrage period. As Woyshner (2002) has pointed out, when women's issues are eventually included into a high school curriculum, discussion of historical content often occurs during the suffrage period which has made "the quest for women's suffrage…a curriculum staple" (p. 365). Studies such as Cruz and Groendal-Cobb (1998) and Karnes (2000) suggest activities developed around suffrage or that focus on student perspectives on suffrage (Levstik, 1998).

In addition, having taught for over twenty years, I can attest that the availability of studies offering teachers practical suggestions for how to implement women's contributions in history for students in settings requiring more rigorous and intellectually challenging lessons are difficult to find. However, developing studies that offer rigorous and demanding lessons for incorporating the contributions women have made in history creates a complex situation for social studies researchers. As Cruz and Groendal-Cobb (1998) suggest, student populations are often diverse and teachers frequently face mandatory curriculums that may inhibit them from developing lessons that are more advanced. Nevertheless, when a teacher works in a school setting that is academically challenging, some of the studies about how to incorporate women into lessons are not helpful because their focus tends to be on younger students.

Cruz and Groendal-Cobb (1998) note that their "infusion model" has been successfully used with middle school and high school students, but their example, developed around a lesson plan noted in their appendix, uses a pizza ballot and a pizza party. While this is creative and would most likely be fun for younger students or students in more diverse academic settings, high school teachers in schools that emphasize academics may not find this example suitable for their needs. Karnes's (2000) study, emphasizing suffrage-related learning activities, and Connor's (2000) study, created around excellent guiding questions and inquiries to study revolutionary women, including a few questions for high school students, represent two studies that are more applicable for middle school teachers and younger students. In addition, while Levstik and Groth (2002) looked beyond the suffrage era and generated interesting student perspectives on women's contributions in history during the antebellum period, the

students in their study were eighth graders, again not very helpful and relevant for high school teachers searching for ways to incorporate women into their lessons. More recently, Hickey and Kolterman (2006) provide a strong argument about the importance of representing women's history and its value for students but their article focuses on elementary students in grades K-6.

More researchers need to examine the high school U.S. history curriculum and focus less on the suffrage era by developing studies that work to integrate meaningful contributions of women throughout an entire course and all periods of U.S. history. In addition, researchers could develop studies that are also relevant to high school U.S. history teachers in academically rigorous settings. Placing women throughout an entire U.S. history course and addressing all levels of instruction will help remove the notion that women are too forced into the curriculum and "we cannot study them" as Patricia, my former student, suggested.

Reconceptualizing Terms and Women's Roles

While scholars and educators argue that representing women in more meaningful contexts within the social studies curriculum will help enhance the status and power of women in society, many call for redefining key terms that have marginalized women. They believe terms such as "political" and "private" need reconceptualization because they are traditionally male-centered (Noddings, 1992; Scott, 1999; Woyshner, 2002). Ryan (2003) suggests that because "women's public sphere had its own gender bias" (p. 23) the public and private language used when talking about women needs "refining rather than discarding" (p. 24). Ryan (2003) argues that "public access and private rights have long been held as male prerogatives" and women continue to be "underrepresented

in the highest political positions and formal public discourse" (p. 24). The rationale presented by feminists is that if scholars and educators can redefine traditional male spheres, they will begin to bridge the gap between a dominant patriarchal tradition that has not only marginalized women's roles in society (Scott, 1999; Woyshner, 2002) but has also created stereotypes for males regarding what it means to be masculine (Zook, 2002).

Over the years, social history has emphasized the roles that women play within their households, the community, and women's organizations. As Woyshner (2002) points out, during the 1980's Lerner worried that feminist historians and scholars were placing too much emphasis on women in relationship to social history or private life and not enough in the political or public events occurring around them.

While some have suggested what women do within these social categories brings a public awareness to women's roles and contributions in society (Crocco, 1997; Noddings, 1992), more current scholars continue to raise Lerner's initial concerns. Many believe if they redefine political to include the social activities of women this will offer a stronger argument for women's private life being public and political (Hahn, 1996; Ryan, 2003; Woyshner, 2002). However, Woyshner (2002) cautions that many researchers have limited their studies to include an over reliance on the suffrage movement for women, specifically white, middle-class women, and have included little research that places women as "political actors in various arenas: home, neighborhoods, clubs, associations, and unions" (p. 369). By limiting the study of women to the suffrage period, scholars force women to conform, once again, to a male-centered definition of politics and public

engagement and of citizenship generally. If this continues, women will quietly remain in the private sector and never fully appear in public as political beings.

In redefining these terms, feminists hope they can move women to a more public arena, showing how women's work, their roles in their families and communities, and their relationships within women's clubs and organizations are not merely social endeavors but rather constitute political action and thus redefine political. What is also quite evident is that many feminists suggesting new definitions impart how redefining terms can occur in frameworks that are similar to the "phase model," "infusion," and "write in" approach as earlier suggested, even if they do not explicitly state they are using these approaches (Woyshner, 2002).

Studying Gender

The study of gender can offer another means by which teachers can more effectively include women in the social studies content. Many feminists argue that gender is a socially constructed concept with characteristics and traits specific to many cultures. The early trend within gender studies was to emphasize gender history to reverse the inequalities among the sexes. By the 1980s, the term gender often replaced the term women because it appeared less threatening and was separated from feminist politics (Scott, 1999).

By the 1990s, historians began using the term gender in a descriptive manner. They often studied issues and events that stereotypically involved and described what women were doing in their private life, thus giving more emphasis to women in social history. Few historians were trying to make any connections between gender and

participation in public activities. In fact, many political historians rarely considered gender at all (Scott, 1999).

Recent scholarship has resulted in a broadening of the term gender. Much of the historical research being conducted in gender history is shifting attention to include not only the roles women have played in history, but also how the social structures that men have created impact men and women (Ryan, 2003; Zook, 2002). Ryan (2003) contends that "gender bias…is not just a women's issue" and when considering gender and politics, "the public sphere is haunted by the ghosts of the people it excludes" (p. 21). Gender historians, many of whom are also feminists, further contend that because gender history relates to women's history and "masculinity and femininity are relational constructs, the definition of one depends on the other" (Zook, 2002, p. 2). When considered in this context, the coverage of labor, health issues, family organizations, politics, and economics concerns males and females and consequently shifts attention away from just women.

Gender becomes "an important analytic tool" when women are considered (Scott, 1999, p. 25). In this view, the coverage of political history can occur within gender history by considering how the differences between the sexes are incorporated within power structures that have "fixed binary distinctions between men and women" (p. 27). When employing gender as a tool, the unequal power distributions that have existed throughout history are observed in relationship to how they were created and held together to maintain order within society, regardless of one's gender. By being aware of power structures and binary divisions, women may begin to appear more in the center of

society, resulting in a better acknowledgement of the contributions they have made to history and possibly change people's ideas about what actually constitutes contributions.

The Teacher's Role as Gatekeeper

The omission of women's contributions from the text and narratives of history is a problem that all social studies teachers need to address. While the social studies field will most likely continue to argue over the definition, content, and purpose of the social studies (Evans, 2004), social studies teachers must ask one vital question. *Are teachers enabling meaningful learning to occur in such a way that promotes participatory democracy if or when they omit from their instruction the contributions of women?* Central to this question is the need for classroom teachers to understand their own educational purposes and aims (Adler, 1991; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Noddings, 2005; Thornton, 1991, 2005). In order for teachers to understand their purposes and aims, they must also have subject and pedagogical knowledge (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Parker, 1987; Shulman, 1987; Thornton, 1991, 2005). When subject and pedagogical knowledge inform a teacher's purposes and aims, the teacher becomes the *mediator* (Parker, 1987), the *facilitator of knowledge* (Bickmore, 1993; Rossi, 1995; Rossi & Pace, 1998; Yeager & Davis, 1996), and the *gatekeeper* (Thornton, 1991, 2005).

While research has pointed to the importance of subject and content knowledge of teachers (Wilson & Wineburg, 1988; Wineburg & Wilson, 1988, 1991), Noddings (2005) suggests, "curriculum-makers [that solely allow] subject-matter experts to decide on topics, conceptual understandings, and skills …" (p. vii) add to students' disinterest in the subject. If teachers emphasize subject knowledge over pedagogical knowledge, social

studies classes can be a boring, teacher-centered recitation of unimportant and meaningless facts (Morrisett, Hawke & Superka, 1980). Students in such classes will not be able to acquire meaningful learning and understand how some groups, such as women, have been marginalized or missing from the discourse of history.

Meaningful learning, as Cornbleth (2001) defines it, is "going beyond memorization…both connecting information internally… with what one already knows" (p. 75). This definition reinforces the need to emphasize both subject and pedagogical knowledge for social studies teachers, much in the way that Shulman (1987) combined the two into *pedagogical content knowledge*. With Shulman's perspective, the classroom teacher develops a strong background in both subject knowledge and pedagogy, which then allows meaningful learning to occur in classrooms. Emphasizing both subject matter content and pedagogy opens the door for marginalized groups, such as women, to make an appearance. However, when the classroom door closes and instruction begins, the person in control of unlocking the contributions of women in history is the classroom teacher.

The teacher determines what she/he believes is important to teach in any classroom (Adler, 1991, 2004b; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Parker, 1987; Thornton, 1991, 2005). Even though many teachers face lengthy local and state curriculum guides, testing requirements, and standard textbooks and resources, Thornton (1991, 2005) believes that teachers are the gatekeepers because they make the final decisions as to the actual material covered in their classrooms. The teacher makes "the day-to-day decisions concerning both the subject matter and the experiences to which

pupils have access and the nature of that subject matter and those experiences" (Thornton, 2005, p. 1).

Obstacles Facing Teachers

When teachers make curricular decisions regarding what content students encounter and experience in their classrooms, they need to be aware of areas influencing the choices they make. There are many research examples examining teacher characteristics (Leming, 1991), competence (Stanley, 1991), subject matter knowledge (Thornton, 2001, 2005; Wineburg & Wilson, 1988, 1991), historical thinking and interpretation (Bohan & Davis, 1998; Yeager & Davis, 1996), life histories (Coughlin, 2003), external and internal restraints (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002), and real world challenges (Heilman, 2001) that can affect a teacher's content and pedagogical choices as they develop their lesson plans. While many of these may develop as obstacles for the teacher in this current study, initially two appeared more relevant to consider, subject matter knowledge and external and internal restraints. While a teacher's subject matter knowledge and external and internal restraints may influence their curricular choices in positive ways, a teacher that is cognizant of how these areas personally influence their decisions may have better success incorporating new material into their lesson plans.

Subject Matter Knowledge

One relevant issue to social studies teachers concerning subject matter knowledge that can become an obstacle for teachers and student learning is the notion of what teachers believe constitutes subject matter knowledge. Wineburg (1997) contends that teachers often view historical subject matter knowledge as an either/or situation. For example, some history teachers may believe students need stronger background

knowledge in chronological history, or breadth of knowledge, and only present facts, dates, and information that moves in a sequential fashion. Other history teachers may focus more on students developing depth of historical knowledge where a particular period, event, or person in history is covered in greater detail. According to Wineburg (1997), historical subject matter knowledge should move beyond these narrow lenses and focus more on what history really is about, which is "connection, integration, motivation, and significance" (p. 257).Wineburg also suggests teachers often relinquish the responsibility for deciding what content and subject knowledge students should learn to professional groups or individuals rather than themselves. In fact, he contends that when teachers do this, "we become spectators to the knowledge creation process, outsiders who bob up and down in response to others' actions" (p. 255). Whether a teacher wants their students to gain historical knowledge breadth or depth is not as significant as a teacher being aware that either one can become an obstacle when students do not learn critical thinking skills that enable them to integrate and interconnect complex historical concepts. When teachers do not take an active role in deciding subject matter for themselves, they give up the ability to address the meaningful contributions of not only women who have been missing from history, but all people.

A potential obstacle a teacher could face when trying to integrate women into a history curriculum is a lack of historical subject knowledge. For a number of years, educators have addressed the issue of just what subject matter knowledge social studies teachers actually need to know in order to be effective in the classroom (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Downey & Levstik, 1991; Thornton, 2001, 2005; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988; Wineburg & Wilson, 1988, 1991). Research has shown many schools hire teachers

to teach out-of-field and may have insufficient background knowledge to teach these subjects. Using survey data from the National Center for Education Statistics, Ingersoll (1999, 2001) found that over half of all social studies teachers did not have a major or minor in history. However, some of the same educators asking what subject matter knowledge is important to teach social studies suggested a combination of pedagogy and subject knowledge enable teachers to be more effective (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Thornton, 2001, 2005). Supporting this position, Darling-Hammond (2000) found that there was no real correlation between a teacher's subject knowledge and student achievement. In a later study, Darling-Hammond & Sykes (2003) evaluated numerous studies on teacher qualifications and discovered one of the most significant contributing factors to student success was a teacher's ability to teach. As Shulman (1987) suggested, pedagogical content knowledge offers opportunities for meaningful learning to occur in classrooms. If social studies teachers are not aware of any limitations they may have regarding subject knowledge and/or pedagogical weaknesses, they may not be able to expand beyond standardized curriculums and textbooks and this could become an obstacle to how effective they can be when they try to incorporate new content into their lesson plans.

External and Internal Restraints

External and internal restraints and constraints (Cornbleth, 2001) are factors that may influence a teacher as she works to make changes in their curriculum. Cornbleth (2001) suggests external controls and self-censorship can impede a teacher's attempt to alter curriculum and promote meaningful learning. As she acknowledges, these are not the only factors or conditions impacting teachers but they are "embedded in the culture

of…schools…[and] typical role demands and material conditions of teaching in U.S. classrooms" (p. 75). Cornbleth characterized climates that may affect meaningful learning and teaching from occurring including: bureaucratic, conservative, pathology/pessimism, and competition. Later, Cornbleth (2002) paired these climates into three groupings: *stifling, chilling*, and *drought-stricken*. If social studies teachers want to revise or change their curriculum to include those marginalized in historical text and narratives, they must be aware of these potential restraints or constraints.

Stifling climates. Cornbleth (2002) explains one stifling climate as representing the bureaucracy or school rules teachers are required to enforce daily. When there is little flexibility in the rules, teachers have a tendency to teach more defensively and this style of teaching "…controls students by controlling classroom knowledge" (Cornbleth, 2001, p. 79). A second stifling climate, conservativism, is less restrictive than the school rules climate. Cornbleth reviewed studies that found that conservative emphases were "…on maintaining the status quo…" by getting teachers to transmit "…the prevailing culture" (p. 80) of the school and local community. New teachers and experienced teachers in stifling school climates quickly learn what is expected in their teaching and the content they are required to present.

Chilling climates. These climates consist of censorship and judicial restraint placed on teachers (Cornbleth, 2002). Parents and administrators may limit or actually prohibit the teaching of certain topics or the use of textbooks and materials they find inappropriate in this climate. A teacher unaware of the mission or philosophical predispositions of the school they are teaching in will not be able to effectively challenge the status quo. Cornbleth (2002) suggests that teachers in these settings can align with

other teachers having similar views and quietly create lessons that challenge students to think about different perspectives. By not outwardly challenging the authority of the school, a teacher would be able to reinforce more meaningful learning to occur for their students in this type of setting.

Drought-stricken climates. In drought-stricken climates, there is either an overemphasis on student problems and their pessimism for learning or an overwhelming drive for high student achievement and test scores (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002). Teachers in each setting face intensive daily pressures that can often make them pessimistic regarding student learning or encourage them teach to the test in order for scores to be high. Teachers in either climate may become discouraged to integrate women into their lesson plans.

Conclusion

Proponents supporting the representation of women in more meaningful contexts throughout the history curriculum and the social studies field in general (Clark, et al., 2004, 2005; Crocco, 1997; Noddings, 2001; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Tetreault, 1986; Woyshner, 2002), would argue that the curriculum must change. As Shaver (1997) notes, change in the curriculum cannot occur if the curriculum teachers view on a daily basis is not in line with their own views and beliefs. Thornton (2005) also suggests that the "curricular-instructional business-as-usual" often does not allow students to engage in meaningful and productive learning (p. 16). Teachers must understand their purposes and aims for teaching a particular content or for using certain instructional strategies and textbooks (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Thornton, 2005). They must also be aware of

obstacles that may impede on their ability to enact their curriculum and address these issues directly.

If social studies teachers support the idea that a primary purpose of the field is to "teach students the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy" (NCSS, 1994), then they are the only ones that can reinforce this through the lesson plans they develop for their classrooms. The classroom teacher, not mandated curriculums nor the textbooks used in classrooms, controls whether women's contributions receive attention. Leaving out women, or as Minnich (1990) puts it, "half of humankind," does not allow all students to learn the importance of citizenship education in a participatory democracy.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

An interpretive inquiry uses an inductive strategy enabling researchers to describe, as richly as possible, the perspectives and positions of participants involved in a study (Merriam, 2002). Researchers using this approach are "interested in understanding how participants make meaning of a situation or phenomenon" (p. 4) and believe, as Creswell and Miller (2000) suggest, "…reality is socially constructed and it is what participants perceive it to be" (p. 125). Qualitative research allows for induction and interaction regarding the experiences, meanings, and beliefs of the participants involved (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999).

The purpose of this interpretive study was to understand how a teacher can centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum. The research question framing this inquiry was: *How does a teacher intentionally include women in meaningful contexts in a high school U. S. history class?* Additionally, since research suggests teachers could encounter other obstacles when developing and incorporating their lesson plans, three sub questions are relevant:

1) How does a teacher decide the historical contexts in which women are to be included or not included?
2) What specific challenges does the teacher face when working to implement women into the U. S. history curriculum?

3) What positive factors have shaped the teacher's abilities or willingness to integrate women into the curriculum?

By using a liberal feminist theoretical lens, an interpretive inquiry allowed me to better uncover my participant's experiences and perspectives as she worked towards integrating women within her lesson plans.

Feminist theory has evolved into a multifaceted and dynamic 'ism' enabling women, as well as men, to dialogue on the inequities women have encountered and experienced in all aspects of their lives. Emerging from "…the context of liberal democracy's proclamation of universal equality…" (Scott, 2004, p. 19), feminism explores power relationships (Dietz, 2003; Scott, 1996, 2004; Tong, 1998), raises consciousness (Stone, 1996), and "…it works within and against whatever are the prevailing foundational assumptions of its time" (Scott, 2004, p. 19-20). Within a multitude of diverse ideas, liberal feminist theory challenges hegemonic patriarchal institutions and structures in society by placing women and their experiences more centrally. The private lives of women can be political, thus bringing agency to women's personal experiences (Giroux, 1990; Scott, 1999). Under the framework of liberal feminist theory, a researcher can address a variety of feminist issues in order to bring meaning to women's lives and their contributions to history.

Context

Setting

The context of this study was an eleventh grade, college preparatory level 1 U. S. history class in a parochial, private high school in a large metropolitan Catholic diocese in the Southeast. The school has a total enrollment of 1080 in grades 9-12 and offers a

variety of academic courses at three different levels of instruction: Advanced Placement (AP)/Honors, College Preparatory level 1 (CP1), and College Preparatory level 2 (CP2). Students enrolled in CP1 classes possess good skills, study habits and need little supervision to complete their work. All three levels of instruction at this school focus on preparing students to attend college. With an SAT range of 1100-1290, ninety-eight percent of the students attending this school attend college post graduation. The social studies department consists of nine full-time and two part-time faculty members and offers a variety of courses students can elect to take. World History (10th grade), United States History (11th grade), and Government and Economics (12th grade) are required courses for graduation.

At this school, the social studies teachers have the freedom and flexibility to develop their own course curriculums. At the beginning of each semester, all teachers teaching United States History review the previous year's curriculum and make adjustments according to what topics they believe require more coverage. Through the curriculum development process, each individual teacher has the capacity to inform and change the curriculum.

In choosing this location, I used a purposive sampling strategy because I was looking for a setting that would allow a teacher to be creative with her curriculum, yet representative and typical of many private high schools in the United States. With a purposive sampling strategy, participants are "chosen not for their representativeness but for their relevance to the research question, analytical framework, and explanation or account being developed in the research" (Schwandt, 2001, p. 232). In using purposeful sampling, a researcher is hoping to encounter rich information (LeCompte & Schensul,

1999; Maxwell, 1996; Merriam, 2002). I believe this setting allowed my participant, Barbara, to have the flexibility and freedom to create lesson plans with potentially few obstacles. I also felt the flexibility and freedom Barbara had would offer the possibility and chance for women to be included in historical areas that expand beyond the antebellum or suffrage period.

Participant

For this inquiry, I was not looking for a teacher who mirrored my feminist beliefs. I believed it was important to find a talented teacher who had strong background knowledge in history. I also wanted a female as my participant because I believed the life experiences of a female teacher might offer a more personal lens when searching for areas where women have been neglected in history. I chose Barbara for this study because I believe she is an exceptional teacher and has a strong knowledge of American history. I base this on my own experiences working with and observing Barbara for the last four years as her department chair in the school where this study took place. While this may appear as a conflict, I will later discuss this issue under *Researcher's Role*. I believe, however, the working relationship the two of us have allowed for a trusting and intimate environment in which Barbara could share her experiences.

Data Collection

Data collection began fall semester 2006 when I interviewed Barbara to gather background on her beliefs regarding the curriculum content of a U. S. history course, her approach to developing her lesson plans, and how and why she decides what historical content to include. At this time, I offered her suggestions on where to find resources covering women in history. Within one week, I interviewed Barbara a second time to

discuss keeping a journal as she created her lesson plans and taught her content. During this interview, I asked Barbara to decide how often she would be able to give me copies of her journaling (see Appendix A for Journal Entry Template). I audio taped these interviews and all subsequent interviews and gave Barbara copies of each transcribed audio taped session in order to ensure the accuracy of my interpretations.

After the two initial interviews with Barbara, I began classroom observations. My intention was to observe Barbara's class at least twice a week, and to take field notes, gather handouts, lecture notes, and other materials and resources that she uses in her lesson plans. I was able to visit her classroom twenty six times (see Appendix B for Researcher's Timeline). For the remainder of the semester, I met with Barbara twice a month to record her reflections and discuss any issues, situations, or questions that arose. In total, I conducted ten interviews with her. The length of these sessions lasted no more than 45 minutes. These bi-monthly meetings incorporated semi-structured and unstructured questions based on what I was observing from Barbara's classroom and her journaling (see Appendix C for Examples of Interview Questions). The use of semi-structured and unstructured questions allowed for open-ended responses from Barbara and afforded me a better understanding of her experiences (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999).

Data Analysis

Once I conducted the initial interview with Barbara, I listened to the audio taped session, transcribed the information, and began a coding system based on patterns, themes, and categorizes that developed from the interview (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). With the transcribed information from this first interview,

I began categorizing information on a 4x4 whiteboard. As the process of data analysis unfolded, I decided to divide the board into the three main sections I would be gathering data from: my interviews with Barbara, classroom observations, and Barbara's journal responses. From the transcribed notes for the first interview, I was able to begin color-coding data under the interview column into three broad categories: Barbara's background, Barbara's feminist views, and Barbara's views on women in history. As I reviewed my transcriptions, I labeled information relevant to Barbara's background with a B, her feminist views with a FV, and her views on women with a VW. I then entered this information under the interview category on the white board.

In the second interview, I generated semi-structured questions based on the information gathered from the first interview. I then followed the process of transcribing this interview and noticed two other emerging categories that I labeled as Barbara's teaching and Barbara's school climate and culture. As I listened to the audio taped transcriptions, I labeled information relevant to her teaching with a T and her school climate and culture with an SCC. Additionally, I continued to mark any areas she discussed that would fall under the previously established codes generated from the initial interview.

After these two interviews, I began to notice what appeared to be sub-categories for the initial coding categories already established. At this point, I realized I needed to refine my coding system to represent the new emerging categories. Using a constant comparative approach as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967), I continually refined my coding system. Along with using a constant comparative approach, Maxwell (1996) offers other strategies such as data reduction and color-coding to help with pattern

analysis and to compare data between and within any emerging categories. I incorporated these strategies to maintain the integrity of the coding system in this research. I also discovered that I was generating a great deal of data and needed to use one entire white board just for the interviews conducted with Barbara. At this time, I decided to use three 4x4 white boards, one for interviews, one for observations, and one for other data sources. By using three white boards, I was able to further break down and analyze the categories for patterns and themes that were emerging. Within this process, I began to use colored note cards to represent my coding categories. I used blue note cards for Barbara's background, red for her feminist views, green for her views on women in history, purple for her teaching, and yellow for information relevant to Barbara's school climate and culture. For all subsequent interviews, I followed the same process of listening, transcribing, and coding information. In addition, Barbara received copies of all transcribed notes prior to the next interview so she could ensure the accuracy of the information.

When classroom observations began, I followed a similar coding procedure for my field notes and the documents Barbara gave to me along with any correspondence we had with each other outside of our scheduled interviews. This coding procedure included Barbara's journaling after every unit. As themes emerged, I categorized and coded these themes on colored note cards in the same manner used for the interviews with Barbara. Having the data color-coded enabled me to more clearly see patterns between and within categories as my analysis progressed. Additionally, I closely analyzed the data I received to interpret and understand the information in the context it was observed and presented to me (Maxwell, 1996). Understanding the context of the information I received and

coding was very important to the findings of this study because of the variety of sources from which I gathered data. For approximately fifteen weeks, I followed this same pattern of observing, interviewing, and gathering data while constantly analyzing the information for categories and themes that emerged.

Establishing Trustworthiness

Many argue that in any qualitative research, it is imperative for a study to establish trustworthiness. The assurance of trustworthiness occurs when a researcher employs four elements: credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility

Credibility addresses the accuracy of a researcher's findings. A researcher must reconstruct and portray, as authentically as possible, the views of participants in their study. In addition, a researcher must openly discuss potential biases, theories, positions, and premises to offer readers authentic and accurate findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Guba & Lincoln, 2005, Creswell & Miller, 2000). The setting and context must be clear and descriptive in order to add to a study's credibility (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). To construct credibility, I used the following strategies: triangulation, member checking, peer review, prolonged engagement in the field, and persistent observation.

Triangulation. Creswell and Miller (2000) describe triangulation as a method researchers use to "search for a convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (p. 126). During this study, I triangulated data to ensure credibility by using observations, interviews, and any

documents Barbara gave me. These strategies allowed me to search for possible themes and categories relevant to my research question.

Member checking. One of the most critical strategies for establishing credibility is member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to authenticate a study's findings and enhance the integrity of the researcher, participants need to be able to comment on the representation and presentation of their ideas. Barbara received transcripts of all interview sessions, which allowed her to verify the accuracy of the information.

Peer review. Receiving unbiased opinions from someone not intimately involved in the research study allows a researcher to establish another way to enhance a study's credibility (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2002). It is also important that peer reviews occur throughout the entire research study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Once a month during the study, I met with two education doctoral students who attend another university to share my thoughts and beliefs regarding the data I was collecting and to get their suggestions. In addition, I had a former graduate of the College of Education program at the university I am attending review my data and offer me constructive feedback.

Prolonged engagement in the field. LeCompte and Miller (2000) suggest that credibility increases when a researcher can build "a tight and holistic case" (p. 128). In other words, it is important for a researcher to be in the field over a long period. This study lasted approximately fifteen weeks, which enabled me to build trust and establish a greater rapport with Barbara. In addition, in the four years Barbara has been working in the social studies department, a positive working relationship has existed between the two of us. Prolonged engagement in the field and having a good rapport with Barbara was

critical to this study's credibility because it allowed a thicker and richer understanding of Barbara's views as she worked to integrate women within different historical periods.

Persistent observation. Observing over a long period allows for a complete picture of any themes and data to emerge (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2002). Because I observed Barbara twice a week for approximately three and a half months, I had the opportunity to develop a complete picture of the themes and data emerging. In additions, Barbara also kept a journal and gave me her journal responses before she started a new unit. Having Barbara's journals before she began a new unit allowed me to generate more questions and it gave me the ability to compare what she was experiencing throughout each unit as I was observing her. Finally, the analysis of data immediately after observations helped enhance the trustworthiness of the data findings.

Transferability

Transferability allows for the generalizability of the findings of a study in a thick descriptive manner. Because qualitative researchers play the role of interpreter, descriptions that are thick, detailed, and rich with content and context allow others the chance to draw inferences and conclusions that might offer validity and applicability to their work (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). This inquiry, however, did not seek to be generalizable. The intent of this study was to establish trustworthiness in a way that would allow others to apply what they believe would be helpful to their own situation. By presenting the findings in a thick and descriptive manner, others should be able to transfer the portions they believe are pertinent to their circumstances (Merriam, 2002).

Dependability

Dependability addresses the reliability of a study's findings. The entire process of gathering data and conducting research needs to be logical and well documented. A researcher must be clear and accurate with how they have established their theoretical framework, chosen their subjects, collected and analyzed data, and written up their final report. As previously discussed, important strategies such as triangulation, peer review, and member checking are not only critical to ensuring credibility, but they are also significant components to establishing dependability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). One of the most important strategies to ensure dependability of a study is the use of an audit trail. An audit trail is a detailed account the researcher employs to explain the systematic process used to collect and analyze data (Merriam, 2002). I kept an audit trail and a research log of all field notes and data sources in a locked file to enhance the rigor of this study (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Confirmability

Confirmability focuses on the researcher's ability to connect the findings and data in an impartial and unbiased manner. Here a researcher establishes a foundation or justification for their study through a thorough literature review, the use of triangulation in as many ways as possible, and by completing an audit trail. A study increases the likelihood of its confirmability when these strategies are clearly, logically, and impartially established (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). As previously described, I used triangulation, member checking, peer reviewing, and created an audit trail to add to the confirmability of this study.

Researcher's Role

To establish validity, qualitative research uses researchers' perspectives not commonly seen in quantitative research. The viewpoints or lens of the researcher in a qualitative study plays a significant role in the interpretation of data they are gathering (Creswell & Miller, 2000). To ensure validity, a researcher must "…self-disclose their assumptions, beliefs, and biases" that inform and shape their study (p. 127). In this study, I realize that the lens by which I view and construct reality influenced how I interpreted Barbara's experiences.

As a teacher who considers herself a feminist and believes history courses neglect women in meaningful contexts, I brought an immediate perspective to this inquiry. The lens through which I viewed information was one that openly acknowledges a strong commitment to eradicating patriarchal structures that limit women's ability to effectively engage within a democratic participatory system in the United States. As a feminist, I believe societal structures, such as educational institutions, perpetuate this problem by reinforcing curriculums that have marginalized women and their contributions to history.

For this study, I did not intentionally try to find a participant who had similar beliefs. In fact, Barbara does not label herself a feminist because she feels that "society has warped the definition of feminism" (Interview, August 15, 2006) but she believes that the omission of women's contributions to history is important to address. I believe Barbara was, however, a good choice as a participant in this study based on the previously acknowledged reasons for choosing her.

I also recognized that Barbara and I have a working relationship and I am in a position of authority over her as her department head. However, I believed that because I

have worked with her for four years and have been in and out of her classroom, she was comfortable with me observing her, which helped to eliminate any possible stress she may have felt with an observer present. Our relationship also offered a more trusting and intimate environment in which Barbara could discuss her experiences as she attempted to integrate women into her curriculum.

Limitations

While there were limitations based on my role as researcher, keeping an audit trail and following strategies to ensure trustworthiness tempered some of my personal bias (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2002). I am also aware that in choosing this setting and participant I chose a purposeful sample. As previously mentioned, I was looking for a location that was relevant to my research question (Schwandt, 2001) and would allow a teacher the flexibility and freedom to adjust their curriculum without facing too many obstacles. I am aware that transferability is a limitation of this inquiry, but I was not seeking to develop a study that could be transferable to all schools, settings, and teachers. I wanted to thickly describe the findings in a way that offers others the chance to transfer whatever portions they believe would be helpful to their circumstances (Merriam, 2002). I also hoped to discover ways that a teacher can more centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum.

CHAPTER 4

A SNAPSHOT OF BARBARA'S EXPERIENCES

> *I think women are just as significant in history and the making of history as men.*
> (Barbara Morris, Interview, August 15, 2006)

This chapter centers on how Barbara Morris's personal experiences helped shape much of what she does as a teacher and the views she has regarding the importance of including more women into history. By being aware of the internal and external influences she encountered during her formative years along with understanding the environment in which she teaches, readers are provided a glimpse into some possible areas that may have enabled Barbara to be effective as she attempted to integrate women into her history lessons. As she allowed me entrance into many of her private thoughts, it became quite evident that Barbara was a teacher committed to offering her students more than just the facts of history.

Family

As one of two female siblings growing up in a Hispanic family, Barbara learned at an early age the power and influence women could have. Women who challenged the machismo of the family's culture surrounded Barbara. From a demur, yet outspoken grandmother to an independent mother devoted to education for not only herself but also her daughters, Barbara grew up in a household where women could be vocal and often defied the cultural norm. Barbara spoke about this in an interview,

> In Latin American, Hispanic, [or] Spanish society, it is very much the machismo. I mean it is definitely there. You'd hear stories about this wife and these husbands having affairs, it's like, well we don't talk about that kind of thing….When I went home this summer we talked a lot about the history [of my family]. I think we have always had strong women. One great, great grandmother was a writer for a newspaper and we think she actually ended up being killed by the government because of some articles she wrote against the president…. So, our family has always been open about being vocal…and passed that on to their children. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

Barbara went on to explain that while both the males and females in her family were strong individuals, because of the very nature of the culture she grew up in the women in the family would sometimes still defer to the men. To Barbara, this did not mean that deference to the men was a sign of weakness; it was more about showing respect for their family and their family's culture. However, "as soon as a male walks out the door, they [the women] are going to be talking…and saying he is wrong" (Interview, September 13, 2006).

Growing up in an immigrant family, Barbara was not always comfortable with how to refer to her ethnic background. Sometimes, she would call herself Spanish or Latin American but acknowledged that during her middle school days she would often refer to herself uncomfortably as Spanish.

> I don't really use Spanish [today] except to define the language I speak. But, I think before all these pc [politically correct] terms started appearing…I may have referred to myself as Spanish. Though honestly, when I was younger, in middle school, people weren't as open to anyone *'different'* so I don't know that I liked drawing attention to the fact that I was Spanish. (Journal Entry, December 12, 2006)

Today Barbara tends to refer to herself as Hispanic because she feels the term is "broader and all encompassing" (Journal Entry, December 12, 2006). Just as she made a conscious decision to call herself Hispanic because of the inclusive nature of the term, when talking with Barbara and observing her teaching, she also makes conscious decisions regarding

the topics and people she covers in her classes. Barbara understands what it means to be *'different'* and her experiences have made her keenly aware of the many groups of people who rarely receive acknowledgement in the history texts (Journal Entry, December 12, 2006). Because of Barbara's awareness, she works even harder to include the voices of the *'different'* people in her lessons so that her students can receive a *broader and all encompassing* history.

Education

From an early age, Barbara understood the importance of education and was never stifled in her endeavors to pursue whatever career she wanted. "The women in the family," according to Barbara, "have never been told your job is to stay at home" (Interview, September 13, 2006). In fact, even though her mother married her father a semester before she graduated from college, her mother was able to model the importance of education by going back and completing a masters degree in rhetorical writing. Because her mother went back to college, Barbara was able to see that women could still pursue their educational dreams along with having a family. Women did not have to make a choice between the two if they did not want.

High School

While Barbara's family, especially the women in her family, laid a strong foundation for her to chase whatever dreams she wanted, her high school education and the educators in her life also greatly influenced her to have the confidence to speak up and excel in the classroom. In an interview, Barbara stated,

> I went to an all girl's Catholic high school and added to that, I had very vocal teachers. Everyone who spoke up was a girl. You [as a student] had the leadership position and through all that it was just kind of put in me that women do have a say and they do need to stand up for themselves. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

Even though almost all of Barbara's high school teachers were "…very outspoken…" women (Interview, September 13, 2006), she could not remember her teachers taking the time to focus on women in history.

> Outside of talking about Susan B. Anthony, I don't remember talking about women like Alice Paul. I don't know if those things weren't available or just not in the textbooks yet…I really didn't think about it….I couldn't necessarily tell you exactly which men or women we always talked about. I don't remember ever thinking, gosh, we don't talk about this, women in history. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

Nor does Barbara remember being concerned that the coverage of women was not apparent in her history classes.

> I think when I was in high school they were just starting the movement for the African American history month, you know, Black history month. So that seemed more obvious to me, that they [African Americans] weren't as involved in our lessons. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

When I asked Barbara about why she did not think women were covered much in her high school history classes, even when she had strong female teachers, she felt it was more out of habit on her teachers' part than anything else. Regardless of one's gender, she believes a teacher is more likely to teach about topics that she/he learned from her/his former teachers. If the focus of their former teachers' history lessons was always on politics and wars, most likely they, as new teachers, would begin with historical concepts they are knowledgeable in and comfortable teaching. In addition, Barbara felt like teachers receive reinforcement to continue what they are teaching if the textbooks they are using in their classes focus so much on politics and wars and leave out women. While Barbara encountered female teachers that nurtured and reinforced their female students to engage in class discussions, these same teachers reinforced a traditional history that de-

emphasized women and that is what Barbara became accustomed to learning and never thought to question it.

College

Once Barbara finished high school, she attended a small liberal arts university in the southwest where she received a Bachelors degree in History and then a Masters in the Art of Teaching (MAT). Her college experiences, especially from the teachers in her field, opened her eyes to just how exciting history could actually be. While she had always remembered enjoying history, this setting really enhanced her love of the subject and helped hone many of her teaching skills.

When asking Barbara about how prepared she felt about teaching and integrating women into her history lessons today, she responded by explaining that her college experiences and the female history professors she encountered enabled her to build a strong background in history, especially in offering more than just what the textbooks presented.

> I feel I have a strong background because of my degree…There were many women in the history department [at my college] who were very liberal and outspoken and they influenced me a great deal. They showed how you [a teacher] can bring in many different sides to history. For me, the big thing is diversity. This is what they emphasized. (Interview, August 29, 2006)

When asked why diversity was so important to her, she stated,

> It is sad that we have to specialize and have women's history month or an African-American [history] month. I believe it is important to show the more public role of women, not just the one section we see covering women in a few chapters. I think the information is out there, but the hardest part is what to take out. (Interview, August 29, 2006)

Barbara further acknowledged that diversity, to her, also means trying to offer her students a variety of activities to address their differing learning styles. Barbara believes

lessons should build on each other and "wants [her] students to see the progression and connection between events" so that history is presented seamlessly to students (Interview, August 15, 2006). In addition, she decides what is important to teach as well as working to find "…those things that will really peak the interest of the students" (Interview, August 15, 2006). Coming from a traditional history background, Barbara was comfortable learning history from a teacher-centered perspective with the teacher as the transmitter of the knowledge and information she/he wanted their students to retain. Because of her experiences, Barbara teaches in much the same manner, yet does it in a way that is engaging and informative.

In observing Barbara for at least twice a week over a fifteen-week period, I saw a teacher who was focused on the material she had to cover in a forty-five minute class period. Even though Barbara followed a traditional teacher-centered, lecture format to present information to her students, her lectures were organized and succinct and she was able to tell a story as she guided her students through the information. Her ability to infuse information not presented in the text by reading quotes and passages from outside sources and presenting better visual accounts of the events of history, enabled Barbara to keep the attention of her students as she offered them a more encompassing and diverse picture of history.

School Climate and Culture

Research has suggested that the environment in which a teacher is working can greatly affect how and what the teacher teaches (Cornbleth, 2002). Understanding how a teacher feels about their school system's administration, students, and peers enables one to develop a clearer picture of how that teacher must maneuver within the system on a

day-to-day basis. If a teacher is working in a system where conditions do not support and reinforce new ideas and creative teaching methods, the teacher may be less likely to work to change her/his curriculum.

Barbara is teaching in a private, parochial Catholic high school that focuses a great deal of attention on improving students' standardized test scores. She believes that because there is so much emphasis on standardized testing, it forces a teacher to constantly have to consider "what will students be tested on…what will they be required to know for the final exam" (Interview, October 5, 2006). In fact, her department develops a departmental final exam for United States History. While the exam may be beneficial for teachers at the end of the semester because they do not have to worry about finding the time to make an exam, it reinforces her concern that the emphasis on testing pushes teachers to focus on teaching only the topics covered on that exam.

Because Barbara's school is a college preparatory institution, there is an expectation that most students will attend college, which places even more emphasis on grades for teachers and students. According to Barbara, the students are very grade conscious and expect only the information taught in class to appear on their tests. "If things or women aren't on tests, then students think they must not be important" to know (Interview, October 5, 2006). In fact, Barbara said that her students often respond in class by saying "well, you didn't ask that on the test so why should I remember it?" (Interview, October 5, 2006).

In addition to this emphasis on standardized tests and grades, Barbara also feels the administration at her school can often make it difficult for a teacher to stay motivated. When the administration is not focusing on academics, their attention often shifts to

athletics. This makes it difficult for those teachers not coaching a major sport such as football to receive much support and recognition for what they are doing in the classroom. Barbara commented,

> It [the school climate and culture] is very interesting and it really depends on the issue. Here it is often athletics versus academics and football usually gets most of the attention. Often the teacher that is working every day to do what they are supposed to be doing in the classroom goes unrecognized. Here, if you go above and beyond, you get recognized…however, if you do something administration doesn't like, you get reprimanded. But if you are a good, solid teacher, you get nothing. (Interview, August 29, 2006)

Even though the focus at Barbara's school is on high academic standards and improving athletics, she believes the faculty's educational and political background along with their teaching styles offer a positive working environment to teach. According to Barbara, "teachers here…are free thinkers. They have a higher level of thinking…are very educated…and [they] like to challenge students. What is going on in the classrooms is open and encouraging" (Interview, August 29, 2006). The school atmosphere, as described by Barbara, enables her to feel comfortable when she wants to incorporate different lessons or activities.

Feminism and Women's Equal Representation

Barbara's Views on Feminism

While I have watched and listened to Barbara through a feminist lens, in selecting Barbara for this study I was not looking for someone claiming to be a feminist. In fact, prior to the start of this inquiry I was not even aware of her feminist views. However, since the data I have gathered is guided by my feminist beliefs, I felt it was important to understand Barbara's perspective on feminism. In posing the question as to whether or not she would describe herself as a feminist, Barbara's response was candid. Labeling

herself a feminist was not a way she ever categorized herself because she tries to avoid using labels. Barbara talked about these labels in an interview,

> I don't know that I would necessarily describe myself as a feminist, but I also am not the type to label myself as anything because I like to be able to assess my feelings on every separate issue and not feel constricted by one grouping or another. (Interview, August 15, 2006)

Barbara went on to describe how the meaning of feminism has been "warped" by society and how growing up in the South probably led her to be hesitant about calling herself a feminist.

> Unfortunately, I think society has warped the true definition of feminism unfairly into something combative and unyielding. Traits, which would be labeled determined and driven if they were held by a man. And, perhaps growing up in the South in the 80s, when the word feminism was not often portrayed in a positive light, makes me more apprehensive to use the label. (Interview, August 15, 2006)

Barbara does, however, believe in some basic feminist ideals, principles she thinks support the need to include more women and their contributions to history.

> I do believe in the basic ideals of feminism, women have the right to be socially, politically, and economically equal to men. I think women are just as significant in history and the making of history as men, and in some cases even more so because women have always been held responsible for fostering the ideals of religion, morality, or ethics in our society. (Interview, August 15, 2006)

Barbara also believes women should not be included at the expense of neglecting or eliminating the men.

> On the other hand, I do believe that men and women have different strengths to bring to the table, and that those, though occasionally not equal, can complement each other. I think there are some things that men are better at, and some that women excel in, but regardless, both have the right to be heard and considered equally. (Interview, August 15, 2006)

Women's Equal Representation

At the beginning of this study, Barbara believed that even though she has seen an increase in the representation of women in history, it still tends to only be in one or two small sections "every couple of chapters" (Interview, August 15, 2006). In addition, even though women are often mentioned during the prohibition and suffrage periods, she was quick to point out that, in her experiences, "there are still not very many in-depth examinations of women's vast contributions, especially politically" and when women are, "they are often mentioned almost as if an aside to the rest of history" (Interview, August 15, 2006). To Barbara, when the depiction of women only occurs in small sections or snippets, this representation does not offer her students a full understanding of how women actually influenced and participated in the development of the United States, thus reinforcing the continuance of a patriarchal society that can stifle women's involvement and make them a secondary, unimportant group.

When I asked Barbara if celebrating a women's history month helps alleviate the problem of the omission of women in history, she felt it was not enough.

> I always joke about it [women's history month] with the kids. We get one month for that [women's history] and ten months for other stuff. I try and draw their attention to it by saying '*hey, why are we only spending this month on it'* [women]. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

In fact, Barbara went on to say she had never taken any special time in any of her classes to cover one particular month because she feels, "that just perpetuates it [the problem]. (Interview, September 13, 2006)

Conclusion

Barbara's family, education, and the setting in which she teaches have all influenced and continue to affect what she does in the classroom. A common thread

throughout much of these areas has been how the people, especially the women she has encountered in her life, reinforced in her a confidence that enabled her to believe in herself. While she may have faced challenges in the past, the self-confidence she developed has enabled her to confront areas in the U.S. history curriculum that has marginalized women. The following chapter lays out the adjustments Barbara made to the curriculum along with what helped to motivate her to continue in her efforts to work towards integrating women with the content she was required to teach.

CHAPTER 5

TRANSFORMING THE CONTENT OF A U.S. HISTORY COURSE

> *As a teacher, your goal is to represent to kids that women are not secondary, that women did constantly have an impact [on history]; they weren't a secondary group that was making secondary decisions.*
>
> (Barbara Morris, Interview, October 12, 2006)

The purpose of this study was to try to understand how a teacher can centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum. This chapter focuses on how Barbara worked to deliberately infuse women into her curriculum. In order to appreciate the attempts Barbara made in trying to do this, it is first important to understand what it is like for a teacher to start the school year and the planning involved. Those who do not teach are often unaware of what a teacher experiences in preparing for the arrival of a new year. While most may think teachers have plenty of time to rest, refresh, and prepare over the summer, for many, such as Barbara, this is generally not the case. In addition, time becomes a major issue for teachers as other responsibilities besides teaching pull their focus in many different directions.

Along with the planning involved for Barbara before and early in the semester, a major focal point of this chapter is on the traditional U.S. History curriculum and the textbook from which Barbara taught. The challenges she encountered in integrating the experiences of women into her lessons were often inherent in the fact that she had a highly focused curriculum guide that she was required to follow. In addition, the

classroom text, which does include women, de-emphasizes them, which meant that Barbara would have to search for outside resources. This chapter focuses on the planning and teaching outcomes of Barbara's attempts at seamlessly integrating women within the content she was required to teach and the challenges she faced, along with what helped to motivate her to continue in her efforts.

The Beginning of a New School Year

For a high school teacher, the start of any school year can be very daunting. One would think teacher-preplanning days would be a time devoted to teachers putting together their syllabi and write lesson plans. However, the reality for most teachers is that administrative paperwork and mandatory meetings take up most of their planning. In addition, most high school teachers have duties other than teaching.

Before Barbara arrived for pre-planning in August, she had already spent most of her summer involved in an additional responsibility she has as part of her job requirements as head varsity cheerleading coach. In order for her to be ready for the season, she attended a number of camps over the summer, which took up almost a month of her time. In addition, she worked in the weight room for an hour with her cheerleaders two to three times a week throughout most of the summer.

At the end of July and right before school started, Barbara was conducting conditioning practices for her competition cheerleaders almost daily, banner painting with the football cheerleaders two to three days a week from nine in the morning to two in the afternoon, and practicing two to three hours a day for an entire week with all cheerleading squads. Once pre-planning for teachers began in August, Barbara had already begun practices for two different squads that required two to two and a half hours

every day of the week. With so much time devoted to extra-curricular duties, Barbara had little time to think about lesson plans for the three different subjects, CP1 U.S. History, CP1 Government, and CP1 Economics, she was to begin teaching in August.

When classes actually start, the first few days of school can feel like a whirlwind as teachers try to cover their course syllabus and explain classroom rules and expectations to so many unfamiliar and nameless faces. For Barbara, this was no exception. As I observed her during the first few days of school, she was rushing around trying to ensure that her syllabi and course calendars were organized and copied for all her classes. She also acknowledged that she was a little nervous undertaking this project because she really wanted to make sure she was doing a good job to include women but knew the semester topics were not her most favorite to teach (Interview, August 15, 2006). Barbara, however, overcame her nervousness and decided to view this project as an interesting challenge "to incorporate women even more into the U.S. curriculum" and further stated that she thought it would be "…a great way to find a new perspective on teaching the subject and…learning as much as my students…" (Interview, August 15, 2006). Thus, Barbara, a ten-year veteran teacher, began a journey to show her students that women are much more deserving than a secondary status to men in American history. The results reported in this chapter support the contention that by working to integrate women more centrally into her United States history class, Barbara not only discovered ways to do this, she also developed a new appreciation for eighteenth and nineteenth century American history.

The Curriculum and Text

A Traditional U.S. History Curriculum

At Barbara's school, the social studies teachers work together to develop the curriculum for every course that their department offers. Every two years, the social studies department revises their curriculum guide according to national standards for history and department members' suggestions. At the beginning of each semester, all teachers teaching United States History gather to review the previous year's curriculum and make adjustments according to the topics they feel need emphasizing during the semester. This curriculum development process allows individual teachers the capacity to inform and change their curriculum. With the exception of Barbara, the U.S. history teachers in the department chose to make no changes to the current curriculum during the August pre-planning teacher days.

Because much of the curriculum content for United States History comes from the National History Standards, the topics covered during the fall semester tend to be very traditional. Economic, political, and military events guide most of the curriculum's content, along with an emphasis on historical male figures such as Jefferson, Hamilton, Johnson, Lincoln, Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson leading in these endeavors. In fact, when evaluating the department's standards and benchmarks within each era covered during the first semester, there is literally no mention of women until *Era 4: Civil War and Reconstruction (1850-1877)*. If one looks closely under Standard 2, Benchmark 8, during this era, the expectation is for teachers to "compare women's home front and battlefront roles in the Union and Confederacy" (see Appendix D for American History Curriculum Guide). The second and only other specific mention of women written in Barbara's high

school's curriculum guide for this semester falls under *Era 6: The Emergence of Modern America (1890-1914)*. Here women are mentioned under Standard 1, Benchmark 10 where teachers are expected to "specify the issues raised by various women and how mainstream Progressives responded to them" (see Appendix D). If Barbara strictly adhered to her department's curriculum guide, it might be possible she would not mention women in any meaningful way, if at all, until the mid to late nineteenth century.

The Traditional U.S. History Text

Although Barbara's high school's curriculum guide provides a reasonable representation of the content covered in the U.S. history course, the textbook the school uses offers an even better picture of when and if teachers in the school include women in their lesson plans. Because of the time it takes in planning, many teachers tend to rely heavily on the textbook as their primary source of information. The textbook Barbara is required to use, *The Americans* (Danzer, Klor de Alva, Krieger, Wilson, & Woloch, 2000), consists of thirty-four chapters, the first eighteen of which the teachers cover during the fall semester.

From early exploration and colonization through the Spanish American War and Imperialism, the textbook does mention women but generally in social areas related to family life, witchcraft, and societal reforms. In fact, not until fifty-five pages into the text is there a woman's name bolded, when a discussion on Anne Hutchinson occurs. What is even more interesting, eighty-eight pages into the text the authors devote two entire pages, as a separate section titled *Daily Life: 1651-1765*, on colonial courtship during that period. This section potentially reinforces for students that the history of women throughout this period of early American history is only important based on their

relationship with men. When these types of presentations of women's history occur, it continues to strengthen the patriarchal dominance that students have grown accustomed to learning (Lerner, 1993).

Up until Chapter 8: *Reforming American Society*, most women that appear, show up in short sentences, small paragraphs, pictures, sidebars, or generally at the beginning of a section where the authors created a short snippet or used a quote to open a chapter or section. In what appears to be an attempt to infuse women and their political involvement in history, there is a section under Tracing Themes: Women in America titled *Women and Political Power* where the authors have written five very short paragraphs explaining women's political involvement during different historical periods. Instead of offering more in-depth coverage of women's political engagement up to this point in history, the authors expect students to synthesize a brief synopsis of their protest against the British in the 1770's, the 1848 Seneca Falls convention, and the 1920 suffrage movement with the Equal Rights Amendment period (1972-1982) and women as members of Congress in 1996. When the text appears in the book, much of this information has yet to be covered in class. Once in Chapter 8, two hundred and thirty five pages into the text, this chapter offers an entire section titled *Women and Reform*, a mere five pages, covering abolition, temperance, education, health reforms, and the Seneca Falls convention. Many of these historical topics are common nineteenth century topics that research has already shown most students learn about when teachers cover women in history (Woyshner, 2002).

Barbara's Infusion of Women

> *I think that my job is not to always tell them [students] what they need to know, but to push them to investigate it themselves and make their own conclusions after seeing all the different perspectives.*
> (Barbara Morris, Journal Entry, December 12, 2006)

To Barbara, pushing her students so they could decide for themselves what historical information is important to know was complicated by her efforts to find ways to incorporate as many different perspectives about women into her daily lesson plans. She knew, from the beginning, incorporating women into her lessons was going to be a challenge and time was going to be one of her biggest opponents.

> Unfortunately, the biggest thing I have to think about when planning is the amount of time I have and what…I have to leave out of one unit to cover something newer. It is a struggle for me to decide what I am going to skip over as I love American history so much that I want to address all aspects and events. Since we give a departmental final, I also, unfortunately, have to make decisions on what to teach based upon what they will be tested on in that final. These are the things I struggle with quite a bit. (Interview, August 15, 2006)

The issue of time, threads through the entirety of Barbara's efforts as she worked "…to represent to [her] kids that women are not secondary, that women did constantly have an impact [on history]…" (Interview, October 12, 2006)

How Barbara Began

First, Barbara had to decide what topics she wanted to cover for the semester. While the curriculum guide was a good place to start for Barbara, it really only offered her sources for the major topics she had to be sure to include in her plans. Initially, she began by looking through the textbook to find what and whom it was including. She also examined the supplemental materials offered by the textbook publishers to see if they had any additional worksheets on women she could incorporate. Then she looked at her class

notes and realized she had already incorporated many of the women covered in the text. Her goal, however, was "to elaborate on some [of the women] and go deeper to find more examples" (Journal Entry, December 12, 2006). As she further noted in her journal entry, "it has always been easier to find these things in…20th century history, so it was a nice challenge to find information about their [women's] earlier roles in history" (December 12, 2006).

The second step Barbara took as she worked to incorporate women into her lessons was gathering resources. Over the summer, she used the Internet to find websites and information on women. In fact, Barbara noted that the Internet was a useful resource because it made "it easier [for her] to quickly reference and look up authors and look at other things they [authors] have written" (Interview, December 7, 2006). In addition to the use of the Internet, Barbara also gathered books on women that she thought would be helpful in her planning. One of the most beneficial books to Barbara was *America's Women: 400 Years of Dolls, Drudges, Helpmates, and Heroines* (Collins, 2003). In addition to Collins' book, I gave her website suggestions and a number of books at the start of the semester that I thought might help as she worked to include more of the voices of women in her lesson plans (see Appendix E for Suggested Resources).

Barbara's Lessons

Barbara divided her U.S. History class into seven units comprising eighteen textbook chapters (see Appendix F for Barbara's Course Outline). As she continually mentioned in her journal entries, finding the time to look for resources in different historical periods was often a great challenge, if not the most significant one. As she began working through *Unit I – Early American Colonization*, she felt it was easy to find

information on women "because it [the chapter] was more about lifestyles and culture." "Women," according to Barbara, "seem to have the valued importance of teaching and instilling culture and morals in the family, so it is easier to find and incorporate descriptions of women's roles in early colonial society" (Journal Entry, October 1, 2006).

As I observed her teaching during this first unit, Barbara began by explaining to her students the collision of cultures as the explorers arrived in the New World. As she lectured, she made it a point to use no gendered terminology. Obviously, when she had to discuss male Spanish explorers such as Cortez, she did use gendered terminology, but she made sure that as she discussed the people they were meeting and then conquering, she constantly referenced both women and men. In addition, the text has a brief sidebar on Malinche, a female interpreter for Cortez, along with a one-page handout that teachers can incorporate into their lessons. Barbara made it a point to assign this worksheet to her students and later spent a good portion of the class period talking about her efforts to help the Spaniards.

As Barbara progressed into the unit on colonization, she continued to place a great deal of emphasis on the daily lives of the colonists, always with a special emphasis on cultural and social issues. In fact, in one of her journal entries, Barbara reflected back on her lesson plans for this unit by noting how easy it was to find "information on women in the colonial era because…I think history always incorporates women" into this period (October 1, 2006). During this unit, Barbara discussed the early English settlers and what life was like for women such as Eleanor Dare, mother of Virginia, considered the first-born child in the English colonies. In addition, she compared women's roles in the middle

and southern colonies with those in New England. This first unit, *Early American Colonization*, lasted approximately two and a half weeks and ended in early September.

The next two units, the *American Revolution* and the *Development of the Nation*, lasted from early September to mid October. During this time, Barbara started to reflect more on the difficulty in trying to incorporate women into the political chapters. Since the very beginning of the year, her reflections in her journal entries and in our interviews consistently noted how difficult it was to include women when the topic of study was politics. As Barbara commented in an early interview,

> I think the representation of women in history has steadily gotten better and better, but unfortunately is still only one section every couple of chapters in our history textbooks. I think their [women's] mention is very superficial, and simply done to appease those who point out that women are left out of history….but there are still not very many in-depth examinations of women's vast contributions, especially politically. (Interview, August 15, 2006).

Barbara later suggested there needs to occur a new understanding of political.

> We are having to redefine how we see what political influence is. I think the world has changed, political used to be about this party or that party. Now it is so influenced by the media and by female figures in the government and getting students to realize there were others before these women is important. (Interview, September 20, 2006)

In reflecting on these two units, Barbara found that for the Revolutionary period, her notes already included references to some women, but the most difficult part was finding information to expand on and teach about these women in more depth.

> As I prepared for lessons...[covering]…the Revolution, I found that I already incorporated quite a few women into the lessons, as women did have to step up during the Revolution and sometimes even take on the more "male roles" at home…I just had to find a little more in-depth information. (Journal Entry, October 1, 2006)

Barbara used two books that she found were very helpful to her in getting the voices of the women into this unit, *America's Women* (Collins, 2003) and *Women's Letters:*

America from the Revolutionary War to the Present (Grunwald & Adler, 2005). Both of these books offered her first hand accounts from women in the 18th century that she could share with her students and helped her impart to her students something she really wanted them to understand. "I think it is important to show it is not just the men wanting the independence, it is not just the men coming up with the ideas and supporting it" (Interview, September 20, 2006). For example, Barbara went into detail on Abigail Adams and her influence and feelings regarding the Declaration of Independence and the role that women like Margaret Corbin and Molly Pitcher played in the actual fighting during the Revolution.

As she moved into unit three, *Development of the Nation*, she started running into more difficulty finding information.

> It has been harder to find ways to incorporate women into this current unit on the formation of government. I think it is because what roles women played, they played behind the scenes, "influencing" their husbands, the founding fathers, so they are not as "visible" or included in the history textbooks yet. (Journal Entry, October 1, 2006)

However, in classroom observations during this heavy political unit, Barbara further expanded on the women briefly acknowledged in the text. She continually tied what women had been doing in the home with their eventual push for abolition and later suffrage attempts to what the founding fathers put forth regarding equality. In other words, when Barbara talked about John Adams, she also mentioned his views on women and how, even if behind the scenes, the women, such as his wife Abigail Adams, were constantly influencing the men.

In addition to Barbara's efforts to expand on the women in the political units, she also began commenting on what she was personally getting out of her efforts.

> I think it has made it more interesting for me. It has made it a challenge and it's not boring to teach. As much as I love American history, early American is not my favorite and this has given me a reason to put more effort into it [including women] and not just go with what I have always done. (Interview, October 12, 2006)

Barbara also noted that she felt as if her students were appearing more engaged.

> I like the fact that the kids seem to be responding to it [the inclusion of women]. Especially this class, I think by the nature of having so many strong young women they ask a lot about it and they seem to really want to know more about the women's roles. Even the boys will ask *so wait, the women did this or that* and I'll see them all nod in agreement when I make comments on how women influenced behind the scenes….It has made it more interesting and has made it not boring. (Interview, October 12, 2006)

From mid October to mid November, Barbara covered units four and five, *Early Reform Movements* and the *Civil War and Reconstruction*. The chapters on the reform movements included the most information up to this point on women. The involvement of such women as Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Sarah and Angelina Grimke, Mary C. Vaughan, Emma Willard, Mary Lyon, Prudence Crandall, Elizabeth Blackwell, Amelia Bloomer, Margaret Fuller, and Sojourner Truth occurred under reform efforts in abolition, temperance, education, health, and suffrage. While this is a large number of women mentioned in relationship to other chapters, as previously discussed, the women's efforts in these areas receive only five pages of text as well as two more pages discussing labor reforms and women's involvement in the Lowell factory system. Barbara expanded on a number of these women and spent a day discussing the involvement of women in the 19th century factories.

During the reform unit, Barbara encountered a major challenge that she continually faced during the semester, time. Barbara described this challenge in a journal entry. "So, once again, I find that my biggest challenge…in lesson planning is having

time to research and read all the books and information I have about women in history" (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006). She went on to comment how this often made her feel guilty and overwhelmed.

> I try to find time when I can, and I really want to because it is so interesting to read these different perspectives. The problem is that when I take the time to do this, I fall behind on my grading, so there is this constant guilt…I need to read to incorporate all this into my classes, but it puts me behind on everything else, so I get slightly overwhelmed. (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006)

In addition to feeling guilty and overwhelmed, there was frustration emanating from her journal entry when she wrote about this unit and her desire to "make it flow" or not have it "seem out of place…like we are doing something special in class to talk about women" (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006).

> I found…an even bigger problem with a unit like the one I just finished that included the reform movements. This is one part of history where I have found it easy to find [include] information about women's roles. They not only played a role…in the reforms for women and getting women's rights. But women also played a large role in the reforms of how religion was taught….The hard part in planning for this unit was being able to pick from all the different women involved, and again, finding the time to get through all the other material quickly so that I could devote 1-2 days to the roles women played here. (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006)

What seemed to help alleviate some of her frustration was her perception of her students responding positively to her inclusion of women in history.

> In teaching this unit, I enjoyed getting to share with the kids the different ways that women played a role. And they [students] all really seem to remember the things we have discussed throughout the semester about why it is acceptable for women to take on roles in social reform….I just want it all to seem equal and even. (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006)

During November and December, in her final three units, *Civil War and Reconstruction*, *Industrialization and Growth*, and *Imperialism and Expansion*, time remained a major issue as Barbara further pushed herself to complete all the required

material before the end of the semester. In addition to time, the heavy emphasis on battles and generals made her feel as if she was cramming everything into her teaching. Barbara stated, "The Civil War is always so jam-packed with information about battles, generals, and so on, that it is hard to imagine being able to fit anything else in" (Interview, November 10, 2006). She was, however, able to incorporate both northern and southern women's perspectives on the war that she found in Collins' book, *America's Women*. She talked in detail about women's roles in nursing during the war, along with a number of women working as spies for both sides.

As she moved closer to Thanksgiving break, Barbara faced another obstacle that affected her ability to infuse more women into her lessons. In early September, she discovered that some days before and after Thanksgiving she would have to be absent from school for personal reasons. Because of this, for the last two units she was not able to place any additional emphasis on women. In observing her class, however, when she talked about events like the Industrial Age or Expansion, she made it a point to use less gendered terms, as she had been doing all semester, and tried to mention the cultural and social impact on people's daily lives.

Conclusion

Barbara Morris wanted her students to see women in history as more than a secondary group. She felt that her job was "…to present them [students] with various resources and materials to spark their interest so that they [would] continue the investigations on their own, through their own questions or their own research (Journal Entry, December 12, 2006). Barbara also believed that in order to do this, a social studies

teacher had to move out of her comfort zone of a standardized curriculum and textbook that marginalizes women.

While attempting to integrate women, Barbara embraced the challenges she faced. Barbara was able to draw upon her personal experiences and infuse women into her curriculum and teaching more than she had ever done in the past. What she discovered was a new appreciation for a period of history that she had never been completely fond of teaching. In addition, she also started realizing that her students were developing positive impressions of women and their roles in history, which motivated her even more. The next chapter addresses my findings as they relate to the research questions guiding this study.

CHAPTER 6

EXPLORING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study was to try to understand how a teacher can more centrally integrate the experiences of women within a traditional male history curriculum. The guiding research question was *how does a teacher intentionally include women in meaningful contexts in a high school U.S. history class?* From this question, I considered three sub questions:

1) How does a teacher decide the historical contexts in which women are to be included or not included?
2) What specific challenges does the teacher face when working to implement women into the U.S. history curriculum?
3) What positive factors have shaped the teacher's abilities or willingness to integrate women into the curriculum?

Through classroom observations, interviews, and personal journaling, this study focused on what a single teacher, Barbara Morris, encountered as she integrated women into her U.S. History course. As the process of integration unfolded, Barbara experienced a number of challenges in addition to many positive factors that enabled her to begin building a foundation where she could continue including even more women in meaningful ways within the U.S. History curriculum. Using the three sub-questions above, I present the findings of this study in this chapter.

My research assumes that Barbara must recognize that there is a problem with the lack of representation of women in typical history textbooks and narratives of history. Both Trecker (1971) and Lerner (1979) have suggested that United States history textbooks de-emphasize women's contributions. In the 1980's, Tetreault (1986) and Bunch (1987) expressed similar concerns that the inclusion of women within the historical narratives was moving too slowly and only in small portions in relationship to the traditional male history everyone was accustomed to learning. What occurred, according to Bunch (1987), was more in line with just adding women in and then stirring, which ultimately was not helping to show students that women had made meaningful and significant contributions to history.

Barbara believed there was a problem with the representation of women in meaningful ways in the history she learned and later as she began teaching to her students. While she never really thought about this issue when she was younger (Interview, September 13, 2006), as she encountered female history professors, she began becoming more aware of the problem and believed these teachers taught her "…how you [a teacher] can bring in many different sides to history" (Interview, August 29, 2006). As she approached this study, Barbara's goal was always clear. She wanted her students "…to see the progression and connection between events" so that the history she was teaching was seamless to her students (Interview, August 15, 2006). Barbara's goal was similar to what Cornbleth (2001) suggested when she defined meaningful learning as "going beyond memorization…both connecting information internally…with what one already knows" (p. 75).

How Barbara actually achieved her goal of making the content of the history her students encounter appear "seamless" did not appear to be transformative or challenging to the existing patriarchal structure of the curriculum or text she was using. Rather, the findings suggest she included women into her lessons under the lens of a social science framework to teaching history. In a social science approach, research suggests the content of history courses is more traditional because it is most often presented to students from a white and patriarchal historical perspective (Lerner, 2004; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 1992; Ruth, 1998; Seixas, 1993; Scott, 1999). Because Barbara did not refer to herself as a feminist (Interview, August 15, 2006), her actual lessons did not appear as passionate attempts to dismantle the patriarchal curriculum she was using. In addition, because she believed her former history teachers taught the same content they had learned, which de-emphasized women, Barbara also became accustomed to teaching her students the same content she had learned from her former teachers (Interview, September 13, 2006). For this study, Barbara was not completely dismantling the dominant patriarchal curriculum; rather, she deliberately worked to reconstruct and reconfigure women into periods in which she thought they were missing.

Question #1 - How Does a Teacher Decide the Historical Contexts in Which Women are to be Included or Not Included?

Since Barbara believed there was a problem regarding the inclusion of women in history, what she faced was the problem of trying to decide where to include the women in her lesson plans and just how in-depth to cover them. Part of trying to decide where to include women and how detailed a teacher should be with her/his coverage is often decided based on the amount of subject knowledge the teacher has related to the content she/he is teaching. Researchers have suggested that a teacher's subject knowledge may

inhibit or enhance what a teacher can or is willing to do in her/his classroom (Morrisett, Hawke & Superka, 1980; Noddings, 2005; Wilson & Wineburg, 1988; Wineburg & Wilson, 1988, 1991). Subject knowledge helps to enhance teachers' purposes and aims (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003). Effective teachers, in fact, might necessity a good understanding of educational purposes and aims (Adler, 1991; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Noddings, 2005; Thornton, 1991, 2005). In the end, when a teacher has developed strong subject knowledge and has clear purposes and aims she/he becomes the *gatekeeper* of the information her/his students learn (Thornton, 1991, 2005).

Barbara has a strong background in history, which enabled her to negotiate through the required course curriculum guide and the classroom text. Her background knowledge also allowed Barbara to more easily find existing and deficit areas of emphases of women in traditional history. As she began examining the textbook, she found that whenever a chapter's focus was on political or military events, women were often missing. When the focus shifted to social and cultural issues, Barbara noticed more women would be included. Thus, Barbara began to focus more on trying to include women in the political and military chapters, even if it meant she had to infuse them through social and cultural means. She made it a point to be sure that students knew that the women were still around by mentioning the roles women were playing at home, in the workplace, and what they were saying to the men…"behind the scenes, 'influencing' their husbands" (Journal Entry, October 1, 2006). She hoped this would enable her students to understand how women were not absent and invisible during these historical periods.

Question #2 - What Specific Challenges Does the Teacher Face When Working to Implement Women into the U.S. History Curriculum?

Even if a teacher has deep subject knowledge and pedagogical skills and then develops clear purposes and aims for what she/he wants to do in the classroom, other things can influence the curricular decisions she/he makes such as teacher characteristics (Leming, 1991), competence (Stanley, 1991), historical thinking and interpretation skills (Bohan & Davis, 1998; Yeager & Davis, 1996), life histories (Coughlin, 2003), external and internal constraints (Cornbleth, 2001, 2002), and real world challenges (Heilman, 2001). A teacher must personally be aware of the obstacles that may influence her/him as they try to incorporate new material into her/his lessons (Cornbleth, 2001). Throughout this entire study, there appeared to be four areas that created some challenges for Barbara as she worked to include more women in meaningful contexts in her U.S. history class: the school culture and climate, the curriculum and text, supplemental materials and resources, and time.

School Culture and Climate

Cornbleth (2001, 2002) has suggested that the system a teacher is working in can often influence what she/he does in the classroom. Her research categorized school environments into three climate types, *stifling, chilling, and drought-stricken* and proposed that if a teacher is unaware of the expectations of the setting they are working in, they could encounter difficulties as they try to create lessons that engage students in meaningful learning. Barbara wanted her students to understand how women's contributions were not secondary to major historical events in history, but faced the challenge of her school's climate.

Barbara's school falls under the category of a *drought-stricken* climate. In this type of setting, according to Cornbleth (2001), there is tremendous emphasis placed on student achievement and test scores. The school administration constantly highlights both student achievement and test scores and parents expect positive results in these areas for their children. Thus, both students and teachers feel the pressure to academically perform. Because Barbara's school is a college preparatory institution, there is an expectation that the academic programs and what the teachers teach should help students prepare for standardized tests such as the SAT, ACT, and Advanced Placement (AP) exams, in order for students to be competitive in obtaining acceptance in the college of their choice. Barbara's school also prides itself in having SAT scores higher than the national average. In addition, Barbara was required to give her students a departmental final, one that made her frustrated at times because she had to worry about what students were going to be tested on at the end of the semester. When teachers feel these types of external pressures, they must learn to negotiate and work within their system in order to be successful (Cornbleth, 2001). The academic expectations at Barbara's school always made her cognizant of what she was doing with her lesson plans, which was an added stress for her.

Along with the high academic standards expected by the administration and parents, there is also an increasing emphasis at Barbara's school on extra-curricular activities, especially athletics. The emphasis on athletics forces many teachers to take on dual roles in order to teach at the school. Dual roles can interfere with the amount of time a teacher has to devote to her/his classes. In Barbara's case, the time she must devote to her cheerleading responsibilities affects the time she has to plan her lessons or grade her students' assignments. It also, according to Barbara, takes some of the administration's

attention away from classroom teachers. While this problem might appear beneficial to some teachers because their administration is not paying attention to what they are teaching, it can also be a problem for teachers if they do not receive any recognition for the job they are doing in the classroom. As Barbara noted, just being "…a good, solid teacher…" (Interview, August 29, 2006) is not always enough at her school. Barbara had to challenge herself to find an inner motivation anytime she wanted to do something new and innovative in the classroom because she could not always rely on positive reinforcement from her administration.

Curriculum and Text

The curriculum guide Barbara was required to use for her course created another challenge for her. When she looked over the curriculum guide, there were only two areas that mentioned women specifically, one during the Civil War and Reconstruction era and the other one during the Progressive period. The lack of emphasis on women in the curriculum guide meant that this document was not going to be of much help to Barbara as she tried to decide which women to include and where to include them. While she had the freedom to expand on any historical area or topic that she wants, Barbara also knew that her department's expectation was that she must cover all the information in the curriculum guide for the semester. In addition, her students would be facing a departmental final at the end of the semester and if she did not incorporate everything in the guide, they could suffer the consequences. The department's expectation put a great deal of pressure on her when she thought about adding information on women.

Barbara then turned her attention to the required text and looked for the places where women were included hoping that this would give her some starting point. Like the

curriculum guide, she discovered that women were only included in certain sections, generally those related to social or cultural areas. While some quotations and excerpts from women, along with some historical facts related to them were included in different chapters, there was very little in-depth discussion of women. This meant that Barbara would have to search outside both the curriculum guide and the text for supplemental information in order for her to infuse women in any meaningful way.

Supplemental Materials and Resources

When it came to actually finding resources on women in history, Barbara did not run into any significant shortage. She located a multitude of resources that she could use, but these resources actually created a few unforeseen problems. First, as she tried to decide which resources to use for the sections where she wanted to include more women, she found that there was no single text or resource to help her do this easily. She felt frustrated because she had to search through so many different resources in order to pull together information that would be helpful to her. It was also difficult for her to find resources and information on women and their political activities during the eighteenth century. So much of what she found consisted of social and cultural history, which became a challenge for her because she wanted the women she included to be relevant to the topics she was covering.

Time

Probably the most significant challenge facing Barbara was time. From the very beginning of her preparation over the summer, she felt she never had enough time to prepare and incorporate women's history into her teaching as thoroughly as she would

have liked. In fact, the challenge of time seemed to thread through the entirety of what she did in this study and every challenge she encountered.

The very nature of the school's climate and culture restricted her time to be more creative. With a focus on academic achievement, test scores, and preparing for a departmental final, Barbara had to learn to balance the school's expectations with her own. Although she felt she could infuse and integrate topics on women, she knew this had to occur in a way that was not taking away from the material she was required to teach so that her students could be successful on their tests.

Barbara also struggled with the time she was required to devote to her dual role as head varsity cheerleading coach and teacher. Cheerleading consumed much of her time over the summer and after school when the school year started, that she often felt a pressure to get all her work done. Barbara had developed a system that would work for her, that she could manage, asking her to add new content meant, to her, that some of the activities she was doing might suffer and this made her feel guilty (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006).

As Barbara looked for outside resources, time also played a key role in what she could find. While there were plenty of resources about women available, she did not feel like she had enough time to review them all. The new information she encountered peaked her interest but she was fighting for time just to get sources read and to keep up with her two other classes she had to prepare. When she spent more time examining the information she had gathered on women, she fell behind in her grading, which then made her feel overwhelmed (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006).

Finally, one of the biggest areas Barbara reflected on concerning time dealt with the content she was required to cover for the semester. If she added content about women to a unit, she did not want the women to "seem out of place…" (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006), she wanted to infuse them in a way that was meaningful to what her students were learning so they would appreciate women's contributions more. In order to accomplish this task, she knew she had to give up other content because there was not enough time in the semester to teach everything. Her frustration in regards to this was quite evident throughout the entire study.

Question #3 - What Positive Factors Have Shaped the Teacher's Abilities or Willingness to Integrate Women into the Curriculum?

Even though Barbara faced a number of challenges as she integrated women's history into her curriculum, four positive factors outweighed the obstacles she encountered. These factors were the women in her life, available resources, her content goals, and her perceptions. Each of these factors enabled her to address the problem of women's under representation in historical texts and narratives.

The Women in Barbara's Life

One of the most telling factors that helped to shape Barbara's ability and willingness to integrate women came from the women in her family. The women in her family enabled her to develop a self-confidence to reach for whatever she wanted. As she listened to family stories about her great great grandmother standing up for what she believed by challenging a patriarchal government, she grew up believing that she, too, had a voice, and her voice did not have to be silent. Her mother also inspired Barbara and became one of her most positive role models. By obtaining her graduate degree, her mother reinforced in Barbara the importance of education.

Barbara also encountered women in high school and college that left a lasting impression on her. In high school, many of her female teachers created classroom environments where Barbara could speak out and take a leadership role without feeling threatened. In addition, Barbara's experiences in college further reinforced her self-confidence, especially to be a teacher. It became evident during the study that Barbara modeled her style of teaching and the content she taught after what she had learned from many of these teachers. She also believed that because so many of her female professors reinforced teaching about how history should be inclusive of many differing perspectives, she developed this same opinion and wanted to convey as many different perspectives as she could to her students. Barbara also believed the historical information she learned from her history professors enabled her to have a good foundation to begin researching women in history. She had learned the traditional history and could easily see where the women were missing.

Available Resources

The resources available on women not only created a challenge for Barbara because she had to examine so many, they also were a positive factor for her in her efforts to integrate women. Once she could find the time to organize what she had found and integrate them where she wanted to, Barbara had a number of amazing letters, diaries, and facts related to women.

As previously mentioned, *Women's Letters* (Grunwald & Adler, 2005) and *America's Women* (Collins, 2003) were frequently used by Barbara to offer first hand accounts of what women were doing during particular periods of history. She also found the Web to be a valuable resource for finding information about women's history quickly,

which helped limit some of the constraints placed on her time. In addition, using resources from the Web also made it easier for her to cross-reference authors and find other materials on women.

Content Goals

Research suggests that a teacher must understand what her/his purposes, aims, and goals are, in order to be more effective in the classroom (Adler, 1991; Barton & Levstik, 2004; Grant, 2003; Noddings, 2005; Thornton, 1991, 2005). From the beginning, Barbara was always clear about her goals when she teaches history. She wants to enable her students to draw their own conclusions after she has presented different historical perspectives to them. To Barbara, the events of history should connect in a way that allows students to understand the diversity of the human experience. When she specifically focuses on women, her purpose and aim is to show students that women are not secondary to men and that women made many contributions to history. Because Barbara's goals were always clear, she stayed focused on what she was trying to do. She never second-guessed herself, or worried about the bigger picture of what she was trying to accomplish. By not second-guessing herself, Barbara was able to have the confidence in herself to keep going in her efforts to include women.

Barbara's Perceptions

Barbara's perceptions about her teaching were probably the most positive factor related to Barbara's efforts to include more women's history in her teaching. Her mostly positive self-perception compensated for all the challenges she met. Even though she was often frustrated, stressed, and worried that she was falling behind in her grading, Barbara really started enjoying what she was doing. Although Barbara had never enjoyed teaching

the early periods of U.S. history, she discovered something new and exciting when teaching about women's history that gave her "…a reason to put more effort into it…" (Interview, October 12, 2006). Barbara also saw a difference in her students. She thought they were responding positively and developing a true interest in wanting to learn more about women's history (Interview, October 12, 2006). More importantly to Barbara, her students appeared to be remembering the women they had discussed (Journal Entry, October 22, 2006).

Conclusion

The findings of this study suggest that when Barbara attempted to integrate women into her history teaching, she must have a good understanding of what she wanted her students to learn from history. Barbara was cognizant of the type of system she was working in and learned to maneuver, when necessary, through the system in order to achieve her goals. The findings suggest that Barbara faced numerous obstacles when she tried to infuse women's history into her teaching. She learned to build on her personal experiences and the positive effects of what she was doing, even if they appeared small, and to continue in her efforts to change her school's curriculum. The final chapter concludes with the implications of this study and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 7

FINAL THOUGHTS

Since research continues to show the omission of women in meaningful contexts within the social studies curriculum and historical narratives (Crocco, 1997; Lerner, 1975, 1977, 1979, 1993, 2004; Minnich, 1990; Noddings, 2001; Sincero & Woyshner, 2003; Woyshner, 2002), I wanted to understand how a teacher intentionally included women in more meaningful contexts in a high school U.S. history class. This study focused on the personal experiences of one teacher, Barbara Morris, as she negotiated through a standardized curriculum and text and confronted the obstacles in her way. Additionally, I was interested in discovering any positive factors that may have helped to shape her ability or willingness to integrate women into her U.S. history curriculum.

Using a liberal feminist perspective for this interpretive inquiry, I analyzed the data and used a constant comparative approach to look for any patterns, themes, and categories as Barbara attempted to integrate women's history into her lesson plans from August through December 2006 (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). The findings indicated that her personal experiences helped to shape her goal to show her students that women were more than secondary characters in history. The findings also suggest that even though Barbara often faced many challenges as she was attempting to transform her curriculum, when she drew upon the more positive influences from her past and the positive experiences she was encountering as the study unfolded, she became much more encouraged that she could move past any obstacles confronting her. As social

studies educators, however, we must ask ourselves what all this means and where we go from here?

Implications

The findings from this study suggest a number of implications to the social studies field and to social studies teachers in general. If social studies teachers truly want to put an end to a patriarchal tradition that places women at disadvantages to men and thus limits the intellectual growth of our students (Lerner, 1993; Minnich, 1990), the social studies field must revisit their purpose. Social studies teacher preparation programs must be aware of their goals for their pre-service teachers in order to better prepare their pre-service teachers for the challenges they may face when they begin their teaching careers. Social studies teachers must also continue to reflect on their purposes and aims and evaluate what they are actually teaching in the classrooms and why they are teaching.

The Social Studies Field

The history of the social studies field has been one of ongoing "turf wars" (Evans, 2004) over what teachers should be teaching in high school history classes. Within these wars, there has been an unending debate over the purpose of social studies that has often centered on whether the curriculum should emphasize a discipline-centered, social science approach or stress social education (Crocco, 1999; Stanley, 2001; Thornton, 2005; Vinson & Ross, 2001). Citizenship education, however, appears to be a common theme tying the mission of NCSS with social science supporters and social educator proponents. The 1994 NCSS mission statement states:

> Social studies educators teach students the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy. The mission of National Council for the Social Studies is to provide

> leadership, service, and support for all social studies educators. (NCSS, *Mission Statement*)

Supporters of a social science approach support citizenship education through the emphasis on individual courses such as history, economics, and geography and suggest:

> …social studies education is that which provides students with the social scientific content and procedures for successful citizenship, and for understanding and acting upon the human condition in its historical, contemporary, political, social, economic, and cultural contexts. (Vinson & Ross, 2001, p. 43)

Social education proponents also emphasize citizenship education and define social education as:

> …teaching and learning about how individuals construct and live out their understandings of social, political, and economic relations-past and present-and the implications of these understandings for how citizens are educated in a democracy. In short, social education seeks to address the issue of what skills and knowledge individuals need to live effectively in a democracy.
> (Crocco, 1999, p. 1)

While the field may disagree on whether to focus on individual disciplines or take a broader social education approach, social studies educators do not seem to be disagreeing on the importance of citizenship education for students. However, the manner in which the field defines citizenship education is not clear and particularly unfocused with concern to women, the "half of human kind" who do not seem to be fairly represented in social studies content (Minnich, 1990).

Research suggests there is still a debate over the meaning of citizenship within the social studies field (Evans, 2004; Grant, 2003) and students often associate citizenship with voting and public duties (Hahn, 2002). If the definition of citizenship is not clear within the social studies curriculum, this unclarity becomes significant for women. When citizenship does not expand beyond references to public and political domains dominated by males, it deprives women of the knowledge of their history and their important

historical contributions. Students will not be able to grasp that the private and social areas women have always participated in were and are political.

Barbara struggled with a standardized curriculum that mostly came from the National History Standards given that it was quite evident that there was little mention of women within this curriculum. In addition, Barbara believed that women were consistently omitted from the sections of the curriculum that focused on politics (Interview, August 15, 2006; Interview, September 20, 2006). Barbara also believed that "…citizenship was more than politics…" (Interview, August 15, 2006) and "…women's social activities with other women and the men in their lives…" as women are depicted in "…chapters on social reforms in society represent political action and involvement for women and this needs more coverage" (Interview, September 20, 2006). How can social studies educators such as Barbara challenge these patriarchal curriculums and extend citizenship education to include the stories of women in history?

In order for Barbara and others interested in such a reform project, typical social studies curriculums like Barbara's school curriculum need revising. Such revisions should focus on the systematic opening of social studies curriculum to include the voices of women and others marginalized in society. This opening of the social studies curriculum should expand beyond the nineteenth and twentieth century suffrage periods that students commonly study (Hahn, et al., in press). As Hahn, et al. (in press) suggest, when "…women's civic-political action is rarely portrayed" beyond women's suffrage "…girls may choose to engage less with a subject that seems not to include people like themselves" (p. 344). I would argue that a serious effort to reform social studies curriculums is in keeping with the mission statement of NCSS, which calls for social

studies educators to "…teach the content knowledge, intellectual skills, and civic values necessary for fulfilling the duties of citizenship in a participatory democracy" (1994).

Social Studies Teacher Preparation Programs

Another implication of this study centers on what teacher preparation programs in social studies can do. It was obvious that Barbara's confidence in her subject knowledge of American history enabled her to have the ability to challenge her curriculum. Teacher preparation programs need to continue to reinforce with their pre-service teachers the importance of gaining subject knowledge in their field so that they can find the areas in their curriculums that omit women.

While many of Barbara's high school teachers helped her develop self-confidence and leadership skills that would benefit her later as a teacher, her history teachers continued to focus on a standardized traditional history curriculum that left her unaware that women were missing. As she encountered college professors in her field, she was fortunate to learn from them the importance of teaching history from diverse perspectives. The research findings suggest that pre-service teachers in social studies teacher preparation programs need more exposure to women's contributions in the social studies field and history in general. In addition, instructors in education could potentially offset some of the frustrations a classroom teacher may encounter with standardized curriculums by discussing and evaluating with pre-service teachers the content of the curriculums they may encounter so they can learn to develop ways to incorporate marginalized groups into their lesson plans before they even enter the classroom. As classroom teachers face curricular obstacles, they will have the confidence and

knowledge to temper many challenges because they will have learned some ideas and suggestions generated in teacher preparation programs.

It was also evident from Barbara's experiences that because she had established clear purposes and aims for what she wanted her students to learn from history, she was able to stay focused with her lesson plans. Teacher preparation programs need to be sure that they emphasize with their pre-service teachers the benefits to developing their goals for what they want to accomplish in their classrooms before they even begin to teach. Again, teaching pre-service teachers to develop goals will enable teachers to adjust to any potential challenges they may encounter because they will know where they want to take their students with their lesson plans.

Finally, in order for Barbara and other teachers to be successful in infusing women's history into their teaching, teacher preparation programs should discuss the potential challenges a classroom teacher is likely to encounter. Barbara might have been well served in a teacher preparation program by an open and honest discussion about the day-to-day experiences and expectations of classroom teachers with regard to the traditional curriculum. Pre-service teachers need to learn about the different climates and cultures they could encounter. They also need to understand that in many school systems, they may be required to perform dual roles in order to be hired which could put a great deal of constraints on their time to plan for their classes, as Barbara discovered, let alone transform their curriculums. Teaching is not an easy profession and teacher preparation programs should focus on the realities of what a pre-service teacher could encounter in order for teaching to become rewarding for her/him.

Social Studies Teachers

One of the most important implications of this study relates to the role of the classroom teacher. The classroom teacher controls the content she/he includes in her/his daily lesson plans by establishing her/his purposes and aims. Teachers such as Barbara deal with the daily challenges that may influence the amount of success they have in transforming their curriculum so they can integrate the meaningful contributions women have made to history.

The findings of this research showed that Barbara had clear goals for what she wanted to do in the classroom. Barbara reflected on and then developed her own goals. Without clear purposes or aims for why she teaches the things she does, Barbara's students were less likely to understand how the events and people in history connect with one another. Barbara's students could miss the idea that more than one group of people deserves recognition for helping to build this nation and developing the democratic principles most people believe.

Barbara was able to develop her goals because she had confidence in her subject knowledge of American history. Social studies teachers such as Barbara stay knowledgeable in their field so they can have the confidence to challenge standardized curriculums that continue to omit large groups of people. By developing strong content knowledge, Barbara and other teachers like her will be able to find resources to supplement the deficit areas in their curriculums and texts such as women's history.

Barbara also prepared for the challenges she faced and was cognizant of the positive factors influencing her as she taught. By being fully aware of what her school system expected from her and by being mindful of the potential obstacles she could

encounter as she tried to transform her classrooms, Barbara was less likely to fall back into doing what is easiest for her - following a standardized curriculum that someone else made for her. When classroom teachers such as Barbara can focus more on the positives of what they have experienced or are experiencing in their classrooms no matter how small they appear to them, they will be more likely to continue to challenge the standards that exist in education.

Suggestions for Further Research

I chose a single female teacher for this study because my intent was to find a way to begin the process of integrating women into the U.S. history curriculum. In choosing a female teacher, I believed she would be more sensitive to the omission of women and more willing to challenge the curriculum. If I were to conduct further research in this area, I would look at comparing the experiences of both high school male and female teachers when they try to incorporate women into their history lessons along with creating a focus group where these teachers could discuss their experiences.

In addition, I did not specifically choose a feminist teacher for this study because I was interested in finding a teacher who felt comfortable with her subject knowledge of American history so she could easily maneuver within the required curriculum and textbook materials. I do believe, however, that future research focused on a teacher who acknowledges a strong commitment to feminist ideals would offer other insights on how women's history can be incorporated within the historical text and narratives of an American history course. Barbara did not label herself a feminist and because she did not acknowledge any personal feminist orientations, I believe the way she worked to alter her lesson plans was very deliberate and focused on the task she was trying to accomplish. I

believe a teacher who is more passionate about feminism and dismantling the traditional patriarchal curriculum as it continues to exist, would offer a completely different perspective on how to transform an American history course.

Further research also needs to focus more on developing lessons that cover women throughout the entirety of the high school U.S. history curriculum. Much of what has occurred focuses on the prohibition and suffrage eras and are more geared to elementary and middle school students (Conner, 2000; Cruz & Groendal-Cobb, 1998; Hickey & Kolterman, 2006; Karnes, 2000; Levstik & Groth, 2002; Woyshner, 2002). While these areas remain important to continue researching, many high school students will never go on to study history in college so their last experiences they encounter with history should be more representative of how women and other groups contributed to history.

Finally, further research needs to focus on developing high school history textbooks that integrate women throughout all chapters. There are numerous resources available on women in history; however, it is difficult for classroom teachers to find the time to read them all and then try to incorporate sections from one, with sections from another. In addition, more of the supplemental materials that come with many of these textbooks could have lesson plans in them that focus specifically on women and include a listing of websites and resources where teachers can go to find more information.

Conclusion

The intent of this study was not to generalize to all teachers. Rather, the aim was to offer some insight for social studies teachers as to what they may face when and if they attempt to infuse women in meaningful contexts in their U.S. history classes. My hope is

that social studies teachers can take from this study the concepts they believe are relevant to their own situations. I also hope that teacher preparation programs for social studies educators continue to address the importance of subject knowledge and pedagogical skills along with helping pre-service teachers understand the many constraints they will most likely face when they actually enter the classroom. In addition, social studies researchers need to move beyond the arguments in the field and reflect on the people, such as women, that continue to be missing.

As Gerda Lerner (1993) suggested over a decade ago:

> Women who did not know that others like them had made intellectual contributions to knowledge and to creative thought were overwhelmed by the sense of their own inferiority or, conversely, the sense of the dangers of their daring to be different….For thinking women, the absence of Women's History was perhaps the most serious obstacle of all to their intellectual growth. (p. 12)

Social studies teachers have the opportunity to transform their curriculums so all of their students, especially the young women, feel empowered by understanding women's contributions to humankind. If social studies teachers continue to accept and never question the dominant historical tradition, a patriarchal system within the social studies field and educational institutions, thus within society, will perpetuate and students will be left with only partial knowledge about half of humanity, the half of humanity that omits women.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Journal Entry Template

Journal Entry

Date:

Creating Lessons:

Teaching Reflections:

APPENDIX B

Researcher's Timeline

DATES	ACTIVITIES
August 12-14, 2006	Developed initial interview questions
August 15, 2006	Initial interview with participant
August 16, 2006	First day of classes began for participant
August 15-21, 2006	Developed follow up interview questions
August 22, 2006	Follow up interview with participant, began developing coding system, began research log
August 23, 2006	Classroom observations began
August 23-25, 2006	Began creating emerging interview questions
August 25, 2006	Classroom observation
August 29, 2006	Interview with participant
September to October, 2006	Continued: research log, refining coding system, gathering artifacts, creating emerging interview questions, collecting journal entries from participant, member checking, on-going data analysis, writing up data, debriefing sessions,
September 1, 2006	Classroom observation
September 4, 2006	Interview with participant
September 6, 2006	Classroom observation
September 7, 2006	Classroom observation
September 12, 2006	Classroom observation
September 13, 2006	Interview with participant
September 15, 2006	Classroom observation
September 18, 2006	Classroom observation
September 20, 2006	Interview with participant
September 21, 2006	Classroom observation
September 25, 2006	Classroom observation
September 29, 2006	Classroom observation

October to November, 2006	Continued: research log, refining coding system, refining emerging themes/categories, gathering artifacts, creating interview questions, collecting journal entries, member checking, on-going data analysis, writing up data debriefing sessions
October 2, 2006	Classroom observation
October 3, 2006	Classroom observation
October 5, 2006	Interview with participant
October 10, 2006	Classroom observation
October 11, 2006	Classroom observation
October 12, 2006	Interview with participant
October 16, 2006	Classroom observation
October 20, 2006	Classroom observation
October 23, 2006	Classroom observation
October 27, 2006	Classroom observation
October 31, 2006	Classroom observation
November to December, 2006	Continued: research log, refining coding system, refining emerging themes/categories, gathering artifacts, creating interview questions, collecting journal entries, member checking, on-going data analysis, writing up data, debriefing sessions
November 3, 2006	Classroom observation
November 7, 2006	Classroom observation
November 9, 2006	Classroom observation
November 10, 2006	Interview with participant
November 13, 2006	Classroom observation
December, 2006	Finalized classroom observations, continued writing up and analyzing data, continued member checking and debriefing with participant
December 4, 2006	Classroom observation
December 6, 2006	Classroom observation
December 7, 2006	Interview with participant
December 12, 2006	Last journal entry received from participant

APPENDIX C

Examples of Interview Questions

Describe your family background.
How would you describe the representation of women in history in general?
How would you describe the representation of women specifically in your U.S. history curriculum?
Describe your teaching style.
How informed/prepared do you feel you are in order to teach and include women into your history lessons?

APPENDIX D

American History

11th grade Curriculum Guide
Fall Semester

Era 1 - Beginnings to 1763

Standard 1 Understands and knows how political, religious, social, and economic institutions emerged in the English colonies.

B. 1. Analyze the religious, political, and economic motivations for exploration and colonization to the New World.
B. 2. Compare how early colonies were established and governed and analyze the social and cultural characteristics that made them unique.
B. 3. Examine the nature and impact of indentured servants and the arrival of Africans in the European colonies in the 17th century and the rapid increase of slave importation in the 18th century.
B. 4. Analyze the causes and effects of the French and Indian War.

Era 2 - Revolution and the New Nation (1754-1820's)

Standard 1 Understands the causes of the American Revolution, the ideas and interests involved in forging the revolutionary movement, the reasons for the American victory.

B. 1. Analyze the causes of the Revolution.
B. 2. Reconstruct the chronology of the critical events leading to the outbreak of armed conflict between the American colonies and England.
B. 3. Explain the major ideas expressed in the Declaration of Independence.
B. 4. Compare and contrast the American and British advantages and disadvantages before and during the Revolutionary War that led to the American victory and the British defeat.
B. 5. Analyze the terms of the Treaty of Paris and how they affected us relations with active Americans and with European powers that held territories in North America.

Standard 2 Understands the institutions and practices of government created during the Revolution and how they were revised between 1787 and 1815 to create the foundation of the American political system based on the US Constitution and Bill of Rights.

B. 1. Examine the theoretical and practical issues involved in the creation and ratification of the United States Constitution and the new government it established.
B. 2. Compare the arguments of the federalists and the Anti-federalists during the ratification debates.
B. 3. Assess the rationale behind the creation of a Bill of Rights and highlight its continuing significance.
B. 4. Appraise how John Marshall's precedent-setting decisions interpreted the Constitution and established the Supreme Court as an independent and equal branch of the government.
B. 5. Examine the issues and philosophical conflicts that led to the development of the first political parties and the critical roles played by Hamilton and Jefferson.

Standard 3 Understands the struggles of the newly independent nation in developing political, economic, and social institutions and practices.

B. 1. Assess the challenges of establishing a workable and legitimate government in the Post Revolution Era.
B. 2. Explain how the new government attempted to rebuild the economy by addressing issues of foreign and internal trade, banking, and taxation.

Era 3 - Expansion and Reform (1801-1861)

Standard 1 Understands United States territorial expansion between 1801 and 1861, and how it affected relations with other nations and Native Americans.

B. 1. Analyze Napoleon's reasons for selling Louisiana to the United States.
B. 2. Explain President Madison's reasons for declaring war in 1812 and analyze the sectional divisions over the war.
B. 3. Identify the origins and provisions of the Monroe Doctrine and how it influenced hemispheric relations.
B. 4. Compare the policies of Jefferson, Jackson, and the Whigs with regard to the position of the Native Americans in society.
B. 5. Analyze the impact of removal and resettlement on the various Indian nations.
B. 6. Explain the economic, political, racial, and religious roots of Manifest Destiny and analyze how the concept influenced westward expansion of the nation and Native Americans.
B. 7. Explain the causes of the Texas War for Independence and the Mexican American War and evaluate the provisions and consequences of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Standard 2: Understands how the industrial revolution, increasing immigration, the rapid expansion of slavery, and the westward movement changed the lives of the Americans and led toward regional and national tensions.

B. 1. Evaluate the national and state policies regarding a proactive tariff, a national bank, and federally funded internal improvements
B. 2. Compare how patterns economic growth and recession affected territorial expansion.
B. 3. Analyze how rapid urbanization, immigration, and industrialization affected the social fabric of early 19th century cities.
B. 4. Explain how immigration intensified ethnic and cultural conflict and complicated the forging of a national identity.
B. 5. Assess the ways immigrants adapted to life in the United States and to the hostility sometimes directed at them by the nativist movement and the Know Nothing Party.
B. 6. Explain how the cotton gin and the opening of new lands in the South and west led to the increased demand for slaves.

Era 4 - Civil War and Reconstruction (1850-1877)

Standard 1 Knows and understands the social, political, and economic causes of sectionalism that resulted in the Civil War.

B. 1. Identify and explain the economic, social, and cultural differences between the North and the South.
B. 2. Analyze how the disruption of the American party system frayed the durable bonds of union, leading to the ascent of the Republican Party in the 1850s.
B. 3. Explain how events after the Compromise of 1850 and the Dred Scott decision in 1857 contributed to increasing sectional polarization.
B. 4. Explain the causes of the Civil War and evaluate the importance of slavery as a principle cause of the conflict.
B. 5. Chart the secession of the southern states and explain the process and reasons for secession.

Standard 2 Knows and understands the course and character of the Civil War and its effects on the American people.

B. 1. Compare the human resources of the Union and the Confederacy at the beginning of the Civil War and assess the tactical advantages of each side.
B. 2. Identify the innovations in military technology and explain their impact on humans, property, and the final outcome of the war.
B. 3. Identify the turning points of the war and evaluate how political, military, and diplomatic leadership affected the outcome of the conflict.
B. 4. Evaluate the provisions of the Emancipation Proclamation, Lincoln's reasons for issuing it, and its significance.
B. 5. Analyze the purpose, meaning, and significance of the Gettysburg Address.
B. 6. Compare the motives for fighting and the daily life experiences of the Confederate soldier with those of white and African American Union soldiers.
B. 7. Analyze the reasons and the effects of the northern draft riots.
B. 8. Compare women's home front and battlefront roles in the Union and Confederacy.

B. 9. Compare the human and material costs of the war in the North and South and assess the degree to which the war reunited the nation.

Standard 3 Understands the struggles, turmoil, and challenges that occurred in the Reconstruction of the Republic.

B. 1. Contrast the Reconstruction policies advocated by Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, and sharply divided Congressional leaders, while assessing these policies as responses to changing events.
B. 2. Analyze the escalating conflict between the president and Congress and explain the reasons for and consequences of Johnson's impeachment trial.
B. 3. Analyze the nature of the Compromise of 1877 and explore its impact on Southern reconstruction.
B. 4. Explain the economic and social problems facing the South and appraise their impact on different social groups.
B. 5. Assess how the political, social, and economic position of African Americans in the southern states changed during reconstruction.

Era 5 - The Development of the Industrial United States (1870-1900)

Standard 1 Understands how the rise of Industrialism transformed American life and led to the rise of challenges faced by the American labor movement.

B. 1. Explain how organized industrial research produced technological innovations, especially the Bessemer steel process, conversion to electrical power, and telephonic communication, and how these innovations and inventors transformed the economy, work processes, and domestic life.
B. 2. Analyze how urban political machines gained power and how they were viewed by immigrants and middle class reformers.

Standard 2 Understands how massive immigration after 1870 and new social patterns, conflicts and ideas of national unity developed amid growing cultural diversity.

B. 1. Distinguish between the old and new immigration in terms of its volume and the immigrants' ethnicity, religion, language, place of origin, and motives of different immigrant groups.
B. 2. Explain the rising racial conflict in different regions and the ongoing denial of civil rights of various ethnic groups.
B. 3. Investigate new forms of popular culture and leisure activities at different levels of American society.

Standard 3 Understands how political issues reflected social and economic changes.

B. 1. Analyze how various unions and trade unions differed in organization and how they dealt with ongoing industrial abuses.
B. 2. Explain how Democrats and Republicans responded to civil service reform, monetary policy, tariffs, and business regulation.

Era 6: The Emergence of Modern America (1890-1930)

Standard 1 Understands how Progressives and others addressed problems of industrial capitalism, urbanization, and political corruption.

B. 1. Examine the social origins of the Progressives and evaluate Progressive attempts at social and moral reform.
B. 2. Explain how intellectuals and religious leaders laid the groundwork and publicists spread the word for Progressive plans to reform American society.

B. 3. Assess the Progressive efforts to regulate big business, curb labor militancy, and protect the rights of workers and consumers.
B. 4. Evaluate the presidential leadership of Theodore Roosevelt, William Howard Taft, and Woodrow Wilson in terms of their effectiveness in obtaining passage of reform measures.
B. 5. Explain why the election of 1912 was a pivotal campaign for the Progressive movement.
B. 6. Compare the New Nationalism, New Freedom, and Socialist agenda for change.
B. 7. Describe how the 16th, 17th, and 19th amendments reflected the ideals and goals of Progressivism and the continuing attempt to adapt the founding ideas to a modernized society.
B. 8. Explain how the decisions of the Supreme Court affected Progressivism.
B. 9. Examine the perspectives of various African American on Progressivism and the alternative programs.
B. 10. Specify the issues raised by various women and how mainstream Progressives responded to them.

APPENDIX E

Suggested Resources

Books

Collins, (2003). *America's women: 400 years of dolls, drudges, helpmates, and heroines.* NY: Perennial, HarperCollins Publishers Inc.

Conway, J. K. (1985). *The female experience in eighteenth and nineteenth century America: A guide to the history of American women.* Princeton University Press.

Crocco, M. S., & Davis, O.L., Jr. (Eds.). (1999). *Bending the future to their will: Civic women, social education, and democracy*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

DuBois, E. C., & Dumenil, L. (2005). *Through women's eyes: An American history with documents.* Bedford/St. Martin's Press.

Franklin, W. (Ed.). (1997). *American voices, American lives: A documentary reader*. New York/London: W.W. Norton.

Grunwald, L., & Adler, S. J. (Eds.). (2005). *Women's Letters: America from the revolutionary war to the present*. NY: The Dial Press.

Hewitt, N. A. (2005). *A companion to American women's history.* Maldem, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Holmes, K. L. (Ed.). (1995). *Covered wagon women: Diaries and letters from the western trails, 1840-1849.* University of Nebraska Press.

Kerber, L. K. (1998). *No constitutional right to be ladies*. New York: Hill & Wang.

Kerber, L. K., & De Hart, J. S. (Eds.). (2004). *Women's America: Refocusing the Past.* 6th edition. Oxford University Press.

Matthews, G. (2000). *American women's history: A student companion.* NY: Oxford University Press.

Peavy, L., & Smith, U. (1998). *Pioneer women: The lives of women on the frontier*. University of Oklahoma Press.

Premo, T. L. (1989). *Winter friends: Women growing old in the new republic, 1785-1835.* University of Illinois Press.

Royster, J. J. (2000). *Traces of a stream: Literacy and social change among African American women.* Pittsburg, PA: The University of Pittsburgh Press.

Woloch, N. (1999). *Women and the American experience*. 3rd edition. McGraw-Hill Humanities/Social Sciences/Languages.

Woloch, N. (2001). *Early American women: A documentary history, 1600-1900*. 2nd edition. McGraw-Hill Humanities/Social Sciences/Languages.

Woloch, N. (2001). *Women and the American experience, a concise edition.* McGraw-Hill Humanities/Social Sciences/Languages.

Wood, B. (2000). *Gender, race, and rank in a revolutionary age: The Georgia lowcountry, 1750-1820*. Athens, GA: The University of Georgia Press.

Websites

American Memory Historical Collection Project. http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/index.html

American Women: A Gateway to Libray of Congress Resources for the Study of Women's History and Culture in the United States. http://memory/loc.gov/amem/awhhtml/

Civil War Women: Primary Sources on the Internet. http://library.duke.edu/specialcollections/bingham/guides/cwdocs.html

Comprehensive Women's History Research Guide. http://womenshistory.about.com

Midwest Women's History Resources. http://www.library.wisc.edu/libraries/womensStudies/midwhist.htm

National Women's History Project. www.nwhp.org

Women and Social Movements in the United States, 1600-2000. http://womhist.binghamton.edu

APPENDIX F

Barbara's Course Outline
Fall Semester, 2006

Textbook: Danzer, et al. (2000). *The Americans*. Evanston, IL: McDougal Littell, Inc.

August 16th to September 5th

Unit I – Early American Colonization (Chapters 1-3)
Quiz – August 28th
Test – September 5th

September 6th to September 22nd

Unit II – American Revolution (Chapters 4-5)
Prospectus/Thesis due – September 6th
Quiz – September 13th
Test – October 22nd

September 25th to October 9th

Unit III – Development of the Nation (Chapters 6-7)
Quiz – October 2nd
Rough Draft due – October 4th
Test – October 9th

October 10th to October 24th

Unit IV – Early Reform Movements (Chapters 8-9)
Quiz – October 17th
Test – October 24th

October 25th to November 17th

Unit V – Civil War and Reconstruction (Chapters 10-12)
Final Research Paper Draft due – November 7th
Test – October 17th

November 20th to November 29th

Unit VI – Industrialization and Growth (Chapters 13-16)
Test – November 29th

November 30th to December 12th

Unit VII – Imperialism and Expansion (Chapters 17-18)
Quiz – December 6th

December 13th to December 18th

Review for Final Exam on December 19th