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Experiencing Crisis in Schools: Examining Preservice Teachers' Reflections on September 11 and Their Notions of Citizenship

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**Experiencing Crisis in Schools: Examining Preservice Teachers'
Reflections on September 11 and Their Notions of Citizenship**

by

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Dedication

For my soul mate, my husband, Andrew. You sent me flowers as you were recovering from your accident during my last week of teaching—a hard week for both of us—in 2008. The message attached to the bouquet has been perched on the dash of my car since then. Two months later we moved to Austin, two years later we married, and here I've been my happiest with you...so far.

You are the very best at making the little things great, and the great things, little.

The card on my dashboard reads:

“You have been my hero this week.

Hopefully in the near future you will become Dr. Bellows.”

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Experiencing Crisis in Schools: Examining Preservice Teachers' Reflections on
September 11 and Their Notions of Citizenship

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Teachers and children who were in schools on September 11, 2001 harbor unique, personal, and accessible memories of the events that occurred that Tuesday morning. Educational research has attended to this (inter)national crisis in a multitude of ways, yet there exists a gap in the literature that attends to how today's preservice teachers remember the crisis through the lens of citizenship. To add complexity, adolescents who were in classrooms on September 11 are now adults, and some are studying to be teachers. This dissertation study aims to highlight how preservice teachers remember 9/11, how they understand citizenship, and how they plan to teach about 9/11 as an historical event to elementary students.

This study presents the findings of a qualitative instrumental case study of five elementary preservice teachers' memories of September 11, 2001 as experienced as adolescents in school. The author investigates how the preservice teachers' memories intersect with understandings of citizenship, and how the young teachers plan to teach about 9/11 in an elementary social studies setting. Preservice teachers in the study

participated in two interviews and one think-aloud lesson planning session with the researcher.

Data analysis indicate the preservice teachers' understandings of citizenship are still evolving, yet the crisis of 9/11 further complicates—or interrupts—more critical notions of citizenship. The participants' memories of 9/11 are vivid and include reactions of their classmates and teachers. When participants were asked to create a lesson plan for elementary students, they felt overwhelmed by the amount of resources on the topic, and that they did not know enough about 9/11 to teach about it effectively.

Findings suggest the singular understandings of citizenship held by participants are temporal and contextual. During a time of crisis—and specifically during and following 9/11—citizens succumbed to more belligerent notions of citizenship, and later, their memories contribute to their still evolving teacher identities. Drawing from their own civic understandings and memories of 9/11, four of the five preservice teacher participants planned to use their lessons about 9/11 to teach children how citizens come together in a time of crisis. One participant chose to design a week-long unit of instruction that allows students to examine the events of 9/11 in more critical ways. Finally, the study raises questions about the drastic range of possibilities in teaching 9/11 in elementary school, and exposes how teachers choose to include and exclude certain images, narratives, and accounts from the story.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Upon entering the public school system students experience perhaps their first encounters with diverse groups of peers, structured socialization, and sets of situational rules and expectations designed to maintain the social order of the school. As students tread the well-beaten path through the public education system, they begin to construct understandings about what it means to be a citizen of the classroom, school, state, and nation. Citizenship education, whether implicit or explicit, underpins all activity in and surrounding the school.

In his seminal book, *Democracy and Education* (1916), John Dewey argued that education—as a social process—has no distinct meaning until we can agree on its definition and come to a consensus about what democratic education should entail. Two schools of thought, teaching via *transmission* and teaching for *transformation*, have since defined the dichotomous debate in this pursuit. Stanley (2010) conducted a conceptual analysis of the conceived purposes of social studies education and summarized, “schooling has functioned, in general, to transmit the dominant social order, preserving the status quo,” (p. 17) which accounts for the struggle for the inclusion of more transformative democratic classroom practices. However, Parker (2003) reminds us that democracy is a process or form of life rather than a static end, and we should consider any democratic society as a work in progress.

Though teachers are the ultimate filters through which content is delivered in classrooms, we must not forget the steadfast dominant system that works to standardize, generalize, and impart curriculum based on what those in power deem most important. Pinar and Grumet (1982) argue the mechanism of schooling is “situational” and not “educational” as they pinpoint the growing separation between theory and practice. They assert,

the familiar rituals that repeat themselves, year after year, in town after town, hardly accommodating to history or geography, all suggest that school is a situation so pervasive and persistent that it is easy for us to forget our contribution to its forms and to mistake it for a thing of nature rather than culture (p. 53).

In other words, though times and technologies have changed since the founding of our nation, the *schooling situation* has been slow to evolve.

Because of the resilient nature of this *schooling situation* there are many challenges in preparing teachers to think critically and hold a commitment to teaching via curriculum that supports critical democratic civics education. This curricular notion would be “dedicated to the creation of a politically and power-literate society whose citizens are capable of reestablishing a working democratic system,” and benefactors of this type of education would be “committed to social and economic justice...who [would] strive to make the world a better place to live” (Kincheloe, 2011).

There are few things that can disrupt the cyclical grind of the school day, and on one hand, these disruptions are welcomed by students and teachers alike: pep rallies, assemblies, fire drills, extreme weather drills, and so on. On the other hand, when an unplanned and possibly hostile situation occurs during the school day—such as a suspected weapon on campus, violent student or teacher behavior, or a bomb threat—most schools respond by placing the campus on lockdown or carrying out some other protocol as laid out by administrators and teacher trainers. Numerous crisis intervention programs that work to train teachers how to respond to crises such as these have rolled out in response to local threats, but until September 11, 2001, the field of social studies remained absent from the conversation about how teachers’ responses to perceived threats may or may not have an effect on the aims of citizenship education.

THE UNIQUENESS OF 9/11 DURING THE SCHOOL DAY

Traditional preservice teachers are entering their twenties and have never known a world unsaturated with media continuously available via television, radio, and the Internet. Information is available instantaneously, at any time of day, and from a plethora of technological platforms and devices. Today's preservice teachers were adolescents when they witnessed—mostly via television—the terrorist attacks on the U.S. on September 11, 2001. They observed U.S. political rhetoric and responses to the events and experienced (knowingly or unknowingly) changes in governmental policy. As U.S. citizens who will prepare the future citizenry, preservice teachers today have a unique understanding of what it means to be an American citizen in a post-September 11th world.

The horrific terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001 (9/11) occurred on a Tuesday morning while U.S. students and teachers were beginning the school day. Many schools avoided (or prohibited) the screening of news media within the classroom (Berson & Berson, 2001) while others allowed (or did not closely monitor) live streaming coverage of the events via classroom televisions (Burns & Schaefer, 2002). Whether or not the students viewed media coverage within the walls of their classrooms, the ubiquitous images of the event infiltrated their televisions and conversations at home.

In the days following 9/11 the U.S. government requested that its citizens carry on “business as usual” in our daily routines. Understandably, that message carried into the classroom in order to help children maintain a sense of stability. Burns and Schaefer (2002) recognize however, that “the front line of “normalcy” for students became our

nation's teacher" (para. 7). In essence, teachers became their students' models of the citizen's response to 9/11.

GETTING PERSONAL... RELATED SYMPTOMOLOGY

Everyone has their own memory/story/narrative of where they were, what they were doing, and how they reacted on 9/11. I was a teacher in a large urban middle school in Dallas, Texas. Unaware of the events unfolding in New York, and running late for work, I bypassed the school's front office and quickly made my way upstairs with a bag of graded papers and the coffee I had picked up from a convenience store along my commute. The first class period of the school day was my conference period—I remember that I did not teach my first class until 9:30 a.m. I usually spent that first hour of the workday catching up on paperwork, preparing for the day's lessons, or chatting with my colleague Kristy, who also had first period conference. Sometimes we would meet in her room (she taught drama on the first floor of the building) and sometimes my second floor classroom was our meeting place.

Kristy was already in my classroom that morning, standing, staring, at the TV that was mounted just under the ceiling in a corner of my classroom. She had heard news of the first plane crash on her car radio as she was driving into work. I don't remember putting my bag down or even greeting Kristy—it seemed that time was standing still and all we could do was rubberneck. We must have been afraid to speak in fear of missing any new piece of information Matt Lauer and Katie Couric were relaying. Confusion and incomprehension even permeated the newscasters—the ones who were supposed to know

about the events they were reporting. By the time the bell rang for second period I was a statue in my classroom, eyes on the television, hands on my mouth, not able to hold back tears, as students silently and slowly entered my room. My eyes opened wide to Kristy and I whispered, “Erich is in Florida.” She grabbed me in a tight embrace and whispered back, “Then he’s fine. He’ll be fine.” She pulled back, gave my shoulders one last squeeze, and rushed out of my room to get to her classroom. Still worried about my fiancé who was away on business, I took a deep breath and consigned myself to remain calm. *Stay calm. You can call him from your cell phone during lunch. Take a breath. Stay calm.*

Soon it was evident that some of my students had watched news coverage in their first period classrooms—they were the ones who asked, “Did you see it, Miss Almond?” Some of the students heard the news for the first time as they entered the room, but they all looked to me for what to do next. I remember a few students asked questions right away, before they sat down. A low murmur arose as students tried to get information from other students. I think I just shushed them, put my hands on their shoulders and backpacks, and guided them slowly to their desks. I wanted to address the whole class at once—I figured that is what a calm person would do. The exact words I spoke to my second period class that morning are missing from my memory, as are most of the faces that came in and out of my room that day, but I remember simply relaying what I had heard and seen—which was not comforting, I knew—but I told them about the first plane crashing into one of the towers of the World Trade Center. And then I told them I witnessed the second plane hit the second tower. Some of my students nodded in unison;

they confirmed what I saw, for they had seen it too. I told them this was likely a terrorist attack. I told them there might be other planes in the sky, and most likely expressed some fear in my eyes for not knowing more information—for not being able to tell them “we are safe.” I was a myriad of emotions, as we all were that morning, trying desperately to make sense of what my eyes told my brain. My thoughts kept twisting through a barrage of questions and fears until the tardy bell shook me back to the present and I focused on this question: What do I do with my kids today?

I was 25 years old and had completed a bachelor’s degree at a university known for its exceptional teacher education program. I had graduated with honors. I was a novice teacher with only one year of teaching experience under my belt and I was in a new position to a talented and gifted elective course to mixed classes of 6th, 7th and 8th graders. I had no textbooks and no curriculum except for what I had designed myself the previous year, I had no maps of the world, no high-speed Internet access, but my teacher identity was solidifying and I felt confident about the new school year ahead of me. I was (ashamedly) a rare follower of current events, least of all political news, and had never heard Osama bin Laden’s name (as was likely common with many Americans). Kristy was quick to mention bin Laden that morning, and I looked to her to provide me with a crash course on his background in the weeks that followed.

Within my talented and gifted course, I was free to explore any topic with my students. I was grossly underprepared, however to discuss the terrorist attacks with them, much less provide any comprehensive explanation as to what was happening in the world. Many of my students stared at the television right along with me (I think mostly

the older ones), and I remember some students turned away, opened books, doodled on notebooks. We started conversing—asking questions together, really—and talking our way through what we were witnessing. None of my students had been to New York and most of them had never been out of the state of Texas except to visit family in México. I remember we talked a bit about geography, about where New York and D.C. are located, about what the Twin Towers were and what they represented. Because I could not answer most of my students’ questions—the hard questions like “how?” and “why?” and perhaps because I could not answer my own similar questions that persistently bubbled up—I grasped and found two things on to which I could tightly clutch: my memory and my identity. I felt compelled to share and communicate, to talk in great detail about all I could remember of my first trip to New York City just two months earlier.

WHAT I KNEW ABOUT NEW YORK CITY

I shared with my students that I had just traveled to New York City in July. I was there to meet my future in-laws and explore the city for the first time with my fiancé. We attended a Broadway musical (Phantom of the Opera—my *favorite* musical of all time!) and spilled out of the theater with the rest of the masses to be confronted with the overwhelming busyness of the Theater District and Times Square. I described this experience to my students and told them how I asked my future family if we could just stop—if I could just stop for a minute to take it all in. They humored me and I am sure we must have stood there for ten minutes on that bustling sidewalk. *Awesome*. There was no chance we were going to hail a taxi with the shows having just let out, but we were able to snag a limousine that drove us to the World Trade Center. To perpetuate the

cliché, my fiancé opened the sunroof of the limo and I hopped up to poke my head out of the top of the car—I was mesmerized watching the city lights go by as if I had lived on a farm my whole life.

It was a night of firsts. My future father-in-law was beaming with pride as he paid our driver and boasted some facts about the height of the Twin Towers, or how long it took to build them, or some other tower trivia I have since forgotten. We took a long ride up in an elevator, exited, walked to a different set of elevators, then made our way to the top floors of the World Trade Center to the Windows on the World restaurant before ending up at the Greatest Bar on Earth. The family was proud of New York and thought it was the greatest city in the world, and they wanted to show me why. After we enjoyed a cocktail and sushi rolls, my fiancé walked me past the go-go dancers to one of the windows and we soaked in the amazing view. I put my forehead on the glass. I looked down. I could *feel* the building swaying ever so slightly and I remember telling myself, “Remember this. This is an amazing moment. Remember it.”

While sharing these memories with my students two short months later, more of my tears found their way out. I could remember so vividly the feeling of the tower slowly swaying on that windy night, the butterflies in my stomach as I looked down from the 107th floor, and the dimly lit room booming with bass as patrons tried to talk over the music as they laughed, ate, drank. And then I thought about the people—the people arriving at the Twin Towers for work on a Tuesday morning...today...*this* morning. I thought about how long the elevator ride was up to that restaurant, and how many flights of stairs the floods of people working in the towers must have been trying to climb down

after the planes flew into the towers. I thought about their perspectives from inside the towers and how they might not have any clue as to what was happening to the building, to the other tower, to the nation, to the world. Watching the towers collapse later that morning stirred such emotions in me that I found it hard to behave as a teacher. I remember feeling all I could be was my *true* self—a 25 year-old woman overwhelmed with grief, fear, confusion—and with 165 students looking to me for answers that day, and the next, I did not even reach for my teacher hat. In fact, I have a hard time remembering how many days went by before I could wear that hat again.

On that Tuesday morning my thoughts darted back and forth over my constantly shuffling list of concerns. The people in New York—*who will be able to get away?* The passengers on the planes—*were any of them able to reach their loved ones?* Our President and his staff—*where are they anyway?* My fiancé—*Oh my God. He's in Florida on business. Will he be able to get home?* My students—*Am I traumatizing them or allowing them to witness history?* The questions were like quicksand, coming faster and sending me deeper into a drowning flurry of confusion. The worst part was that there were no answers.

For the next several days, my classroom television remained on CNN. At times I had the volume low so we could continue work on our fall projects, and other times, when I would check in between classes for an update, the volume stayed up and I would talk a little at the beginning of class about the update. I remember being so disheartened and solemn when I would report to the children, “Still no survivors.” Sometimes we would talk about it or keep watching, other times we changed our gaze and looked at

each other, and our work. I remember feeling it was still too soon to smile, to make a joke, or to laugh, and I can't recall how long I clung to that feeling.

Some scholars have asserted that people who are not present at a traumatic setting may be more likely to suffer related symptomology if they identify themselves as similar to victims of the trauma (Dixon, Rehling, & Shiwach, 1993). This was me. I think this was all of us at some point or another that day. Those of us that watched from afar, from across the country or across the world, we felt it could just as easily have been us jumping from that burning building or running from the dense blanket of smoke and debris. Or it could have been our brother, our uncle, our mom, or niece. I found out that evening it was my dear friend's father. Preparing for a meeting in the Twin Towers, he managed to escape the destruction and found his way to New Jersey on a ferry. I was with my friend when he finally reached his father by phone that night, and his reaction of tremendous relief was felt by all of us—friends and neighbors—that stood next to him, trying to assure him his dad was going to make it out alive, but losing hope with each passing minute. We had to get away from the news coverage that night, and caravanned to a local sports bar. Of course, the bar's televisions were still streaming the day's events, but it helped to be in public, to be in a familiar place, doing a comfortable thing—having a couple of beers with friends.

The headline in the Dallas Morning News EXTRA edition, printed on September 11 read, "Day of Terror," and the special issue announced, "8-PAGE EDITION: ATTACK ON AMERICA." The paper included 21 color photos of the day's events, 12 stories, three maps, and an editorial titled "Immediate Reactions" (p. 7). Though I had

this newspaper in my hands the night of September 11, 2001, I did not take it to school to share it with my students. In fact, I cannot recall if I actually tried to construct a lesson plan about 9/11 during that fall semester. Surely, I would remember if I had.

TEACHER GUILT

For many years after 9/11, and after I went on to teach in two other schools and districts, I carried what I call “teacher guilt” with me about how I reacted as a teacher—as a human being—with my students as witnesses. If they were looking to me as an example of how citizens should have reacted to 9/11, or as an example of what teachers *ought* to have done to calm and reassure students, then I surely failed. I worried that I had instilled fear, that I was unable to give them answers, or worse—that I had forced them to watch a tragedy unfold when all they wanted to do was turn off the television and get back to the comfort of the monotonous school day. I worried that I had somehow damaged my students psychologically. I had let them down. *Why wasn't I prepared? How could I have been prepared? What did teachers do during other moments like this—when the nation—the world—stopped in its tracks? What happened in schools after the bombing of Pearl Harbor? What did teachers do when John F. Kennedy was assassinated? What did teachers do when Timothy McVeigh bombed a federal building in Oklahoma City in 1995? How did teachers and administrators respond when two students killed and wounded their classmates and teachers at Columbine High School in 1999? How did teachers explain to their students about the explosion they witnessed as they were gathered around the television to watch the Space Shuttle Challenger take*

teacher, Christa McAuliffe, and six others into space? I had not learned about what to do in the wake of crisis in my teacher preparation program.

I remembered being a fourth grade student in January of 1986 when my teachers wheeled in a television on a cart to our classroom to watch the Space Shuttle Challenger take off. The teachers were particularly excited because of social studies teacher Christa McAuliffe's participation in the mission. McAuliffe planned on teaching two lessons from space, and as a nine year-old girl who idolized her teachers, I remembered feeling giddy to watch the launch. Our fourth grade class gathered on the carpet near the front of our classroom, watched the television, and counted down to liftoff along with the televised Cape Canaveral audience. When the Shuttle exploded a little over a minute into its flight, my teachers reacted abruptly as they quickly jumped up from where they were sitting and rushed to turn off the TV. They wheeled the TV cart into the hallway and the classroom door shut behind them. My classmates and I were looking at each other, puzzled, and a boy asked, "Did it just blow up?" I remember saying, "Sshh. I can hear the teachers crying."

We waited patiently for our teachers to return but I have a hard time remembering just how long they were out of the room. What I do remember is that we did not spend much time talking about what had happened, and that our teachers encouraged us to speak with our parents about the Challenger when we got home. I think the teachers wanted to hide their tears from us and get back to the business of school. It was as if sorrow and sadness were not allowed to penetrate the walls of the classroom. I recall watching the news that afternoon with my mom and feeling very sad and confused, but

not only for the victims of the explosion and their families, I felt sad and confused that my teachers could not share their thoughts and emotions with me. As a young girl who always looked up to her teachers, it was such a strange feeling to feel that I could not trust my teachers, that they were holding something back, and that I did not know them like I thought I had. I wondered why my teacher, Mrs. Hamilton, could read *Where the Red Fern Grows* aloud and shed tears as we sat on the carpet and listened intently to the fictional story, yet for this catastrophic event, this horrible and unfortunate incident, emotions were stifled.

The memory of the Challenger explosion was burned somewhere deep in my mind, and I remember harboring feelings that I was cheated out of more information. I wanted to know what happened and I wanted to keep watching. I wanted to hear what the newscasters had to say and see how the audience at Cape Canaveral was reacting. I wanted to see my teachers' reactions and witness them having *real* emotions—I wanted to ask the questions and I wanted them to be able to answer. Perhaps because of this memory, because my teachers sheltered their students from what we knew was reality, this caused me to be a real, emotion-experiencing adult in front of my students on 9/11. Perhaps I was presumptuous to assume that my students in 2001 felt just like I did in 1986 and wanted more information. Additionally, the Challenger explosion killed seven people, but on that Tuesday morning in 2001, I knew what was happening would extinguish many more innocent lives—this was a much bigger scale. I was convinced this was a defining historical moment and that my students *needed* to watch every moment unfold. Whatever the case, I now believe the guilt I felt for the way I reacted on

9/11 must have been commonly felt by teachers on and after 9/11. The field of education as a whole was stunned and unprepared—we lacked a necessary toolkit to help us figure out just what to do in a moment of national crisis.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The inclusion (or omission) of the events surrounding 9/11 in U.S. official history warrants a reflective pause in the field of citizenship education as the narrative of what occurred that day is being constructed and added to the final pages of our history textbooks. There exists a gap in the literature that attends to preservice teachers' voices and their memories of experiencing an historical moment of crisis in school, specifically in the context of 9/11 and teacher education, and how those memories inform their curricular decision-making and subsequent planning to teach about the event. In order to promote anti-oppressive education through critical analysis of our commonsensical notions about schooling (Kumashiro, 2004), I suggest turning a critical ear to what preservice teacher education students who experienced the event remember about 9/11 more than ten years later, what questions remain unanswered, and how students continue to construct notions of citizenship. To answer Parker's (2001) call for more deliberation and discussion to be taught and experienced in schools, as well as to address Ben-Porath's (2006) problematic of the belligerent citizen, I conducted an instrumental case study that uncovers preservice teachers' memories of the 9/11 events, how those memories intersect with their understandings of what it means to be a United States citizen, and how the participants plan to teach about 9/11 in Texas elementary schools. I

conclude the study with implications for teacher education generally, and citizenship education specifically.

PREVIEW OF REMAINING CHAPTERS

In the next chapter I will frame subsequent chapters by examining the flurry of research about what teachers did and what others thought they should have done, following 9/11. I will attempt to shed light on the vast amount of curricular resources and materials that became available and investigate the driving forces and underlying goals of their formation through the lens of citizenship education. Next, I expose and discuss the role of identity and memory as the root of these curricular designs, and their tendency to interrupt the important task of centering citizenship in this conversation. I then explore the dangers of civic illiteracy and belligerent citizenship, especially during times of crisis. I conclude chapter two by outlining what research has shown to be an effective framework to educate for an informed and emancipatory citizenry.

Chapter three attends to the method of inquiry used to design the study. I examined preservice teachers' memories of 9/11 in order to better understand how they experienced this national crisis as young students in schools, and how these memories inform their thinking when planning to teach about the event in elementary school classrooms. Positioning the events on (and after) September 11th in context with political and social understandings of what it means to be an American citizen is important in order to make sense of the diverse reactions experienced at that time. For this purpose, preservice teacher participants in this study reflected on their evolving constructions of

civic identity and their memories of experiencing 9/11 as students in Texas schools. Participants then performed think-aloud lesson planning tasks and discussions in order to design lesson plans to teach elementary students about 9/11. The following research questions guided the study:

- What are preservice teachers' memories of public/national crises and the surrounding events of 9/11 as they experienced them as students?
- What connections (if any) exist between preservice teachers' memories of crises and their understandings about the construction of citizenship?
- How do the preservice teachers envision teaching about trauma/crises? How do they treat 9/11 as an historical event during their lesson planning?

I utilized qualitative methods described in chapter three to perform a thorough analysis of collected data that resulted in the themes discussed in chapter four. Finally, I used scholarship in social studies and citizenship education, as well as the work of critical theorists, to attend to my research questions, and in chapter five I attempted to answer these questions and point to implications for teacher educators and teaching during times of (inter)national conflict.

Chapter 2. Review of Relevant Literature

Citizenship education in the U.S. has typically centered around policy and politics—drawing from political science theories—where democratic societies are presented as accomplished instead of continually refined and reformed (Heilman, 2011). Most existing citizenship education frameworks emphasize teaching for understanding democratic processes, how government works (its branches and functions), and current social issues (Boyle-Baise, 2003; Grant & VanSledright, 1996; Hahn, 1998; Thornton, 2005; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004). Heilman (2011) suggests a new paradigm for citizenship education—The Personal-Political Approach—would focus on the development of the people that effect change instead of teaching about the process of change and how to operate within the system (p. 114). In this way, more attention in citizenship curricula would be given to agents of change and resistance movements, drawing more heavily from the social sciences. Social studies and history curriculum designed in this way would also pay more attention to how events were experienced by participants and bystanders and less on chronologically organized ‘facts’, which has been the mainstay of history textbooks and of teaching history in classrooms across the nation.

Coupled with Heilman’s vision for a new, more personal social citizenship, education would include elements of critical pedagogy, which would “aspire to link practices of schooling to democratic principles of society and transformative social action in the interest of oppressed communities” (Darder, Baltodano, & Torres, 2009, p. 2). Similarly, Henry Giroux (1980) theorized a critical rationality in citizenship education and outlined three points to consider: changing society, teacher consciousness, and

classroom pedagogy. Giroux (1980) posited that citizens must come to some sort of consensus about whether society should fundamentally be changed, or whether it should be left as it is. This decision would require citizens to confront assumptions about the aims of education in general—about who gets educated, and what (or whose) knowledge is deemed legitimate. Because students are rarely the ones who make decisions about what they learn in schools, citizenship education must begin with teacher consciousness.

To provide this critical citizenship education for the next generation of citizens, teachers must be able to recognize and critically examine the magnitude and deeply entrenched nature of the institution of schooling. Teachers could therefore view mandated school curriculum—discussed here as *school knowledge*—as malleable and changeable, instead of as a system over which they have no power to modify. In this way, teachers could approach the broad world of school knowledge to determine to what degree it should reflect student interests and needs. For example, in his keynote address at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in 2008, Howard Zinn supported the gradual movement toward an emancipatory citizenship when he noted the importance of social studies educators to help children not

simply swallow these enveloping phrases like “the national interest”, “national security”, “national defense”—as if we’re all in the same boat. The soldier who is sent to Iraq does not have the same interests as the President who sends him to Iraq. The person who works on the assembly line at General Motors does not have the same interests as the C.E.O. of general motors. We’re a country of divided interests, and it’s important for people to know that... because in order for

the people up on high to *remain* up on high, [they] have to persuade the people below them that they all have the *same* interests. They don't (Zinn, 2008).

Finally, Giroux (1980) points toward an emancipatory citizenship education that does not attempt to position students into the existing society, "instead, its primary purpose must be to stimulate their passions, imaginations, and intellect so that they will be moved to challenge the social, political, and economic forces that weigh so heavily upon their lives" (p. 357). These more nuanced versions of citizenship education would include practices of critical civic literacy, which go beyond descriptions of participatory citizenship (Wethermer & Kahne, 2004), and allow students to become "justice-oriented citizen[s]...who [are] particularly concerned with exposing and undoing systems of privilege and oppression in the hopes of attaining equity for all (Mayo, 2011).

Citizenship education, and the call for its move to a more critical educative space seems to be of greatest consideration in moments of national crisis. The analogous events of December 7, 1941 and September 11, 2001 spurred swift escalation of a national rhetoric of patriotism, support for retaliation, and national unity as fostered by public Presidential addresses. Both surprise attacks against the U.S. resulted in a Presidential discourse of American might coupled with sympathetic anguish for lives lost. Roosevelt's Pearl Harbor Address to Congress on December 8, 1941 and George Bush's epideictic speech atop the rubble at Ground Zero on September 14, 2001 allowed U.S. citizens to declare an entitled revenge. Roosevelt's words bellowed, "The American people in their righteous might will win through to absolute victory" (CITE). Sixty years later, George Bush spoke through a bullhorn to firemen and rescue workers as he stood

atop the rubble in New York City, “I can hear you, the rest of the world hears you, and the people who knocked these buildings down will hear all of us soon” (CITE). Both statements were followed with roaring supportive applause from the country’s citizens.

Whether hearing the words of these pivotal speeches via radio, television, or reading them in print, they are meant to evoke emotion, rally citizens, and gain support. With a somewhat ripple effect, the adults who are roused (or not roused) by declarations of war and predictions of imminent danger and change, are children’s examples of how to respond. Particularly in this chapter I argue citizenship education becomes especially important during these moments in history, when a nation is in crisis, and young citizens whose civic identity is in the formative stages, are developing in classrooms as they look toward their teachers as model citizens (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Burns & Schaefer, 2002; Jaros & Canon, 1964).

RESPONSE TO CRISIS—THE CASE OF 9/11

Prior to September 11, 2001, educational crisis management teams and school psychologists mostly responded to campus and community needs in light of localized traumas such as student suicides and death, house fires, floods, and other natural disasters. The news media has brought to our attention in recent years other deliberate events that have certainly disrupted the flow of the school day. Bullying, hate crimes against gay and lesbian students, racial violence, gang misconduct, school violence, and sexual offenses have warranted services from the school’s educational psychologist or crisis management team. An extensive amount of research housed in the psychological

and social sciences has centered on crisis intervention in schools, and how administrators can better prepare teachers to take steps in addressing such acts (Everly, Lating & Mitchell, 2005; Gelman & Mirabito, 2005). Crisis intervention teams in schools could not have foreseen how their services would be needed, however, in the aftermath of the tragic events that occurred on September 11.

In the fall of 2001, teachers in Manhattan witnessed a surprise attack on their city that left them with the monumental task of protecting and evacuating their students in the midst of chaos, and later, comforting, discussing, and helping them cope with what they had experienced. Elementary teachers in New York City responded in various ways. In the Teachers College Press publication *Forever After: New York City Teachers on 9/11*, twenty educators contributed chapters describing their experiences with children on and after 9/11. Confused about what was happening on the morning of 9/11, third grade teacher, Patricia Lent, described, “I was torn between an urgent desire to know what was happening and an equally urgent desire to insulate my students from frightening news...I willed myself not to know” (p. 2). Later, Ms. Lent—whose school was four blocks north of the World Trade Center—found herself running as fast as she could, her students running with her, away from the inevitable collapse of the towers that thrust a massive cloud of dust and debris up the streets of Manhattan. In her journal, an eighth grade teacher in Chinatown recalled her feelings of frustration about being unprepared as a teacher:

This situation is horribly, horribly wrong. It is wrong that my students are watching this tragedy unfold before them. It is wrong that more than 45 minutes

has passed since the first explosion, and there have not been any kind of announcements or directives for the teachers. It is wrong that we can only watch the mass exodus and wonder if we should join them. It is wrong that smoke and debris are seeping into our building, and we have no means to comfort the students (p. 217-218).

When students returned to school, just two days later, most New York City school administrators and counselors advised teachers to begin the day by facilitating a morning meeting to discuss what had happened, and to allow students to share their thoughts and ask questions. Amy Martin, a second grade teacher, followed those directives and gathered her class on the carpet for a morning meeting September 13, 2001. She explained, “The meeting began a conversation of questions that had no immediate, clear answers. In the presence of parents and administrators, the children shared comments and questions that were the unwanted silent companions of all the adults” (p. 186). A fourth grade teacher, Isaac Brooks, expressed:

Public officials were urging us to go about life as usual, but that felt like a crass response to an event that was so horrifying, so large in scale, and so physically palpable. Beyond the training I gained at Teachers College, beyond my experiences as a business executive years before that, beyond everything I learned and experienced up to this point, I still had no idea how to help my students make sense of this event (p. 34).

The responses from teachers who witnessed the attack on New York City, with students looking to them for answers, looking to them as models of how to respond and

what to do next, ran counter to the traditional types of ‘crisis management’ training that had been extended to teachers thus far. The following example of a public school’s lockdown procedure exemplifies traditional crisis management drills:

- All staff and students are to be in secured rooms, away from windows and visual contact from the outside during the lockdown.
- Students will be permitted to go to the restroom only if the public safety incident commander permits such activity and only if the student is accompanied by a designated school staff escort.
- Any special needs of students or access of parents to students will be addressed through the public safety incident commander.
- The principal will provide frequent communications to the students and staff regarding the status of the lockdown and the need for continued cooperation.
- Rules regarding cell phone use will be strictly enforced (<http://www.fremont.k12.ca.us/site/default.aspx?PageType=3&ModuleInstanceID=4724&ViewID=7b97f7ed-8e5e-4120-848f-a8b4987d588f&RenderLoc=0&FlexDataID=4052&PageID=3215>, Gomes

Elementary Website, Fremont Unified School District, Fremont, CA)

On 9/11 students looked toward teachers, but teachers looked toward administrators, and no one in the hierarchical chain of command had answers that seemed reasonable. Decisions about what to do to make sense of this unnatural and atypical event were made, sometimes with and sometimes without consent or directives from administration.

Those of us who were teaching in other parts of the country—geographically removed from the attacks in New York and Washington, D.C.—had entirely different perspectives on the events as they took place, yet felt a similar uncertainty about how to handle ourselves and our classrooms. As I wrote in the previous chapter, I felt I did all I knew how to do at the time to address the crisis with my students. Yet I struggled with guilt about how I ultimately handled my classroom on 9/11 and the days that followed. Some teachers received instructions from administrators to shield students from the events, not to turn on the televisions or radios, and not to discuss the events or answer questions about the events (Berson, & Berson, 2001). Other teachers made decisions—in spite of, or for a lack of, administrative directives—to stream live coverage of the events as they unfolded, or turn on radios to monitor the situation (Burns & Schaefer, 2002). Regardless of how teachers responded in the immediacy of 9/11, all teachers had to make decisions about what to do on that day and in the days that followed.

Because of the ubiquitous and permeating nature of news coverage in the many days after 9/11, teachers geographically removed from the events had a choice to address and discuss the events in the classroom, or ignore the event and focus on the normalcy of the school day. Those that decided they would approach the topic struggled about how to conduct their classrooms. What lessons were teachers to pull together to help students make sense of the attacks? How were teachers to respond to questions from students, the palpable questions that were too complicated to explain to young children—*Why were people jumping out of the buildings? Why do other people in the world hate us? Who did this? Are we in danger?* Teachers were faced with facilitating discussions about

9/11 and deciding what the overall purpose might be in teaching 9/11 as a current event, and nowadays, as an historical event.

Researchers documented teachers' reactions and how they dealt with the subject of 9/11 in their classrooms. For example, Webeck, Black, Davis, & Field (2002) described elementary teachers responses as steward, citizen, and learner. A teacher participant in their study described actions her students took:

I teach gifted third graders; they are totally aware of the circumstances. To ignore it, to appear to be keeping them in the dark, would have made them more frightened. On September 12, it couldn't be ignored. My third graders made a class book. We brainstormed ways in which the country was still strong. They mentioned the military, police, firefighters, schools, belief in God, government, medical professionals, and "our American spirit." They each chose one of these ideas to illustrate, and we put their work together as a class book entitled, "We're Mighty, We're Strong" (p. 7).

Seemingly focusing on personal aspects of citizenship, the teacher made educational decisions to help her students feel safe and confident. Risinger (2001) contributed a piece to *Social Education* to suggest helpful Internet resources for teacher use in teaching about 9/11. The article focused on teaching about terrorism, Islam, and tolerance just one month after the attacks. Predicting prejudicial behaviors, and reflecting on racial violence her son suffered in school during the Iranian hostage crisis in 1979, Alavi (2001) felt passionately about sharing with teachers how to teach about Muslim Americans and tolerance in the aftermath of 9/11. She expressed her frustration with judgmental

attitudes and actions in the days that followed the attacks: “No religion espouses the use of violence. Many Muslims feel as though the airplanes used in the attacks weren’t the only things that were hijacked; the truth and beauty of Islam were also hijacked by this terrorist act” (p. 345). Alavi also included in her article a list of eleven “books about Islam recommended for school use” (347) to assist teachers in addressing the topic.

Whether or not teachers sought out (or continue to seek out) educational resources about 9/11 from professional journals such as the ones mentioned above, or whether they have had success using them in their classrooms, is difficult to investigate. The National Council for the Social Studies asked teachers to post comments on how they responded to 9/11 on its website very shortly after the event, and we have learned in the last ten years how some teachers have taught in critical ways about 9/11 (e.g. Bigelow and Verma, described below). With over ten years between 9/11 and today however, there exist adults who were elementary, middle, and high school students during 9/11 that can reflect on their memories of schooling. I wondered if students remember talking about 9/11 in school, if they remember learning about Islam, Muslim Americans, and tolerance. I wondered if they had conversations in schools about patriotism, reasons for the War on Terror and for invading Iraq. Finally, I was curious to find out if students could recall specific conversations or events that centered on topics such as these, as housed in the social studies. I argue that notions of citizenship and democratic education *ought* to have been at the center of teachers’ curricular conversations in the fall of 2001 and spring of 2002, in order to assist students in learning about more global issues, with an underlying

purpose of teaching them how to live and function in an interdependent world, a world full of crises.

CRISES AND TRENDS IN CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Crises are not new to America. More importantly, how teachers' experiences with crises intersect and overlap with citizenship education ought not be new. The literature in social studies education investigating how (inter)national crises might influence citizenship education, especially in the elementary grades however, is nearly absent from this conversation. There are numerous studies in the field that explore pedagogical implications on the historical teaching and learning of crises, such as Pearl Harbor and World War II (Burstein & Hutton, 2005; Field, 1994; Schamel & West, 1991), the Holocaust (Carrington & Short, 1997; Totten, 2000), the Vietnam War (Kirschner & Weisberg, 1988; Zeiger, 1995), the Gulf War (Merryfield, 1993; Field, Burlbaw, & Davis, 1994), Hurricane Katrina (Renner, 2009; Robertson & King, 2007), and most recently, September 11th (Osanloo, 2011). Other influential work has focused on the treatment of these events in schools as controversial in order to spur critical discussion in secondary social studies classrooms (Hess, 2009). Much of the empirical scholarly work that attends to teachers' responses when crises are experienced in schools is found in psychological journals (Felix, et al., 2010; Noppe, Noppe, & Bartell, 2006), and relied on studies related to school and teacher responses to tragedies such as the Oklahoma City bombing and the Columbine High School shootings (e.g., Gurwitch, Sitterle, Young, & Pfefferbaum, 2002).

An abundance of theoretical work has developed in the last ten years locating September 11 in the field of social studies education (Apple, 2002; Giroux, 2002; McLaren, 2005), and more specifically, in citizenship education (Chang, 2002; Sax, 2004; Westheimer, 2003). After the devastating events of 9/11, topics in citizenship education were revitalized while new topics sprouted. On one hand, the field witnessed a surge of research in global citizenship education, emancipatory pedagogies, as well as reconciliatory and peace education (Bottery, 2006; Ibrahim, 2007; Rapoport, 2009). On the other hand, much attention has been given to “The New Patriotism” and teaching with a renewed sense of patriotism United States allegiance (Finn, 2006; Gordon, 2001). As the distance between 9/11 and today becomes greater, more studies have focused on preservice teachers’ notions of citizenship and civic identity construction post-9/11 (Conklin, 2009; Ukpokodu, 2006). However, there appear to be increasingly fewer empirical studies about 9/11 that involve elementary preservice teachers’ notions of citizenship considering their unique vantage point as young students who witnessed (via media) the event, and how these notions of citizenship drive their teaching in elementary schools.

The tragic events that occurred on September 11, 2001 happened while about half of the country’s teachers and students were in their classrooms, a place where citizens are supposed to feel safe—a place where children first learn (or *should* learn) about the functions of living in a democratic society. The elementary classroom is the perhaps the first place where children learn how to live, work, and play—socialize—with peers who are not necessarily like themselves—and this is at the heart of living in a democratic

society. It seems sensible then, that in the midst of such history-altering moments of crisis—events that directly and indirectly affect our notions of citizenship (patriotism, allegiance to the country, and how we view others in the world)—that social studies research take notice of the ways that teachers are imparting civic knowledge in elementary schools.

The landscape of citizenship education research during two of the most destructive (and since, the most memorialized) crises on American soil—Pearl Harbor and 9/11—changed in various ways during the span of 60 years. Traditional citizenship education has strong curricular roots in the social studies. These traditions include teaching about our country’s origin, wars, elections, and civil rights. After Pearl Harbor in December of 1941, the field of citizenship education shifted to meet the perceived needs of the day, and some states began requiring Americanism-versus-Communism classes in the 1950s and 1960s (Hoge, 2002). This trend of course dissipated by the 1970s and 1980s, as did the threat of communism, and it was replaced with more law-related education in order to “[address] the need to inform and temper the free-spirited and protest-oriented generation of the 1960s and 1970s” (Hoge, 2002, p. 105). Research has demonstrated the effectiveness of law-related programs in promoting the analysis of complex social issues, and includes active learning strategies in the classroom (Patrick & Hoge, 1991; Niemi & Junn, 1998; Mann & Patrick, 2000; and Vontz, Metcalf, & Patrick, 2000).

Law-related curriculum was slowly phased out while a growth in more interdisciplinary pedagogical styles allowed for the more meaningful integration of social

topics within literacy (and other content area) instruction (Hinde, 2005). Farris (2004) reported that Bruner expanded on Hilda Taba’s development of the spiral curriculum in which social studies concepts are introduced and elaborated on throughout the elementary and middle school. With the rise of high-stakes testing and its squeezing effect on secondary social studies instruction (Salinas, 2006; Segall, 2003), the field has seen an even more diminished presence in elementary schools, and has been referred to as “a side effect of No Child Left Behind (NCLB)” (Cawelti, 2006).

The flurry of resources that became available for classroom use post-9/11 represented yet another pendulum swing in (perceived) resurfaced national unity, patriotism, and national allegiance. New curricular materials surfaced in 2002—with the poignant anniversary of 9/11 guiding it—and the materials have only increased in number since. The push to teach about 9/11 in schools resurfaces each year around Patriot Day (now recognized each September 11), which was signed into law on December 18, 2001, and Celebrate Freedom Week (also celebrated in September) prompts educators to examine connections between 9/11 and the U.S. Constitution.

DRIVING FORCES SURROUNDING 9/11 CURRICULUM

A substantial amount of research and conceptual work has focused on various post-9/11 topics including civic education (Boyte, 2003), race and diversity (Grewal, 2003; Kromidas, 2004), teacher education (Apple, 2002; Giroux, 2002; Thornton, 2002), and student perceptions of the events of 9/11 (Diem, 2002). The collection of rich research reveals the complexities and diverse viewpoints that point toward what

narrative(s) about 9/11 *ought* to be included in the curriculum. Many individuals and educational organizations (Finn, 2002; Kohn, 2001; Rethinking Schools, 2001) have similarly contributed to the argument about whose (and what) knowledge counts (Apple, 2004) in the retelling of 9/11.

Not surprisingly, in the aftermath of 9/11, a curricular struggle has ensued concerning how we should teach children and adolescents about the event in schools, ranging from right-wing efforts promoting (uncritical) patriotism (see Finn, 2002), to more critical examinations of the events (see Rethinking Schools, 2001). Ten years later, 9/11 made its way into the curricular fabric, but the purpose behind this curriculum is far from resolved. Texas provides one example of how curriculum standards have been changed to accommodate 9/11, though not thoroughly. In Texas's most recent curricular revisions, students taking United States history in high school will be required to "explain how the role of the federal government changes during times of significant events including...9/11" (Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS), United States History, 19 b., 2011), yet there are no standards in the secondary grades addressing that 9/11 specifically be taught as an historical event. That students know about what happened on 9/11, the event's historical, economical, and global impact in its aftermath, is assumed to be common knowledge unnecessary of direct instruction.

In Texas's elementary state curriculum, the social studies standards are organized by content area—history, geography, economics, government, citizenship, and culture. Following these sections the curriculum outlines student expectations in the areas of science, technology, and society, as well as various social studies skills, such as applying

critical thinking skills, communicating in various forms, and using decision-making skills. From pre-kindergarten to second grade, there is no mention of 9/11 in any context in the Texas elementary curriculum. In third grade however, students are required to “identify and compare the heroic deeds of state and national heroes, including Hector P. Garcia and James A. Lovell, and other individuals such as Harriet Tubman, Juliette Gordon Low, Todd Beamer, Ellen Ochoa, John “Danny” Olivas, and other contemporary heroes” (TEKS, Third Grade Social Studies, 14. a., 2011). Though 9/11 is not mentioned in the history section of the TEKS, Todd Beamer (a passenger on United Airlines Flight 93 that crashed in Shanksville, Pennsylvania on 9/11) is listed as a hero, but terms are of particular importance here. While examining the TEKS, teachers are urged to look carefully at the words “including” and “such as.” If a person’s name is preceded by the word “including”, then this individual *must* be addressed in the classroom. On the other hand, the terms “such as” indicate *suggestions* for the teaching of the following individuals. In the case of Todd Beamer, because his name is preceded with “including” in the curriculum, teachers are required to talk about him in the context of heroism, but nowhere in the third grade standards is 9/11 considered as an historical event.

The topic of fourth grade TEKS is Texas history and therefore another school year is lacking mention of 9/11. Fifth grade TEKS however, address United States history from 1565 to the present, and delineate one standard that could be tied to 9/11: “The student is expected to analyze various issues and events of the 21st century such as the War on Terror and the 2008 presidential election” (TEKS, Fifth Grade Social Studies, 5. b., 2011). The seeming implausibility to teach about the War on Terror without

mention of 9/11 is concerning, but of equal concern are the “such as” words that precede the War on Terror as an issue to analyze. Likely, if a Texas elementary school teacher feels she perhaps does not know enough information about the War on Terror, she would not be negligent to ignore the issue altogether.

Many states, although not all, have revised state standards to include 9/11. I did not perform an exhaustive search of all states, but did pay brief attention to New York, Arizona, and California state social studies standards. New York’s (2008-2009) standards show no mention of 9/11 until grade 8, when students are to examine the question, “How has America reacted to the challenges of the modern world?” A bulleted list of topics are listed beneath this question including, “the feminist movement...Nixon’s resignation... terrorism (9/11/2001)...civic responsibility,” (p. 33). Like New York, Arizona’s newest social studies standards (adopted for use beginning in 2006) also wait to mention 9/11 in any context until 8th grade American history. Students in Arizona are asked, to “Describe events (e.g., September 11 Terrorist Attacks, Afghanistan, Iraq War) of the presidency of George W. Bush” (p. 116). California’s state history and social studies standards have not been updated since 1998 (published in 2000), so searching for any mention of 9/11 would certainly be futile.

With its incalculable global impact, it is of great concern that students (in Texas, at least) will most likely transition to middle school having no investigation, examination, or discussion about the events that happened on 9/11. Like the aforementioned curriculum, it appears that even ten years later, political debate surrounding the inclusion of 9/11 in textbooks has caused an interruption in its formation of official history. In

their analysis of nine secondary social studies textbooks, Hess, Stoddard, and Murto (2008) immediately noticed the ways in which 9/11 was treated in the texts as a non-controversial event, told in a neutral, third person narrative. What is revealing here is not just the removed perspective that the texts represent, but that most of the textbooks typically presented only one unchallenged portrayal as the accepted interpretation of 9/11 and its aftermath (Hess, Stoddard, & Murto, 2008). In other words, the events surrounding 9/11 and U.S. government political and military responses are presented as uncontroversial.

Nowadays, teachers can access via the Internet a multitude of resources to serve as (and supplement) school curriculum; however the pervasiveness of the textbook as the crux of teachers' curricular decisions remains intact (Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988; Field & Labbo, 1994; Hess, Stoddard, & Murto, 2008). Moreover, history teachers would surely attest to the improbability of reaching the most current history printed at the end of the textbook, which is where we find slight mention of 9/11. Furthermore, with recent added pressure of attending to standardized, high-stakes test preparation (Grant, 2006; Grant, 2007; Au, 2007), until 9/11 appears in state and national standardized assessments, it is unlikely the subject will be taught, much less taught in critical ways.

TEACHING ABOUT 9/11 CRITICALLY

Teachers like Bill (2008) and Rita Verma (2008) provide inspiration for teachers who invite their students to critically examine national and international conflict, and the contradictory roles the U.S. plays in response to conflict (Kumashiro, 2004). Bigelow (2008) describes how he “wanted to design a lesson that would get students to surface the

definitions of terrorism that they carry around—albeit most likely unconsciously” (p. 9). The social studies teacher posed scenarios, using pseudonyms for countries, and encouraged his students to define terrorism based on the events presented in each scenario (the list of scenarios can be found at www.rethinkingschools.org). Bigelow then asked his high school students to decide:

1. Which of the situations below are “terrorism,”
2. Who the “terrorists” are in the situation, and
3. What additional information you would need to know to be more sure of your answers.

All the situations...are true, but the names of countries and peoples have been changed (p. 14).

Bigelow found the more his students understood about the implementation of U.S. power around the world (in terms of military and economic forces), the less likely they were to want to see it continue. A critical thinking exercise such as this one works to critique the dominant chronicle of current events disseminated via textbooks and media. Moreover, it attends to student-created definitions that are then applied in the arena of political knowledge.

In an objectively similar lesson, Rita Verma (2008) described her work as a high school teacher trying to integrate themes of social justice, peace education, and reflective thinking into her pedagogy. As a female teacher of South Asian origin, Verma had

experienced racism, especially in the times after 9/11. She wanted her students to confront media images that

have established the suspect and dangerous “Other” as a brown-skinned, bearded, turbaned male terrorist...[which] reflects a broader anti-immigrant ethos wrapped around culture and religious symbol that have nothing to do with terrorism...[and] media culture has been engaging in dramatic spectacle and a disinformation campaign that dehumanizes and victimizes Arabs and portrays stereotypical images of the “civilized West” and “barbaric Arabs” that further become a part of an oppressive hegemonic discourse” (p. 29-30)

After Verma’s students interviewed one another via a climate study about their native cultures preceding World Languages Week, she provided them a handout with categorizations of people. She wrote the same categories on the board and invited students to record their responses on the board.

Verma found the “assumptions about South Asian and Arab Americans spanned socioeconomic differences and the racial divide between Latino, White, and African American students in the classroom” (p. 34). After reviewing some of their comments (which included, “all turbaned men are terrorists,” and “everyone over there in the Middle East wants to kill us,” p. 34), Verma spoke to her students the next day about her own experiences concerning racism and how 9/11 has impacted her life and worldview. She then revealed she had family members who wore turbans and that she was from India. Students positioned her as the “voice” for Arab Americans, which allowed for personalization and trust building. Verma’s students participated in a critical discussion

and shared their own experiences with racism and stereotyping. Following the discussion Verma asked her students to compose reflective essays, and she reported they “were very thoughtful...it was evident that a few students were reevaluating their viewpoints” (p. 37). Though some students were resistant to change their minds, Verma insists that more frequent lessons of this type would allow her students to “encourage students to search for facts, challenge their own assumptions, and envision what a peaceful world would look like” (p. 38).

The design, implementation, and reflections of lessons such as the two described above serve as a springboard for scholarship in the field and help bridge the gap between theory and practice. Through this study I created a space for preservice teachers to examine expository resources, children’s literature, and primary sources in order to think about and design an elementary lesson plan about 9/11. Through this exercise, I hoped to learn more about how preservice teachers, that experienced 9/11 in schools, are thinking about teaching the event to elementary school students.

THE INTERRUPTION OF MEMORY AND CIVIC IDENTITY

The flurry of curricular materials written and designed after 9/11 were dominated by two inherent notions: memory and civic identity. Because today’s preservice teachers were old enough to remember their experiences on 9/11—where they were, what they did, how they felt, how their teachers and classmates responded—it is necessary to consider the role memory plays in the retelling and teaching of the event of 9/11 and others. Of equal importance is how these young teachers have come to construct their civic identity in a post-9/11 world. That is, worthy of consideration is how they “[confer]

membership, identity, values, and rights of participation and [assume] a body of common political knowledge” (Knight, Abowitz & Harnish, 2006, p. 653). In the sections below I first situate memory, followed by civic identity construction, in the broader work of citizenship education.

Memory

Academic research in history and memory began in the 1960s and 1970s. Prior to this, historicists regarded history as a recreation of insights. In other words, they studied history in order to recreate presently what had happened in the past (Hutton, 2000). In this perspective, the study of history and memory was considered straightforward and smooth. Today’s historians have all the resources of the Internet, which permits images and narratives to permeate our thinking about times past, and more interested in historical interpretation that allows for more suspicion and critical inquiry in the study of the past (White, 1973). In this way, rhetoric is considered the essential role in historical reconstruction. Hutton (2000) describes White’s work, *Metahistory*, as the study that “put an end to the uncritical faith of historians in the neutrality of historical narrative, a faith whose bedrock was fact, whereas the meaning of history is also dependent upon the structures to which facts are fitted” (p. 535). White’s seminal work therefore contributed to the shift in historiography’s focus on method (how we do historical research) to theory (why we conceptualize the past the way we do).

Halbwachs (1985) posited that there are as many memories as there are groups, and that memory by nature is multiple yet specific; collective and united yet individual. The difference concerning history is that history belongs to everyone while at the same

time belonging to no one. Nora (1989) extended the scholarship of Halbwachs by providing a useful description of the oppositional nature of history and memory:

Memory is life, borne by living societies founded in its name. It remains in permanent evolution, open to the dialectic of remembering and forgetting, unconscious of its successive deformations, vulnerable to manipulation and appropriation, susceptible to being long dormant and periodically revived. History, on the other hand, is the reconstruction, always problematic and incomplete, of what is no longer...a representation of the past (p. 8).

Recognition of these complex notions of history and memory prompt a call for investigation into how preservice teachers remember a watershed moment in what is now part of “our” national history. Hutton (2000) added another layer of complexity as he argues how historicizing requires *closure* of the event. In other words, history (and the act of investigating history) requires us to perceive that something *happened*, and not that the past is debatable or available for interpretation.

When memory becomes collective—that is, when there is a recollection of a public event by a group that experienced the event—the “memory is continually reshaped by the social contexts into which it is received. The more powerful the context, the more imposing its memories will be” (Hutton, 2000, p. 537). The overlapping of media saturation of 9/11 and public patriotic rhetoric in the fall of 2001 surely served as a powerful social context, allowing for the imposition of memories.

Civic Identity Construction

Students have unique understandings about what it means to be American citizens, and they have civic experiences daily—both in and out of school—that help shape and mold these understandings. The majority of scholarly research on civic education and youth has investigated civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement. This work has been critiqued for its inattention to sociocultural contexts and its deficit thinking approaches (Rubin, 2007a). The field has advanced however, through more recent and nuanced understandings of how youth construct their civic identities via studies that have focused on youth organizing and action research (Kirshner, 2009; Rubin, 2007b); contextualizing youths' sociocultural locations (Wilkenfeld, 2009; El-Haj, 2007, 2009); and intersections of race and identity (Epstein, 2009; Nygreen, 2008). Researchers have come to realize that how youth identify as American citizens, or how they do not identify, is a complicated evolutionary process that requires consideration of students' school, social, cultural, familial, racial, and cultural experiences in order to develop profound understanding.

Though I prefaced this section by identifying memory and civic identity as constructions that interrupt a more critical retelling of an historical event, I want to point out that this interruption is not necessarily an undesirable effect. On one hand, identity and memory could be perceived as negative erections against a critical agenda that strives toward deeper meanings, while on the other hand we might look at memory and identity as natural, unavoidable events that occur as we attempt to interpret history. In other words, it might be impossible to imagine reacting to a national crisis, such as 9/11,

without accessing previous memories and experiences that, for various reasons, ring similar. Regardless of how we treat memory and identity however, there still lies an underlying conception of how we think about citizenship education that needs to take precedence, especially during times of crisis.

I argue the deliberation social studies educators, researchers, and curriculum developers should have about what educating for good citizenry ought to entail must include consideration of three different ideas: recognition of civic illiteracy, concern for belligerent citizenship in times of war, and how we might construct spaces that allow for enlightened political engagement. The following three sections expand these ideas and serve as the framework through which data will be analyzed in chapter four.

CIVIC ILLITERACY

Described as a crisis in and of itself, civic illiteracy “exists because the dominant elite that runs this country requires youth and citizens who can be manipulated” (p. 2). Reflecting on my own schooling experiences I cannot recall an instance where school textbook knowledge was questioned, blind patriotism was presented as controversial, or government decisions and actions were critically examined. Consequently, as a middle school teacher on September 11, 2001 and the days and months that followed, I wholeheartedly trusted and supported the decisions made and the actions taken by the U.S. government. Lacking necessary critical thinking skills, my “civic literacy fundamentally consisted of yellow-ribbon support for the decisions that had already been made” (Marciano, 1997, p. 19). Though written four years before 9/11, Marciano draws from concrete examples in order to make a solid case for the presence of civic illiteracy

plaguing our schools and popular media that work to reinforce the dominant-elite narrative that so often goes unquestioned.

Marciano deconstructed the dominant-elite view of civic literacy by historically examining pieces of the Declaration of Independence as well as scholars who “ignore the actual conditions facing the majority of the people during the period of our Declaration and Constitution” (p. 33). In a critique of Paul Gagnon’s work that “discusses the bonds in our political heritage that have brought Americans together”, Marciano pointed out that Gagnon supported the ideals held within these historical documents “without any reasonable explanation of why these blessings are not already enjoyed by all more than two centuries after the Founding” (p. 33). Marciano similarly critiqued the earlier work of Diane Ravitch for being uncritically patriotic when she described the U.S. as having a rich, “common culture” created out of the diverse peoples that have inhabited it. Marciano questioned Ravitch’s notion of “common culture” when he reminded us that “everything that American Indians and African slaves brought to this ‘common culture’ was assaulted” (p. 38).

Marciano reported events and actions following the Gulf War that eerily parallel government responses to 9/11. Unfortunately, my schooling experiences, both as a student (inclusive of my K-16 years) and as a professional (including my first few years of teaching), were housed within the dominant-elite narrative that Marciano fervently critiqued. Because of this phenomenon, I felt ill-equipped to speak intelligently about the unexamined counterpoints and resistance expressed following the (dominant) U.S. reaction to the tragedy of 9/11, and therefore became interested in learning more about

the topic as a graduate student. Referencing his college students' civic illiteracy during the opening week of the Gulf War, Marciano discusses how they "had been made civically illiterate by a hegemonic educational system and mass media" (p. 179). As a college student at that time, I can recall a lack of critical information surrounding the Gulf War, and as Marciano describes, "the ideological blinders about [this state] are so powerful that most accept its premises and policies uncritically" (p. 162).

Westheimer (2009) presented two different ways to think about patriotism: authoritarian and democratic. He described authoritarian patriotism as rife with the ideological beliefs of "non-questioning loyalty" to one's country and its leaders. On the other hand, loyalty under democratic patriotism was described as "questioning, critical, deliberative" (p. 318). In American schools, it is no secret that curriculum standards call for students to "identify how selected symbols...reflect an American love of individualism..." (Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills, Grade 2, 14d, 2011). Through the recitation of the pledge, students are most often being taught (implicitly or explicitly) an authoritarian version of patriotism.

Kevin Kumashiro (2004) responded to Marciano's call for civic literacy as he examined how the U.S. has acted and continues to act in contradictory ways. In his book *Against Common Sense*, he reflected on the U.S. government's reaction to the attacks on 9/11: "The blanket condemnation of the 'terrorists' makes it easy to dehumanize the attackers and to call for punishments and retaliation, thus deflecting attention from our shared responsibility to make changes" (p. 58). Marciano would surely concur with

Kumashiro's assessment of the country's quick response to dehumanize the "other," without consideration of the reasons behind such actions, no matter how we might disagree.

Reflecting on Marciano's work tends to stir up frustration and feelings of uneasiness as I reflect on my own teaching, specifically how I reacted as a teacher on 9/11. I appreciate Marciano's attention to "those educators who foster civic literacy against great odds" (p. 177). He writes passionately of the importance of teacher education as he suggests, "Bigelow's and Freire's pedagogies are absolutely crucial, for a student-centered, process-oriented discussion will not spontaneously move to more critical and historically accurate discussions without the intervention of an informed and reflective teacher" (p. 181).

I imagine that much of the critical civic identity scholarship work would most likely be seen as controversial by preservice teachers, but I also realize the importance and urgency in sharing such critical views as teacher educators prepare young teachers to infiltrate our elementary schools and begin to negotiate lesson design through the use of state-mandated curriculum. The hope is that if they are given the opportunity to identify and critique the dominant narrative in meaningful ways before leaving the university these new teachers will begin to develop renewed civic literacy in order to form new notions of common sense as it relates to what it means to be a U.S. citizen.

BELLIGERENT CITIZENSHIP

In her book *Citizenship Under Fire: Democratic Education in Times of Conflict*, Sigal Ben-Porath (2006) addressed troubling trends surrounding the field of citizenship

education, specifically during wartime and times of crisis. She discussed how the social tendencies of citizenship during times of peace become neutral and taken for granted, and how this neutrality is in direct opposition to the way society behaves during wartime. Societal aims then become seemingly less democratic as citizens participate in what Ben-Porath terms “belligerent citizenship,” which describes the societal shift from a more open, democratic notion to that of a more narrow understanding of the relationship between the state and the individual. Consequently, the notion of belligerent citizenship surfaces in response to perceived threats on the national and individual levels of security. Because society has come to accept a national and individual sense of security as a commonsensical requisite to being an American citizen, this threat becomes the ultimate concern, Ben-Porath argued, even if it causes subversion of the nation’s foundational democratic ideals.

Ben-Porath revealed how belligerent citizenship is mirrored in the sphere of public education as teachers and administrators tend to conform to the dominant national response. Ben-Porath suggested that in times of conflict, school administration should focus on constitutionally-based democratic values in order to provide tools for appreciating and preserving democracy, while simultaneously preparing for peace and enduring war. Through multiple and relevant illustrations of Israeli and American education systems’ responses to conflict, the argument was made that these reactions were notoriously uncritical and without public debate.

Reflecting on my experiences and memories from 9/11, I make strong connections with the author’s description of the patriotic responses of the American

government, and in effect, society in general. Immediately following 9/11, (blind) patriotism abounded. Yellow ribbons adorned car antennas, there was a palpable sense of national unity, and if a business or resident owned a U.S. flag, it was made visible.

Ben-Porath traced acts of belligerent citizenship back to the creation of the Victory Corps during World War II, as well as to the way Israeli students are taught the Jewish holidays as celebrations of their victories over Greeks, Romans, and other historical enemies. To counteract notions of belligerent citizenship, Ben-Porath proposed an *expansive education* that aims to keep the long-term effects of patriotism, as well as the short-term effects of exercising democratic ideals, at the forefront of citizenship education during times of conflict. She noted expansive education as a “dual commitment” approach “that aims to accommodate patriotic teaching *and* a pluralist notion of national affiliation into a strong model of democratic education” (p. 56, emphasis added).

Ben-Porath argued that because of the U.S. pedagogical trends in patriotism education, it is easier for students to understand war than peace, and this led her to question how the educational system can effectively respond to circumstances of war in a manner that could promote peace education. She thoroughly supported recognition of the differences of teaching peace education pedagogically and holistically. Ben-Porath criticized the pedagogic trends as apolitical and over-simplistic, while she saw the holistic trends as too blurry and indistinct to be useful. She argued that both of these approaches are limited in that they misrepresent the political nature of war and peace, and they also neglect to attend to the emotional aspects of peace education. In response, Ben-

Porath suggested educators use ideas of expansive education to define peace education as a “political project,” so that students can examine political conflict with an “honest critical consideration of the background of political circumstances,” (p. 75).

In addition to making citizenship education more political in nature, Ben-Porath made a case for viewing this content through a feminist and a multicultural lens. Drawing upon the work of Paolo Freire, bell hooks, and Sara Ruddick, she expressed the significance and importance of the “mutual work of student and teacher in opposing the social mainstream” (p. 87). She poignantly asserted, “[f]or students to be able to reconceptualize notions of gender, nationalism, or patriotic commitments (as well as of race, class, and other social matters), their initial perception of these must be recognized in class” (p. 90). These two ideas require teachers to critically reflect on their practice in order to help students to recognize the social mainstream, make sense of their positionality within it, and to see the teacher as a partner in their mutual resistance. Though she recognized the periodic necessity of belligerent citizenship, Ben-Porath implored educators to consider “the two relational aspects of multicultural thought that are most important to consider in the context of war and thus are most adaptable to the needs of expansive education” (p. 95). Further, she identified concepts of acknowledgment and forgiveness as the cornerstones of this work. Though these two aspects are broader than Ben-Porath would prefer to use for her idea of expansive education, they must be utilized nonetheless.

I reflect on the days in school I spent with my students on 9/11 and feel privileged to have been in a geographic space where I had a television in my classroom and was

able to watch and discuss the events with my students without interference or reprimands from my administrators. On the other hand, I look back and wonder how I might have contributed to the reinforcement of the social mainstream that day, and how I became wrapped up in the belligerent citizenship of the time. Ben-Porath would suggest by utilizing a notion of expansive citizenship education, students might come together in times of conflict in order to feel and act patriotic, but that they might concurrently remember the foundational democratic ideals that give us the *choice* whether or not to participate in such activity.

Ben-Porath's call for the use of expansive education during times of conflict "is based on balancing the demands of belligerent citizenship with democratic principles and a realistic vision of peace" (p. 113). She implored us not to lose sight of the potential decrease in importance of our civil liberties in order to protect notions of belligerent citizenship. I wonder how civics teachers (and other teachers of the social sciences) might digest Ben-Porath's ideas to expand traditional elements of civic education that justify war, by considering social elements of equal value. Acknowledging, recognizing, and forgiving those that pose a national threat would no doubt be a societal struggle, but could counter the perpetual "othering" that belligerent citizenship allows. At the heart of Ben-Porath's theory of expansive education is the idea that citizenship is shared fate:

Learning to conceive of citizenship as shared fate can cultivate a more open and inclusive form of national affiliation. In a way that may initially seem contradictory, the pluralistic and open-ended nature of this form of nationalism

can in fact be more unifying than the more rigid conception of nationalism as identity (p. 120).

I would add that because our textbooks and curriculum standards have done an inadequate job of including the voices and views of historically marginalized populations, Ben-Porath's vision of citizenship as shared fate might be a step in a more nationally, and internationally, inclusive direction.

I found Ben-Porath's ideas for expansive education helpful in thinking about how one might counteract notions of belligerent citizenship, however, as a former public school teacher and teacher educator, I am privy to my preservice teachers' needs for concrete examples and practical applications of theoretical ideas. To help envision an ideal way to recognize civic illiteracy and respond to belligerent citizenship during times of crisis, I turned to Parker's (2001) notion of enlightened political engagement. In the next section I describe enlightened political engagement as an exemplary model and discuss its potential inclusion in the current education system.

ENLIGHTENED POLITICAL ENGAGEMENT

Recognizing that teaching through and about conflict (and its possibility to lead to positive change) is scant in the school curriculum, Parker (2001) argued for more deliberation to be taught and experienced in schools as he makes a case for *Enlightened Political Engagement*. Parker used the well-established concept (see Nie, et al., 1996) to look at schools as "both curricular and civic spaces" ripe for the cultivation of the democratic citizen. In his investigation into school attendance—or years of schooling—Parker (2001) positioned the seven citizenship outcomes of school attendance that are

also characteristics of Enlightened Political Engagement (including both democratic enlightenment and political engagement): knowledge of principles of democracy, knowledge of current political leaders, knowledge of other current political facts, political attentiveness, participation in difficult political activities, frequency of voting, and tolerance. Nie et al.'s (1996) data showed the reason school attendance predicts Enlightened Political Engagement is simple in that those with more years of schooling have more access to political resources. We also know that students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds consistently demonstrate lower levels of civic knowledge, and that these students report a less open and supportive classroom climate, and fewer opportunities to discuss social and political issues (Baldi et al., 2001; Lutkus et al., 1999). Adler (2004) suggests that novice teachers “need to understand the role they can play in perpetuating this disparity, or increasing all students’ social capital” (p. 53).

Calling for more than just access to political resources however, Parker (2001) discussed the need for Enlightened Political Engagement to attend to include consideration of cognitive issues. In concert with school attendance, students must also be taught political knowledge and attitude (such as tolerance of dissent). This assertion however begs for investigation of how—and if at all—students are afforded opportunities to learn about political knowledge, and whether they are able to practice these skills in meaningful ways. The fact that schools, their resources, and the effectiveness of their teachers, are not equitable across socioeconomic lines is common knowledge, and hinders the development of Enlightened Political Engagement in marginalized communities.

Parker (2001) concluded by revisiting Dewey's (1916) notion of democratic education as "a way of living with others, a way of being" (p. 109), and posited, "it is this trek—this commitment [of being together]—that unites them, not ethnicity, language, race, or religion" (p. 110). Civics educators should continue to see democracy as a process, a struggle, and not as something static or finished. Educators must make every effort to keep children in school, but realize that multidimensional citizenship education should be considered the crux of a public school education. Furthermore, teaching women's suffrage, the Civil Rights Movement, the marriage equality campaign, and other historic and recent struggles as aspirations and growth of democratic ideals is necessary in order for students to investigate these movements as part of the process of a growing democracy.

What does Enlightened Political Engagement look like however, when considering Ben-Porath's notion of the belligerent citizen which surfaces most fervently during times of war and crisis? I argue it becomes particularly important during these times to recommit our civic selves to the duties of democratic processes, to return to the foundations of civic discourse, so that we are not blinded by feelings of revenge or emotionally manipulated by media coverage of such events. I also argue in the retelling of events such as 9/11, preservice teachers' memories can act as powerful tools to critically examine historical narratives.

Chapter 3. Method of Inquiry

Operating within a constructivist paradigm (Merriam, 1998), I view knowledge as a process, and believe that “[u]nderstanding the meaning of the process or experience constitutes the knowledge to be gained from an inductive, hypothesis- or theory-generating (rather than a deductive or testing) mode of inquiry” (p. 4). In this study I examined five preservice teachers’ memories and reflections of experiencing public crises as students in public schools, and specifically examined these preservice teachers’ memories of the 9/11 tragedy as they unfolded in classrooms in the southern United States. I investigated participants’ reflections of their schooling experiences as well as their understandings of citizenship and the meanings they make about being United States citizens. I then traced the preservice teachers’ thinking and decision-making as each worked to design a lesson plan that about the events that happened on September 11, 2001. Questions guiding the study included:

- What are preservice teachers’ memories of public/national crises and the surrounding events of 9/11 as they experienced them as students?
- What connections (if any) exist between preservice teachers’ memories of crises and their understandings about the construction of citizenship?
- How do the preservice teachers envision teaching about trauma/crises? How do they treat 9/11 as an historical event during their lesson planning?

I sought out answers to these questions by interviewing and working with five preservice teachers at the university where we oftentimes cross paths.

QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENTAL CASE STUDY DESIGN

The qualitative study was anchored by constructionism, as I attempted to understand the meaning a particular phenomenon had for the participants (Merriam, 2009). Erikson (1986) pointed to the most distinctive characteristic of qualitative inquiry—the emphasis on interpretation. Crotty (1998) explained, “[m]eaning does not inhere in the object, merely waiting for someone to come upon it. . . . Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting” (p. 42-43). In order to conduct an interpretive and naturalistic inquiry, I attended to Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) strategies of credibility: prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, referential adequacy materials, peer debriefing, and member checking. As described by Erlandson, et al. (1995), qualitative inquiry’s “truth value is described in terms of internal validity, that is, the isomorphic relationship between the data of an inquiry and the phenomena those data represent” (p. 29-30). Naturalistic inquiry does not to assume a single objective reality, therefore part of the task in establishing credibility entailed addressing the strategies listed above.

Now that I have described the methodological approach to the inquiry, I will discuss *what* was studied. Stake (2005) contended, “case study concentrates on experiential knowledge of the case and close attention to the influence of its social, political, and other contexts” (p. 444). Stake (2005) described the case as “a specific, a complex, functioning thing” that “resonates with our own experience because it is more

vivid, concrete, and sensory than abstract” (Stake, 1995, p. 2). Yin (2009) presented a two-fold definition of case study design:

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that
 - investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when
 - the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.
2. The case study inquiry
 - copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
 - relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
 - benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis (p. 18).

Because I planned to pay specific attention to the social and political contexts of the participants’ understandings surrounding 9/11 as an experienced event, and attend to multiple sources of evidence, case study design was therefore a suitable method for answering the scholarly questions posed at the beginning of this section.

Stake (2005) distinguished between intrinsic and instrumental case studies according to the researcher’s interest. Intrinsic cases are studied “primarily because the case represents other cases or because it illustrates a particular trait or problem...” (p.

445). Instrumental cases however, are “examined mainly to provide insight into an issue...” (p. 445). Hinged on interpretive approaches, Stake’s (2005) notions of instrumental case study design are therefore appropriate to understand the meanings preservice teachers have made, and continue to make, concerning 9/11 as an historical event. Furthermore, the investigation of the participants’ thinking processes and decision-making while they created lesson plans centered on 9/11, “[help] us pursue the external interest” (Stake, p. 445) of how a teacher’s historical understanding of an event contributes to her plans for teaching the event.

In this study I define the instrumental case as preservice teachers’ understandings of 9/11. I attend to broader issues that surround the case including:

- Experiencing crisis in schools
- Lesson planning, teacher decision-making, and influences of the social studies methods course on the design of the lesson plans
- Preservice teacher understandings of U.S. citizenship
- How preservice teachers are planning to teach about 9/11 in elementary schools

Specifically, I worked to highlight the participants’ constructions of civic identity and how they intersected with their memories of 9/11.

PARTICIPANTS

Five participants were purposely selected (Patton, 1990) for the study because of their status of successful elementary preservice teachers as evidenced in their university

coursework and field placements. Three of the participants, Sarah, Isabel, and Margaret (pseudonyms) were selected because they were students in a social studies methods course that I taught in a previous semester, and we had already built a strong rapport of trust. Additionally, two of these preservice teachers—Mariana and Carlos (pseudonyms)—participated in a similar pilot study I conducted in 2010, and were selected by convenience because of their shared experiences and unique relationships between themselves and the researcher. This unique group of participants agreed to contribute to the study by providing necessary interviews and showed a keen interest in the opportunity to create a lesson plan about 9/11.

Participants in the pilot study, Mariana and Carlos, were my sixth grade students in 2001 in a talented and gifted elective course for sixth, seventh, and eighth graders. After losing contact with Mariana and Carlos for many years, we reconnected via an online social networking site, and realized we were all attending State University (pseudonym)—they were working toward their Bachelors degrees in elementary education, and I was working on my doctorate. As we reunited and reminisced about our schooling experiences over lunch, Mariana, Carlos, and I almost instantly recalled that we had all experienced 9/11 together in our middle school classroom almost nine years prior. Our reunion over lunch occurred during the semester I was taking a graduate course in social studies education focused on citizenship education.

Carlos

Carlos was granted admission to the university based primarily on his high grades in high school and originally came to study at the business school. Carlos decided he was more interested in education than business, and changed his major after his freshman year. Carlos is a first generation citizen born and raised in Dallas, Texas. Both English and Spanish were spoken in his home growing up, and he was identified for the talented and gifted program in his elementary school. As a sixth grade student, I remember Carlos as a precocious young man, never afraid to ask difficult or controversial questions during class discussions. He was not easily embarrassed and enjoyed learning new things. Carlos participated in an extra-curricular robotics club I sponsored and he took pleasure in staying after school to continue learning.

Mariana

Mariana entered the university at the same time as Carlos and chose to study bilingual education. She hopes to be a bilingual teacher in an elementary school after graduating in May of 2012. Mariana believes it is important to participate in student groups not only to help with future employment possibilities, but also because she believes it is important to make relationships with peers and work together to solve problems:

So it's important to get involved...with the organizations here so that you have a better chance at getting a job and so that we can bond with others like us, and try to fix some of the things that we think are wrong, or need our attention (Mariana, Interview, March 5, 2010).

For these reasons Mariana joined the Bilingual Education Student Organization on her university's campus and remains an active member.

Mariana was born in Mexico and her family immigrated to the U.S. (Dallas, TX) when she was a year old. Her home language is Spanish, and she still visits Mexico often with her family to visit more distant relatives. As a sixth grader Mariana had a calm, quiet personality and as her teacher I specifically remember her tendency to act as caretaker to her friends. As a college student Mariana maintains high grades and looks forward to becoming an elementary bilingual teacher in the Dallas/Fort Worth area.

Mariana and Carlos in 2001

On September 11, 2001 Mariana, Carlos, and I were in a two-story school building in Dallas, Texas that was built in the late 1950's. Edwards Middle School (pseudonym) had a student population of 1,414 and employed 94 teachers. 1,259 (89%) students were Latina/o, 126 (9%) African American, 22 (2%) White, 5 (< 1%) Asian, and 2 (< 1%) Native American (NCES, 2004). In 2001, 74% of the student body was eligible for free or discounted lunch. Edwards Middle School is located in the middle of a wealthy Dallas neighborhood, though most children who lived in the neighborhood attended private schools located elsewhere in the city. The students who attended the school in 2001 were bussed in, or driven by parents, from a low-income, more urbanized neighborhood near a large airport. Most students and their families lived in apartment buildings. Carlos described living in the same apartment his entire life, yet because of continuous re-districting he attended three different elementary schools. He also recalled, "I didn't feel comfortable riding the bus to school...there were always rumors after

school that there might be a drive-by...and it was...such a bad neighborhood then...all the gangs were forming” (Interview, March 5, 2010). Mariana echoed this discomfort when she spoke about her older sister’s stories about the school:

I was in elementary school and my sister was at [Edwards Middle School], so sometimes there would be days when she would say, “Oh, they told us not to go to school today”...as if she was scared or something (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Because of their fears, Mariana and Carlos had their mothers drive them to school whenever possible.

Carlos remembered, “every year during my time at [Edwards Middle School] there was something big that happened” (Interview, March 5, 2010). He recalled specifically three traumatic events (not including 9/11) that happened during his middle school years. In sixth grade he remembered being on lockdown because another student brought a gun to school, in his seventh grade year teachers and students had to evacuate portable classroom buildings because of a student-planted pipe bomb, and when Carlos was in eighth grade, one of his classmates was stabbed and killed on the basketball court (Interview, March 5, 2010). Mariana also remembered these events, and I asked both participants if they felt fearful at school:

Carlos: At first I was [fearful]...

Mariana: I kind of ignored it.

Carlos: Yeah, then as the years went by it was like, ‘oh, it’ll be alright’

Mariana: Yeah. But going to school was scary.

(Interview, March 5, 2010).

It was apparent that Mariana and Carlos experienced feelings of fear throughout their middle school years, and often were scared to come to school, but they also revealed a process of de-sensitization “as the years went by.” As a former teacher at Edwards, I also remember these events and can recall an ever-present feeling of tension and frustration in the three years I taught there. Our interview conversation reminded me of the two metal detectors that rigidly stood in the lobby of our school through which students passed every morning. I oftentimes thought the building more closely resembled a prison than a school.

Carlos: I remember the metal detectors didn’t always work, so I think it was just psychological...they [administrators] just wanted us to feel safe, but we didn’t. I mean, there was one kid that was waiving a gun at the bus stop, and he got on the bus and came right to school. We had to go on lock-down later that day and I knew it was because there was a gun in our school.

Mariana: I remember that. I remember always feeling scared, so when she could, I would have my mom drive me instead of taking the bus. I felt a little safer in my mom’s car. (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Though feelings of fear were the norm at Edwards, Carlos and Mariana saw their neighborhood and school as a place they could eventually escape.

Carlos: I didn’t see my neighborhood as some place I would want to come back to. I mean, even though it was home, it wasn’t where I wanted my adult life to be.

Mariana: I think that's normal though. I think all parents want their kids to have better and safer lives, so I knew with an education I could get out and do that (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Mariana and Carlos were aware that schools in other towns, further away from the urban center of Dallas, had less crime and their schools were not prone to lockdowns, such were common at Edwards.

Sarah

Sarah grew up on the south side of San Antonio, Texas, an urban city with a population of over two million. She loved her elementary school and was heavily involved in extra curricular activities. She participated in choir, Girl Scouts, and other school-based clubs. Early in our first interview, Sarah self-identified as Hispanic but later revealed, "it's complicated to explain—I would describe where my parents' families are from—from Mexico. I would just say 'Mexican' if anything" (Interview, December 20, 2011).

When she was in middle school, Sarah's family moved and she began attending the school where her father was the band director. She participated in band and continued her interest into high school. Sarah's father also moved to the high school and as the new band director, her father encountered some resistance to his different methods. The previous band director had been with Sarah's high school for many years, so Sarah described this as a time when she was conflicted with mixed emotions: "It was not easy to hear people say bad things about your dad," (Interview, December 20, 2011). Aside

from awkward moments that arise when your parent is your teacher, Sarah described her schooling experience as positive.

When we talked about being a citizen of her high school, Sarah described:

It was weird because I felt a part of the classes I was with, but I did not feel a part of the school. I was in AP [Advanced Placement] classes, and we were sort of isolated from the school. At [my high school] graduation I thought, “Wow, I haven’t see most of these people—I have no idea who they are—I had no idea they came to this school,” but I definitely felt with the AP part of the school that I was a member of the class and I was a citizen of the school (Interview, December 20, 2011).

As is common in public high schools, many students that are placed on a higher or “advanced” academic track will seldom have classes with students on “regular” tracks. Sarah described how in high school she viewed extra-curricular memberships such as band, National Honor Society, and academic decathlon, as “her job” (Interview, December 20, 2011).

When she was in high school, Sarah wanted to be a band director:

I actually started [to become a band director], but it’s really tough competition to get into the music school here at State University. I wanted to teach music, but I was not accepted into the school of music. I started to work part-time at YMCA, and then I realized how much I like working with younger kids. I think I always knew I wanted to teach, but not exactly what [content] (Interview, December 20, 2011).

In the social studies methods course I found Sarah to be a thoughtful student, and a bit reserved. She did participate in discussion however, and became interested in the Mexican American Civil Rights Movement while completing a final project for the methods course. Sarah and Isabel were partners on the project, and because of the great work they did on the project, I approached them about participating in this study.

Isabel

Like Sarah, Isabel also grew up on the south side of San Antonio, which she described as being “predominantly Hispanic” (Interview, December 20, 2011), but eventually moved to the west side. She explains how her parents kept her from moving schools:

We lived on the west side and there was no one to take care of me on that side, so that’s why she kept me in the south side schools even though we had moved to the west side. We would use my grandmother’s address [on school records] so that we didn’t have to change schools. I know that’s illegal, but that’s what we did (Interview, December 20, 2011).

Isabel talked about schooling as a positive experience in the early grades, but how that changed when she entered high school. Isabel noticed in high school that other students

would talk negatively about the teachers. There were rumors that we didn’t have the best teachers, but I thought I tried to make the best of it, I guess. I had one teacher that helped, but most didn’t. Because of my hand [deformity] of course, I always had trouble typing, and there was one teacher that somehow put me in the spring semester of her typing class instead of the fall. She had to order a special

typing program for me and it didn't come in until the spring semester, so when I realized that I thought that was very helpful. Any other time in high school, I basically had to make it work. I had to learn on my own, I couldn't just depend on my teachers (Interview, December 20, 2011).

Isabel was used to learning on her own in school, and kept to herself most of the time. She always wanted to be a teacher, from as early as she can remember:

I played school a lot. I would make worksheets for my cousins. I remember asking my [elementary school] teacher if the worksheets I was making for my cousins were too hard [laughs...]. I had a chalkboard, like a whiteboard, and I was always reading to my cousins (Interview, December 20, 2011).

As a university student, I noticed Isabel was slow to speak up in class discussions. She would ponder during class time though, as evidenced by the pensive expression on her face. I noticed Isabel worked well in small group situations and felt more confident speaking up when her audience was smaller.

Isabel talked to me a bit about how people tend to incorrectly make assumptions about who she is and what language she speaks. She admits she is still constructing her sociocultural identity:

I get a little confused with that. My dad would tell me when I was little, "You're Mexican-American," but when I got older it was like it was easier to just say, "I'm Hispanic," but one of my roommates pointed out that she hated that term, I'm not sure why. I do get confused with that but lately I've just been saying Latina and Mexican-American. My great-grandma is from Mexico. My grandma

was born in Chicago and my mom was born in San Antonio, so I guess I'm third generation (Interview, December 20, 2011).

I asked Isabel how people assume things about her before they get to know her and she shared:

I'll go somewhere and people will think, "Oh, she speaks Spanish," I guess because of the way I look, but in fact, I don't. I understand [why people think that], but I can't speak it as well. I used to work at [a bookstore] in [a shopping center] and sometimes they would call me on the intercom and would expect me to be able to translate, but I couldn't. People would label me before they would get to know me. Even here at the university, the adviser was going to put me in bilingual education, and she looked at me and said, "Wait, you speak Spanish, right?" So I had to tell her that I don't want to be in bilingual education. Even in a class I took here in the summer, the professor assumed I was in bilingual education. People make assumptions about me just by the color of my skin. I've even had people assume I was from India, because I am a little darker.

Isabel voiced her frustration about assumptions others make about her, yet she continually goes back to a rationalizing way of thinking when she says, "I understand."

Margaret

Margaret is a non-traditional university student and her K-12 schooling experience was negative overall. She describes herself as located in a privileged space at State University while simultaneously raising a child, thankful for government and local financial assistance programs. Margaret attests that non-traditional and varied

educational (traditional and non-traditional) choices made her more critical of the world around her, and more empathetic to others. She described how she thinks her experiences will contribute to her effectiveness as a teacher:

I got into [the field of] education when I had my daughter. When I got pregnant with her I said, “I’m not going to be able to provide for my family when I have my daughter if I’m an anthropologist,” I mean, to do that kind of work I would have had to get a doctorate. So I fell into education but I couldn’t love it more. I think it worked out so great. I’m quirky, I have a good sense of humor, I can relate to kids, they are just kind of drawn to me. I think kids remember the teachers they had who were fun, who listened to what they had to say, who weren’t negative. I think because of my [negative] experiences I’ll be able to more effectively assess the way I’m talking to kids. I’m a pretty reflective person, and I know the most mundane moment in a teacher’s life could define a kid’s future. So I think that’s why I chose education and why I’m in the field now, even though I’m not the traditional teacher that wanted to be a teacher ever since I was little (Interview, January 20, 2012).

During her last couple of years in high school Margaret began saving for a trip to California. She saved up \$3000 and arranged to live with extended family on the west coast to pursue her music. While in California, Margaret decided she wanted to gain residency and began taking courses at the local community college where she—for the first time—felt successful.

I think my California experience was a turning point for me, for my self esteem too. I never thought of myself as a smart person. In high school I never had that push, I never remember anyone telling me to try. There was only one teacher in high school that believed in me, but there were some controversies...I just really didn't have a lot of respect for my teachers (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Margaret describes herself as White, and adds

I would say that I lived a privileged life. When I was five we moved into the suburbs. I feel like my school experience could have been better, but I know there are those out there who have had worse, much worse, experiences than me. But I also think I can identify with what it is like to struggle financially. I live in a government subsidized non-profit community right now that provides free financial advisory. It provides advice for buying a home and going to school and things like that. So as far as that, I do identify with a low-income community (Interview, December 20, 2012).

Because Margaret was not pushed to consider college before graduating from high school, she relied on herself to create other goals. Ultimately, her choices led her back to Texas to pursue her education degree.

Margaret was my student in the social studies methods course in the fall of 2011. She was a vocal participant in class, quick to share her thoughts during whole group discussion. Margaret would take on a leadership role when working in small groups, though always eliciting more participation from her group members. I was pleased to learn that Margaret was placed in a fifth grade social studies classroom for her second

internship field experience, and will remain in this classroom during her student teaching in the fall of 2012. I will expand on the details of Margaret's field placement opportunity in Chapter 4, and how it played a part in answering the third question in this study.

STATE UNIVERSITY'S TEACHER EDUCATION PREPARATION PROGRAM

Elementary education students at the university obtain a bachelors degree in Applied Learning and Development and take a state certification exam that certifies them to teach grade levels EC-6 (preschool through sixth grade). The preservice teachers follow a *cohort* model in which they are placed in groups of 20-25 and take all of their classes together. They begin the Professional Development Sequence (PDS) at State University in the second semester of their junior year. Coursework leading up to the PDS includes core content in liberal arts and humanities, natural sciences and mathematics, and children's literature. Because preservice teachers are working toward a state certification that includes an English as a Second Language (ESL) endorsement, they must also complete the following "major coursework" before gaining admission to the PDS: cognition, human learning, and motivation (or play in early childhood development); individual differences; sociocultural influences on learning; acquisitions of languages and literacies; child, adolescent, and adult health; and children's movement.

During the three-semester PDS preservice teachers complete two semester-long fieldwork internships (one and a half days the first semester, and two full school days the second semester) as well as a semester of student teaching. Courses taken concurrently during the first internship semester include content-based methods courses in social studies and language arts, along with guiding young children in groups, applied human

learning, and reading assessment and development. The second internship semester offers math, reading, and science methods courses coupled with school organization and classroom management. In the final student teaching semester, the university students are placed in a local elementary school and must also enroll in the teaching English as a second language course.

I have worked as a Teaching Assistant at State University in many of the courses described above, and have served as Assistant Instructor for the elementary social studies methods course for four semesters utilizing historical thinking as a tool for critical understanding. I have also acted as facilitator (supervisor) for intern and student teachers from three different cohorts, allowing close, personal relationships to be formed between the preservice teachers and myself. Preservice teachers are placed in local schools within the large, urban school district, and because the ultimate goal involves successful completion of the elementary ESL state exam, all schools utilized for field placements must house a student ESL population of at least twenty percent (20%). In their field placements, preservice teachers are required to create and enact lesson plans in all content areas, as observed by the cohort facilitator. I was the elementary social studies methods course instructor when Isabel, Sarah, and Margaret enrolled in the course in the fall of 2011. Mariana and Carlos however, took the social studies methods course in the spring semesters of 2011 and 2012, respectively, and both had different instructors. I did not facilitate any of the participants' field experiences, nor did I observe them teach in their respective field placement campuses.

HISTORICAL THINKING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS COURSE

For decades researchers have studied teacher cognition and the intricacies involved with how teachers make curricular decisions in a profession that is described as “impossible” (Shulman, 1983) and “unforgivingly complex” (Cochran-Smith, 2003). Because decision-making is fundamental to a teacher’s practice, and given the weight of its effects on student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000), it becomes important to give scholarly attention to the ways in which teachers negotiate and make curricular decisions concerning content. Ultimately, to address the essential aforementioned frameworks as they contribute to a more critical understanding of citizenship education, it is necessary to examine the research on teacher thinking and how it relates to the teaching of citizenship and critical historical investigation.

Shulman’s (1986) seminal work in teacher cognition and pedagogical reasoning set out at least three domains of teacher knowledge that include subject-matter content knowledge (what a teacher knows about a subject and how she organizes this knowledge), pedagogical content knowledge (what a teacher knows about how to effectively teach this subject matter), and curricular knowledge (what a teacher knows about pulling useful resources for teaching and making connections between and across subject areas). These domains help conceptualize the many facets of teacher cognition as they overlap and intersect in relation to the content area that is taught, the pedagogical strategies utilized in practice, and the resources from which a teacher draws in order to merge a particular pedagogical content knowledge. Ultimately, Shulman conceptualizes these unique intersections as pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and calls for more

rich and descriptive case studies so that we can come to understand teachers' movement from knowing to doing.

Extending Shulman's scholarship on PCK, Grant's (2003) work on ambitious teaching expanded the social studies field's discussion on teacher decision-making. Grant suggests ambitious teaching and learning develop when three things are happening: 1) when teachers know their content, 2) when teachers know their students, and 3) when teachers know how to create the space they and their students need (p. xi). Scholars have used this work to examine how social studies teachers have worked to circumvent the effects of state level exams, and to show how these exams may not be an effective lever on teachers' practices (Gradwell, 2006; Salinas, 2006).

Generally speaking, historical thinking is considered as the ability to reflect, synthesize, and construct understandings based on evidence (Salinas, Bellows, & Liaw, 2011). Bruce VanSledright (2002) describes historical thinking as an act that “produces the sort of understanding of the past exhibited by those with deep experience sorting through it” by “[requiring] a complex regimen of investigative techniques” (p. 6). These investigative techniques should attend to at least six different elements, as outlined by Seixas (1993): significance (understanding what events in the past are important and why), epistemology (how people know about the past), and an understanding of the decisions people in the past have made via perceptions of agency, empathy, and moral judgment. Investigating history then, as an evidentiary trail, requires a critical process of identification, attribution, perspective judgment, and reliability assessment when examining any primary source (VanSledright, 2004).

There has been a surge of research in the field that addresses historical thinking in multiple contexts. For example, Barton (2001) and Levstik & Barton's (2008, 2011) work has been instrumental in understanding students' and teachers' thinking processes and promoting the use of historical thinking in elementary school classrooms. Stearnes, Seixas, & Wineburg (2000) have made a collection of studies available that attend to the important intersections between historical thinking and sociocultural context, and Terrie Epstein (2009) outlined the complexities of intersecting discussions of race while investigating history in diverse classrooms. Finally, a great deal of energy has been dedicated toward understanding how preservice teachers make sense of teaching history, and how their sense-making can be dramatically altered through the use of historical thinking (Doppen & Tesar, 2008; Fragnoli, 2005; Seixas, 1998; Yeager & Wilson, 1997).

In the social studies methods course preservice teachers are allowed a great deal of time to *think historically* through the examination of primary sources via document based questioning. Additionally, the participants in this study practiced utilizing historical thinking as a tool in their methods courses by selecting a topic, event, or historical figure that is typically not represented in the curriculum in order to learn in more nuanced and critical ways—via the investigation of primary source documents—about their selected topic/event/person. The investigation culminates into a student-created journey box (see Labbo & Field, 1999) complete with a narrative summary, primary sources, and artifacts that help teach about the selected topic. The hope is that not only will preservice teachers have a ready-made resource to take into their first classroom, but that the participation in the project strengthens their historical thinking

skills. In this study I attend to the aforementioned foundational work as preservice teacher participants attempt to combine their curricular decision-making skills with notions of historical thinking by creating lesson plans about 9/11.

DATA COLLECTION

I sought answers to the aforementioned research questions through the collection of multiple data sources including responsive interviews (Rubin & Rubin, 2005), think-aloud lesson planning sessions, analytic memos, and curricular artifacts (such as published curriculum, participant-created lesson plans, and any documents that accompany these lesson plans). Below I will describe each data source in further detail. Following this section I will explain the methods used to analyze the data, the role of the researcher, and ethical considerations for the study. I conclude the chapter by outlining limitations of the study.

Responsive Interviews

Individual responsive interviews comprised the majority of the data collected for the study. The interviews were semi-structured, and preliminary interviews informed subsequent interviews. Rubin & Rubin (2005) describe responsive interviewing as “an approach that allows a variety of styles yet incorporates what is standard in the field” (p. 15). They go on to clarify that responsive interviewers “begin a project with a topic in mind but recognize that they will modify their questions to match the knowledge and interests of the interviewees” (p. 15). Furthermore, Rubin & Rubin (2005) outline characteristics of the responsive interviewing model that

relies heavily on the interpretive constructionist philosophy, mixed with a bit of critical theory and then shaped by the practical needs of doing interviews. The model emphasizes that the interviewer and interviewee are both human beings...and that they form a relationship during the interview that generates ethical obligations for the interviewer...The third characteristic of responsive interviewing is that the design of the research remains flexible throughout the project (p. 30).

I was flexible in meeting the needs of the participants as they were completing their undergraduate degrees by attending classes, working in their field placements in elementary schools or student teaching, and working part-time jobs. Throughout the study the participants did not hesitate to look to me as a mentor, and oftentimes our conversations were about personal or academic issues and not just the dissertation study. The responsive interview model therefore, was an ideal choice for collecting data of this type.

Meeting the criteria for an instrumental case study, further critical investigation (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2000) of the participants' experiences attempted to "connect the everyday troubles individuals face to public issues of power, justice and democracy" (p. 289). I examined participant perceptions of their schooling experiences in order to specifically contextualize the study. Participants were asked to remember how they felt about attending school, and of course about their feelings as they witnessed the events of 9/11 unfold. In his study *The Edwardians*, Thompson (2000) found that while a narrator in his study might confuse specific details (about where her father came from, for

example), her memories about her *feelings* for her father were consistent over three different interviews. During the second interview participants were given primary source documents highlighting the events of 9/11, such as newspaper headlines and photographs, in order to spur feelings, memories, and conversation about experiencing 9/11.

Interviews were digitally recorded via audio recorder, and each interview lasted approximately 45-90 minutes. (See Appendix A for interview protocols.) Interviews were scheduled at the end of the fall semester, 2011, and subsequent interviews and think-alouds were scheduled in January and February, 2012. Participants were working through their internships and student teaching placements in the spring semester of 2012 and I worked flexibly with each of them to allow for maximum participant convenience.

Think-Aloud Lesson Plan Design

Because participants in the study are elementary preservice teachers, it is important they become successful at designing effective lessons to use in all content areas. As a social studies methods instructor and critical researcher, I advocate for the use of best practices in social studies instruction to include Seixas's (1993) notions of historical knowledge and understanding, as well as VanSledright's (1997) consideration of historical positionality when teaching about history. Participants were asked to create and submit a lesson plan that teaches elementary students about 9/11 via historical thinking methods.

Think-alouds are a means of process tracing or stimulated recall that "use verbal reports as data bearing on the cognitive processes of teachers, and they assume that teachers are able and willing to articulate their thought processes" (Shavelson & Stern,

1981, p. 458). It was my intention to probe and discuss the participants' thinking as they worked to design a lesson plan for elementary students.

Prior to data collection, participants completed an elementary social studies methods course that paid particular attention to teaching via historical thinking inquiry through the use of document-based questions. They were asked to follow any lesson plan template they chose, or they were allowed to create their own, but I asked that the lesson plan included social studies objectives (including history, citizenship, geography, sociology, etc.) either as outlined by their state or by the National Council for the Social Studies. While participants designed lesson plans about 9/11, researcher and participant discussion was audio-recorded in order to document the participants' understandings of teaching about an historical event they witnessed (via media) as children. Finally, I scheduled follow-up interviews with each participant to ask any lingering questions and to allow for participant reflection.

DATA ANALYSIS

I strived for validity and credibility by attending appropriately to Denzin's (1978) notions of triangulation to confirm constructed findings. Memories from the preservice teachers' interviews were checked with the official memory in order to utilize multiple methods of data collection. Multiple sources of data included interview transcripts, think-aloud transcripts, analytic memos, and participants' lesson plans.

Interviews and think-alouds were digitally recorded and transcribed by the researcher. Transcripts were manually coded and analyzed them as Miles and Huberman

(1984) suggest by noting patterns and themes, arriving at comparisons and contrasts, and determining conceptual explanations of the study. Member checks (or respondent validation) were conducted throughout the course of the study in order to “take [my] preliminary analysis back to...the participants and ask whether [my] interpretation ‘rings true’” (Merriam, 2009, p. 217). Finally, as suggested by Lincoln & Guba (2000), I attended to my own positionality through “reflecting critically on the self as researcher, the ‘human as instrument’” (p. 183). Recognizing I also have emotional connections to 9/11, this reflexive process was especially important. Finally, carefully attended to Geertz’s (1973) notions of “thick description” in the retelling of participants’ memories and think-aloud vignettes. This allowed for support of proposed findings and conclusions.

ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

I approached the proposed study recognizing that I am part of the dominant teacher demographic (Howard, 1999). I am a White female who grew up in a suburban neighborhood and most of my classmates, teachers, and friends looked like me. School worked for me. My teachers’ backgrounds matched my own, and I could always see myself becoming a teacher. My sociocultural identity continued to solidify as I attended college and majored in elementary education, where again, my classmates and professors looked like me. My internship and student teaching semesters were spent in more diverse and lower socioeconomic neighborhoods than those I was accustomed to. I wholeheartedly believe my lack of experience socializing with people different from myself as I was forming my sociocultural identity, coupled with deficit thinking notions (Valencia,

1997) perpetuated in my teacher education courses, set me up for failure when I began my teaching career.

When I began teaching in Dallas, Texas, I was completely unprepared—more than just not having had time to set up a classroom or look through the curriculum—I showed up on my first day in January with *nothing* other than my purse and a bag full of writing utensils and paper. I was a “floating” teacher (I had no classroom), I had three preps (two sixth grade, two seventh grade, and one eighth grade sheltered math class), and all of my students had been in the U.S. for less than a year (they were of Mexican decent and spoke Spanish). I had no English Language Learner teaching strategies to use, nor did I have an effective way to communicate with my students. I reflected on visions of the imaginary classroom I had created in my bedroom as a little girl, the classrooms in which I was a student, and the classrooms in which I later did my internships and student teaching as a young adult—and all of these visions were in sharp contrast to the small portable buildings in which I taught the first year I started teaching.

Over the three years I spent in the Dallas middle school, I got to know my students and their families very well. I volunteered to teach an after school robotics course so my students could stay more hours at school. I drove many of them home (which I’m sure was against the law), and I took them to compete in academic competitions. Over time I felt I had become somewhat successful at teaching other people’s children (Delpit, 1995) and forged strong relationships with my students and their families. After teaching those first three years however, I slowly became angry and frustrated at the glaring inequities between my schooling and teaching experiences. I

started to become critical of everything within the district (curriculum, teachers, administration, policies, etc.) and became much more aware of the blatant discrepancies between education and the institution of schooling.

I still carry these critical notions with me and they permeate my studies and research agenda. It was important throughout the proposed study to continue critical reflection and explicitly attend to the epistemological differences between researcher and participants. As the primary instrument of data collection I intend to expose my sociocultural and experiential biases and recognize I will be interpreting questions I do and do not ask, sympathies I do and do not have, and experiences I can and cannot relate to. I wholly understand these biases and sociocultural differences and take responsibility for all that will be unintentionally left out of the study.

THE ORDER OF THINGS

I thought about the order in which I was laying out the data and analysis in this dissertation, and became aware that I organized the work in a fairly consistent pattern. I oftentimes wrote about Mariana and Carlos first. I reflected on this and quickly realized that as my pilot participants, I always viewed Mariana and Carlos as a team. They have been roommates for a couple of years, they are very close friends, and they were both my students in 2001 and 2002. They have come to my apartment together, we have gone to lunch together, and when I text them, I tend to text them together. We experienced 9/11 together, in our school, and that continues to bind us. I feel a certain amount of responsibility for Mariana and Carlos, I call them “my babies,” and I hope to watch them

blossom into effective, caring teachers. I think another reason Mariana and Carlos come first in my description of the data is because of their age. They were only twelve years old on September 11, 2001, and perhaps the sequential and logical side of me prefers a certain age order when reporting the data.

Isabel and Sarah tended to come next, and I think I had reasons for this as well. Both Isabel and Sarah were in my fall 2011 section of the elementary social studies methods class and chose to do their final journey box project together. I suppose this allowed me to think of Isabel and Sarah as a team as well. Finally, Margaret, though also a student in my methods course with Isabel and Sarah, stood out to me as the most non-traditional preservice teacher in the study. She is a little older than the traditional student (she was in the 10th grade in 2001), and she is the only participant in the study who is a parent. I viewed her as having a different, unique interpretation of this project because of these reasons. Regardless of my reasoning, the way I organized this manuscript was in no way meant for one participant's voice seem more important than the others.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Understanding that “validity is a goal rather than a product” (Maxwell, 2005) it proves important to outline the limitations to this, as there is with every, qualitative study. As Yow (2005) describes memory recall in qualitative research:

[A] narrator may describe the memory differently with different cues or, in other words, reconstruct it differently when responding to different needs. . . The recording of a memory from the beginning preserves a *partial* record because we

cannot take in every detail in a scene and therefore take in only what seems significant to us (p. 37-38).

I therefore probed participants in search of the meanings they have made about experiencing 9/11 as students, and I attempted to convey the significance they have constructed surrounding the event through the retelling of their memories.

Because of the ubiquity of 9/11 during and since the events that occurred over ten years ago, it was important to attend to the critiques of collective memory, which include official memory and popular memory, as well as the power of the media in the creation of popular memory. Yow (2005) defines an official memory as “a version advanced by a group or person in a position of officially sanctioned power” (p. 54). A popular memory on the other hand, “is a version held by a group of people who do not necessarily possess power. . . but who have shared an experience” (Yow, 2005, p. 54). Because print and television media are ultimately controlled by persons in positions of power, newspaper and video footage of 9/11—as well as textbook narratives—were interpreted as “official” memory. Participant interviews then, were interpreted as “popular” memory. Finally, because popular memory instilled by the media affects personal memory (Lipsitz, 1990) I asked participants to critique early media coverage of the events that occurred on September 11, 2001, understanding that “how people view their past is always grounded in their experience, but how they frame their remembrances depends on the social context” (Irwin-Zarecka, 1994, p. 56).

Another limitation of the study exposes the lack of student knowledge for which the lesson plans will be designed. Though the preservice teachers were completing

internships or student teaching at the time of the lesson design, it was not guaranteed (nor expected) that they create an opportunity to teach the lesson plan in their field placements. I hope to remain in contact with the participants and to offer pedagogical or professional assistance as they begin their teaching careers, though communication of this type will be left to the discretion of the participants. I hope to conduct an extension of the study can be enacted in the years that follow if and when the participants choose to implement the lesson they designed for this study in their future classrooms.

Chapter 4. Results

In the previous chapter I described the case to be studied and the participants in greater detail. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the research questions presented at the beginning of the study. I answer each question by describing each theme generally and then draw from specific empirical examples that contributed to the construction of each. As expected in a qualitative study, not all participant accounts could be generalized within the themes presented below, but all participants contributed in various ways, or levels, toward answering each research question.

QUESTION 1: WHAT ARE PRESERVICE TEACHERS' MEMORIES OF PUBLIC/NATIONAL CRISES AND THE SURROUNDING EVENTS OF 9/11 AS THEY EXPERIENCED THEM AS STUDENTS?

Though the preservice teachers in this study were adolescents in the fall of 2001, their memories of the attacks on September 11 were vivid and fresh. I found it was easy for participants to recall the moment they learned about the attacks on the World Trade Center, Pentagon, and crash of United Flight 93, while they were in school. Each was able to describe in detail the barrage of images seen on television, the sounds they heard (on television and within the schools), and the feelings associated with these memories. All participants could recall and describe their physical surroundings at the moment in which they learned about the attacks.

At some point during their memory recall, Mariana and Carlos, who both attended Edwards Middle School on 9/11, talked about students in their class (sometimes including themselves) who asked teachers to turn off the television. Whether or not to continue live streaming of the events was a decision many teachers had to make that day, and the participants in this study discussed the complexities surrounding this decision. Margaret remembered specifically that observing the events unfolding on 9/11 was used as a *privilege* in her classroom, as long as students *did not talk* while the television was on. All participants remembered watching the television in school that day, and none remember a thorough discussion about what they were watching. Another finding reveals participants' memories of a collective feeling of fear. I use Ben-Porath's notion of *shared doom* in order to make sense of participants' recollections of teacher and student predictions of more localized terrorist threats.

Vivid Memories Involve Adult Reactions and Classmate Reactions

All participants remembered specific actions their teachers and classmates took on the morning of September 11, 2001. In their recollections, the future educators were looking to their teachers as respondents in order to make their own decisions about what to think and how to feel. Mariana recalled:

I was in math class in first period. We always had the TV on to watch the morning announcements, but that morning we saw George Bush on CNN. [The newscasters] kept coming back on the TV saying, "oh they hit this"...and we just kept seeing the replay again. We didn't really have class. We just watched it.

Our teacher was in shock, she said something like, “Oh my god I can’t believe this happened.” We were asking why this happened, and she was telling us...I remember she said, “I’ve never seen anything like this.” I remember being in class, and then [the teacher] said, “I can’t see it anymore,” she said, “ok, they’re just showing the same thing over and over...and we need to start class.” We had been watching it for about 30 minutes...and then we turned [the television] off and everyone else in the hall...all the other classrooms had their doors open...and I guess they had it [turned up] loud...and I remember it got *louder*, the volume on the TV, and then [our teacher] turned it back on...and it was because the first tower had fallen (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Mariana talked specifically about the difficulty her teacher had in deciding whether or not to keep the television on or to turn it off and “start class.” She also remembered the volume of the television as vivid in her memories of 9/11. Mariana’s memories exhibit a lack of agency in whether or how students in her school were exposed to the events that unfolded on 9/11. Instead, teachers were making decisions about whether to allow students to watch news coverage, and for how long. Mariana remembered seeing the television in one classroom streaming live coverage for several days in a row.

Carlos was in a 6th grade social studies class on the morning of September 11. Carlos’s memories echoed Mariana’s when he described what he remembered about 9/11.

I was in sixth grade English class and our TV was on every morning for the announcements. My teacher was pretty calm about it because she was a history

teacher. I guess she was thinking, “You’ve got to remember,” she was giving us background information, telling us that nothing like this had ever really happened before, and how this was going to change history. I remember we just kind of sat there for a long time. We watched it over and over, and [the students] were all talking to each other, like, “what’s going on?” There was someone in my class that said, “I have an aunt that lives in New York,” and this girl was freaking out. I don’t remember who she was, but it was a girl and she was really upset. I remember her just crying and crying. None of us knew what to do except just watch (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Like Mariana, Carlos remembered teacher and student reactions on that Tuesday morning, specifically one classmate that was crying about a family member. More than they talked about the planes and the attacks, Mariana and Carlos spoke about the teachers and students they remembered and how they were behaving in the midst of the tragedy.

Isabel also remembered the sounds of students crying in her middle school:

In Spanish [class], there was a girl crying, and I think she was just scared. That’s when my Spanish teacher started saying, “ok, it’s a terrorist attack” and I think he was the one who said we have to be careful now, because anyone can be a target. And that’s when it hit me that this was serious (Interview, January 17, 2012).

Sarah could not recall any students crying, but she vividly remembered her high school biology teacher’s reaction:

I remember going to biology and my teacher was crying because she had family in New York. She told us she was scared, that she had family there. I remember her stepping out into the hallway to cry, and that day just came to a complete stop. Nothing was going to happen in school that day (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Though the other participants recalled emotional reactions of students and teachers alike, Margaret's experience was quite different. She was living in San Angelo, Texas, a city Margaret refers to as a "small town." She recalled from her sophomore year in high school:

I woke up and [coverage of the attacks] was on the news. I remember seeing the image of the [World Trade Center] tower, and the plane had crashed into the side, and you know, the smoke. I asked my mom, "What happened?" My mom said the word "terrorism" and I distinctly remember thinking, "What is that? What does that mean?" I remember getting to school and two of my teachers, my math teacher and my history teacher had their televisions on, and they just wanted us to watch the news. A lot of kids were just talking, doing whatever, they didn't really care to watch. Our teachers got really angry because we were not taking things seriously enough I guess, so they turned the televisions off. From my perspective, I walked into class, these planes had crashed into a building, and there wasn't really any conversation—we didn't really talk about it. I was trying to watch, I obviously didn't want anybody's family to feel in pain, and I certainly felt angst and I kind of felt under attack, but I definitely didn't have enough prior

knowledge to assimilate that into my own schema. So I didn't know what was going on (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Margaret expressed a desire to be informed about the national events and hoped for extended news coverage and explanations, but her teachers did not facilitate a conversation to help students make sense of what they were watching, or worse, they turned off the coverage and attempted to return to routines of a normal school day.

Student Needs Ignored

All participants related different needs they had on 9/11. At some point during that Tuesday, a few students began vocalizing their feelings, needs, and questions. For example, Mariana remembered a student asking the teacher to turn off the television:

I remember being in class and somebody said...I don't remember who it was, but, I remember somebody said, "Why do they keep showing this, why don't we just turn it off?" ...And [teachers] all kept the televisions on the rest of the day, in every class. We could have just focused on school work, something we were used to doing. I would have wanted them to be able to tell me why this was happening, but I don't think even our teachers knew (Interview, March 5, 2010).

In Mariana's case, the confusion and curiosity of the teachers seemed to take precedence over student needs. Carlos also remembered one teacher at Edwards was allowing students to call home and talk to their parents, or go home early. "Our teacher made us more fearful because she told us if we had cell phones we could use them to call home.

She didn't need to say that. We were all fine" (Interview, Carlos, October 13, 2010). Carlos may not have understood that some students felt a need to talk to their parents. Indeed, people across the country reached out to their loved ones for comfort and security. Isabel began to worry when students were allowed to call home:

Some kids were calling home and getting picked up, and that made me worry. But I didn't get picked up, I just took the bus home. I saw some of my other friends taking the bus home, so I just stuck with them. I just felt safer there at school with my friends. I am shy, I observe more than I question, so I just held a lot of my fear and worry inside (Interview, January 17, 2012).

Similarly, Sarah recalled that it was the teachers' reactions that guided the students' reactions, whether that was to calm, inform, or unnerve. When we spoke about the kinds of questions students were asking, she recalled:

Sarah: I definitely remember students asking questions. I think a lot of it was, "Will we have school tomorrow?"—but also, "What's going on?" and "Should we be worried?"

EB: so would you say you were looking to your teachers to figure out how you should react?

Sarah: Yes, that is exactly what I would say. That's what we were doing.

In these instances, students expressed a need for more information, from discussion—not necessarily from the news, or for their teachers to return to some semblance of *normalcy*

by ceasing television coverage of the events. Some recognized that their teachers may have been as shocked, confused, and fearful as they were. None of the participants felt their personal needs were met on 9/11, and they felt that their teachers exacerbated feelings of fear or confusion.

Shared Doom

All participants remembered fearing of an attack in their city on 9/11. Interestingly, these fears were not initially constructed by students, but by their teachers. Mariana and Carlos were especially fearful because their school was very close to a large airport in Dallas, Texas. Mariana described,

Then I remember [the teacher] said, “Well, you never know when something else might happen,” and then we started talking about all these reasons why Dallas might be a target. It was scary because the teacher was letting everyone talk about it, she didn’t tell us, “oh, you guys are being silly, that would be crazy,” she just looked scared and kept nodding her head like, “yes, that could happen, it would not surprise me” (Interview, March 5, 2010).

Carlos remembered another teacher at Edwards voicing concern about Dallas being a potential target:

My teacher was talking about the different places that could be hit, the possibilities, and she said that Dallas is a definite possibility to be hit by a plane,

and that freaked me out. We lived right next to a major airport, so I was really scared (Carlos, March 5, 2010).

From my personal memories having taught at Edwards Middle School for three years, hearing airplanes flying close to Dallas-Love Field Airport was common in classrooms. In the days after 9/11, when planes were grounded, students and teachers were acutely aware of the uncomfortable silence. The silence was an eerie reminder of the planes-as-missiles that had attacked our country.

Isabel and Sarah, both living in San Antonio in 2001, and Margaret, who was living in San Angelo, were all located geographically close to Texas military Air Force Bases.

Our teachers reminded us we have so many military bases in San Antonio, I think there was some fear we would be a target. We felt like maybe that could happen here—there's Kelly Air Force Base, Randolph, there are four [Air Force Bases] in San Antonio. I lived right next to Kelly AFB, and I think we were a little more scared in San Antonio than maybe people were in other cities [in Texas] (Sarah, Interview, January 20, 2012).

Margaret recalled,

[The teachers] brought up the Air Force Base in San Angelo. I think they derived a list of possible targets and I think we were number five because that's where all of the intelligence—soldiers that have intelligence jobs—that's where they all go.

So I think there was this unofficial list of possible targets and San Angelo was on it (Margaret, Interview, January 20, 2012).

Unlike Margaret and Sarah, Isabel was not as concerned about the safety of the nearby Air Force Bases. She was more fearful of the potential attack of a structure that stands in downtown San Antonio, called the Tower of the Americas. The tower is a tourist attraction that has an observation deck with a 360-degree view of the city and a restaurant at the top level. Isabel was concerned that the *name* of the structure might be attractive to terrorists as a potential target, because of her teacher's comments.

The teacher started talking about how San Antonio could be a target because we have the Tower of the Americas. That's when I kind of realized that this was pretty serious. I guess I just didn't know what the Twin Towers were so it took a while for me to understand what was going on. My Spanish teacher started saying, "It's a terrorist attack," and I think he was the one who said we have to be more careful now because anyone can be a target. And that's when it hit me that this was serious (Isabel, Interview, January 17, 2012).

The fear these preservice teachers felt about the Tower of the Americas, or of an Air Force Base near their city, or of a major airport becoming terrorist targets, were all initiated by teachers, from what the participants remember.

When I asked what teachers could have done to help children feel safer, or what they thought teachers should have done, two answers were provided. Carlos, Mariana,

and Isabel all suggested teachers should have informed them of the events, but they preferred television coverage be stopped. They critiqued the actions of teachers who amplified fear through emotional reactions and predictions about potential targets in their city. Margaret and Sarah however, were fine watching television coverage of the event, but needed to talk about what was happening. These two participants expressed a desire for more student and teacher dialogue. Perhaps because Sarah and Margaret were both in high school at the time, in the 9th and 10th grades respectively, their needs for discussion and information trumped the desire for a normative routine. Unlike Sarah and Margaret, the other participants were in middle school and remembered yearning for a calm, “typical” school day.

The preservice teachers remembered feeling most fearful when emotions were amplified (by teachers or students) and when conversation centered around potential additional targets that might include their Texas cities. All participants described feeling better when they were *doing* something on and after 9/11. For example, though Margaret longed to have conversations about the events with her teachers, it helped ease her fear to get back to the normalcy of the school day with lessons and work. Mariana recalled making ribbons for students to wear to remember victims in the days after the attacks. Sarah remembered playing a more meaningful and poignant rendition of the National Anthem at football games following 9/11, and Margaret affixed magnets of flags and “support the troops” ribbons on her car. In the next section I will expand on the participants’ notions of citizenship as they intersected with their memories of 9/11.

QUESTION 2: WHAT CONNECTIONS (IF ANY) EXIST BETWEEN PRESERVICE TEACHERS' MEMORIES OF CRISIS AND UNDERSTANDINGS ABOUT THE CONSTRUCTION OF CITIZENSHIP?

I noticed three patterns in the second set of interview data that helped answer this question. First, all participants described “good” citizenship as a combination of rights and responsibilities, though they were able to describe more examples of civic responsibilities than individual or group rights. Second, notions of citizenship seemed to be complicated, or interrupted, when viewing civic responsibilities through the lens of crises, specifically, the events surrounding 9/11. Finally, September 11 was treated by the participants as a special case, a watershed moment that necessitated a different way of thinking about citizenship.

Unsophisticated and Evolving Understandings of Citizenship

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) suggested a framework of three kinds of citizens based on the results of their 2-year study of ten programs in the U.S. that aimed to advance the democratic purposes of education. The researchers effectively described differing perspectives on the controversial topic of citizenship education from leftist, more liberal views to rightist, more conservative ones. Ultimately, Westheimer and Kahne (2004) highlight differences in citizens they describe as *personally responsible*, *participatory*, and *justice-oriented* (see Table 1). The authors show how the *personally responsible* citizen receives the most authentic attention in civic education, and they assert, “In a very real sense, youth seem to be ‘learning’ that citizenship does not require

democratic governments, politics, or even collective endeavors” (Westheimer & Kahne, 2004, p. 244). I used the authors’ Kinds of Citizens framework in order to analyze data from the conversations I had with participants about their understandings of citizenship.

Personally responsible	Participatory	Justice-oriented
<i>Description</i>		
Acts responsibly in his/her community	Active member of community organizations and/or improvement efforts	Critically assesses social, political, and economic structures to see beyond surface causes
Works and pays taxes	Organizes community efforts to care for those in need, promote economic development, or clean up environment	Seeks out and addresses areas of injustice
Obeys laws	Knows how government agencies work	Knows about democratic social movements and how to effect systemic change
Recycles, gives blood	Knows strategies for accomplishing collective tasks	
Volunteers to lend a hand in times of crisis		
<i>Sample Action</i>		
Contributes food to a food drive	Helps to organize a food drive	Explores why people are hungry and acts to solve root causes
<i>Core Assumptions</i>		
To solve social problems and improve society, citizens must have good character; they must be honest, responsible, and law-abiding members of the community.	To solve social problems and improve society, citizens must actively participate and take leadership positions within established systems and community structures.	To solve social problems and improve society, citizens must question, debate, and change established systems and structures that reproduce patterns of injustice over time.

Table 1: Kinds of Citizens (*Adapted from Westheimer and Kahne, 2004*).

All participants in this study described citizenship in personally responsible ways, such as following laws, getting along with others, and having a job in order to contribute (via taxes and other ways) to society. For example, Sarah described being a citizen as

obeying the laws, having a job, and paying taxes. I also think it means knowing how we have to work together, like to give to the school, give to the city, then you can understand how to give to the country. Just because you're one person, you're feeding into the bigger picture, so you have to do your part (Interview, Sarah, December 20, 2011).

Using Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) categories of citizenship, Sarah's description of citizenship fits nicely in the personally responsible category. Similarly, Isabel explained what being a good citizen meant to her:

Being a citizen means you are accepted as a person living here, to have the same values as everyone else. Everyone has the same values. They say we're free to do everything, so as a citizen you can use that freedom to speak your mind, you just are accepted for who you are. Because that's what they say—they value our diversity (Interview, Isabel, December 20, 2012).

I was intrigued with Isabel's thinking, and pushed her a bit further about the third-person narrative she used:

EB: and is that how you see everything playing out?

I: No, it's not how I see things playing out.

EB: And when you say, “they say,” who do you mean as “they?”

I: I mean teachers, people in charge. I think we say things like that to kids in school just to make it seem like we are all accepted. I think in a way it’s weird because we say we’re so free, but then that’s what our freedom leads to. I think we have too much freedom, I guess. We take advantage of that, we speak our minds, and that always leads to something negative. I don’t think we’re as accepting as we think we are (Interview, Isabel, December 20, 2011).

In this instance, Isabel immediately challenged her beliefs after she spoke them aloud. Her response showed that she knows the *language* of citizenship, she knows what *ought* to come to mind when defining good citizenship, yet when pushed further, she recognized her response was not exactly what she meant. Isabel understood that freedoms are taught to students, yet students might not have the opportunity to exercise the freedoms we claim they have.

Carlos and Mariana also described citizenship in personally responsible ways, though they explained some instances of participatory citizenry following 9/11 (which will be discussed later in this section). Mariana described a good citizen as one who “is involved...and that can mean politically or, service in the community. Yes, serving the community” (Interview, Mariana, March 5, 2010). Carlos described citizenship as a way of preserving the nation for future generations. He explained,

If you plan on having a family [in the U.S.], your generations are going to keep expanding, so you should preserve the nation for them. Sometimes that means cleaning up a park, and during a time of war, you would participate in the military. I was too young when we went to war, but I was thinking, “Oh my gosh, my brother is four years older than me and he is not that far off from being able to be drafted so, if we have a draft, and if he were to go, then I would want to go just so he would not have to go through it alone” (Interview, Carlos, March 5, 2010).

Carlos clearly sees service in the military as the ultimate act of civil obedience, or responsibility, still clinging to the personally responsible definitions of citizenship.

Margaret’s understandings of citizenship differed from the other participants slightly in that her explanation was more complex. She described U.S. citizens as:

legally bound to the country, someone who gets the benefits of a democracy. More specifically, to be able to vote, to be able to have access to a trial, freedom of speech, all the basic rights our constitution grants to its citizens. As far as for a community—I would say if you’re a good citizen that means that you identify positively with the country you represent in a manner that shows in your actions and your words, that helps you develop empathy for others, and to...work toward the betterment of your community as a whole (Interview, Margaret, January 20, 2012).

Margaret's description of a "good citizen" contains more tenets of participatory citizenship in that she describes developing empathy for others and betterment of the community, yet these actions are still expressed as being carried out by an individual. Margaret was the only participant who went further with her description in order to include her thoughts as a teacher candidate:

I think every child deserves to know what's going on in this country...[Teachers] should be able to provide an environment for children where they can develop their own kinds of interpretations to what is going on in America, and I think that in itself is a component of what a citizen is. It's going out, using resources, knowing what's going on in the world. It's knowing about it, having an opinion about it, reading about it, and acquiring knowledge about a topic. We are all able to do that as American citizens. We have all these resources available to us, we have all of this knowledge at our fingertips, and I think that any child should be able to explore any topic, or anything they think needs fixing in this world (Interview, Margaret, January 20, 2012).

When given the opportunity to explain further, Margaret seemed to find more connections with participatory notions of citizenship, yet she teetered on its edge, leaning toward more socially just ways of thinking when she expressed a desire to provide students with resources in order to work toward the resolution of global problems.

Though Westheimer and Kahne's (2004) categories of citizens can be helpful when thinking about how one might understand citizenship, I found it difficult to place

participants' thinking in only one category. For example, while a participant's response might have been placed in one category (how one is *thinking* about citizenship), at the same time, expressions of how one *practices* citizenship might warrant placement in a different category.

CRISIS INTERRUPTS UNDERSTANDINGS OF CITIZENSHIP

Conducting the second interviews aimed at answering questions about participants' memories surrounding their experiences in school on 9/11 and the days that followed. After participants described their experiences in schools, I revisited their definitions of citizenship in order to probe the students further while still accessing their memories of 9/11. Carlos, the only male in the study, exhibited an interruption in his previously described understandings of citizenship when viewed through the lens of the continuing war in Iraq and Afghanistan. His original definition of citizenship mentioned preserving the country for future generations and serving in the military so his brother (if drafted) would not be alone. After reflecting on September 11, Carlos added,

A lot of people in my neighborhood were saying, "I'm proud to live here" and they were putting U.S. flags everywhere. There was merchandise everywhere, at the convenience stores and the dollar stores...people were thinking, "We're American, we're so strong." There was this urgency to show your colors and show that you were not against the U.S., that you supported the nation. Instead of helping *others* we became more interested in helping *us*—Americans (Interview, March 5, 2010).

In George Bush's address to Ground Zero workers on September 14, 2001, though he used a bullhorn, rescue workers shouted, "I can't hear you!" President Bush responded, "I can hear you! The rest of the world hears you! And the people—and the people who knocked these buildings down will hear all of us soon!" After this announcement the crowd began chanting, "USA, USA!" One week later, in his address to the nation on September 20, 2001, The President declared:

Every nation in every region now has a decision to make: Either you are with us or you are with the terrorists. From this day forward, any nation that continues to harbor or support terrorism will be regarded by the United States as a hostile regime.

As was perpetuated by the media following 9/11 in a *for or against* response, a quick decision was to be made by all citizens, whether constructive or accidental (see Nyers, 2006), about which side they were on. Expressions of this type tend to reflect a political ideology that blurs the lines between patriotism and nationalism (see Huddy & Khatib, 2007).

Both Carlos and Mariana discussed an unwavering support of their country, and in essence, became belligerent citizens. Mariana reflected on her feelings about citizenship after 9/11:

It's important to support your country, even if you're not a legal citizen. You're here, so you should support the country you are in, and if you feel comfortable about enlisting in the military, then you should enlist and support your country....

When we went to war I felt very proud to live here, I mean, we are still here and

safe. It's important to show that we are proud to be here and that we're still strong (Interview, October 13, 2010).

Mariana expressed how even non-legal citizens should feel a strong pride for their country, *especially* in times of war. She was able to pinpoint the 9/11 tragedy as the landmark event from which her construction of the powerful and protective nature of the U.S. was drastically challenged:

I thought America was this great country and we had a big military, and if anyone wanted to mess with us, they wouldn't want to. And with the World Wars, we would always win. So, I just didn't predict any problems. And then they said we might go to war and I was thinking, "Oh my gosh, now what?" But it made me so proud to live here because we're not like third world countries, because we have big weapons, and money. I knew that we weren't going let people mess with us, that we were going to fight back (Interview, October 13, 2010).

Although the 9/11 tragedy revealed the porous border of our nation, the events quickly led Mariana to participate in patriotic practices. Mariana and her friends at Edwards were compelled to make red, white, and blue ribbons with attached photos of missing citizens that had been printed in the newspaper. They attached the photos and ribbons with a safety pin in order to easily affix the symbols on their lapels. Carlos recalled similar actions when he described:

I was part of the morning [announcements] crew after that, so we had to do the pledge [of allegiance] everyday. And after 9/11 we decided we needed a moment

of silence...that was part of our responsibility to make sure we did that
(Interview, October 13, 2010).

The symbolic patriotism described by Mariana and Carlos certainly hints at Marciano's (1997) notions of "the yellow ribbon view" of war. In this view, Marciano uses the Persian Gulf War as an example of "how national security state propaganda overwhelms any alternatives" (p. 172). Carlos expressed feeling "strong" and "supporting," and Maria recalled feeling "proud" to live in America and that we would "fight back." Many Americans felt the need to do something, and for these preservice teachers, they transferred these feelings into symbolic and overt patriotism.

Isabel and Sarah did not recall participating in any symbolic patriotism after 9/11, but their understandings of citizenship also became more complicated in light of the terrorist attacks on the U.S. I asked both Isabel and Sarah about the USA PATRIOT Act (**U**niting and **S**trengthening **A**merica by **P**roviding **A**ppropriate **T**ools **R**equired to **I**nterrupt and **O**bstruct **T**errorism Act of 2001; Public Law 107—56 –Oct. 26, 2001) and how it is perceived by many as a threat to democratic ideals in exchange for, at least, a sense of security. Both women expressed empathy for individuals that have been falsely accused via enactment of the Law, yet they also both expressed an understanding of giving up certain rights in order to protect citizens (or feel more secure). Thinking in this way allowed Isabel and Sarah to rationalize their government's response, and as was the case with Carlos and Mariana, provided unwavering consent of governmental decisions. Isabel discussed how she felt about the terrorists after 9/11:

I wasn't angry, I think I thought more that we needed to find [the terrorists], but I think I heard more about how [the government was] going after people of that ethnic group [Islamic Muslims]. I kind of felt bad for them because people were going to go against them. I think what really scared me though, was the thought of war on American soil (Interview, January 17, 2012).

Isabel's main concern, though she recognized racial profiling and unconstitutional practices happening in the U.S. post-9/11, was fear of a war on American soil. She did not exhibit a strong empathetic response to victims of racial profiling or a justice-oriented view on citizenship. Sarah revealed:

I know about the PATRIOT Act, but I don't know enough about it to talk about it. I think if [the government is] using information in order to find people that are endangering our society, I can understand that, but it's scary they can just access information. I think if they're doing it to protect us...well, I guess it's a really gray area. I know security had to change. I know there were big changes at the airport after 9/11! But the increased security is all I've ever known in the airports, so I'm fine with it (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Sarah understands the justified purpose behind the PATRIOT Act is to "find people who are endangering our society," yet she does not identify these people as one cohesive group or from the same race or ethnic background. She also recognizes that she did not *experience* the marked change in homeland security, and this is a reason for not thinking more critically about how the changes affected citizens, much less how they affected one group more than others.

Later in our conversation however, I asked Sarah what she thought it meant to live in a post-9/11 world. She responded:

S: I guess there is this stereotype of the people from the Middle East now, it's just terrible.

EB: How do you mean?

S: I had a lot of friends that were from places like Lebanon, and places in the Middle East. My ex-boyfriend at the time was from Colombia, but his parents live in Dubai for oil. And one time I was with some friends and they asked where he was and I told them he was in Dubai. Then one of them said, "Oh, he's one of *those*." I was so upset! I thought, *what do you mean?* That guy was very ignorant. My boyfriend was not from the Middle East, but I have a lot of friends who are—and it's just this stereotype that is really awful.

EB: And you think your friend thinks that way because of 9/11?

S: Yes. Everyone knows what [the 9/11 terrorists'] mug shots looked like. And with the visual of bin Laden—I mean, just look at how everyone reacted when he was killed (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Sarah suggested that her friends, who I assumed were close to her same age, hold a racist, stereotypical view of people from the Middle East, and that they might not hold that view if the attacks on 9/11 had not happened.

The conversation I had with Margaret about her understandings of citizenship post-9/11 resulted in another complex discussion, which Margaret recognized as contradictory, and she voiced her frustrations about this. Margaret could not discount

that her first thought when learning about the attacks the morning of September 11 was, *What is terrorism?* She talked about how she was frustrated with the lack of information she received from the media and school alike about what was happening in the world, yet found comfort in the country's renewed sense of unity. Simultaneously however, Margaret took note of hate crimes in the U.S. against Muslim Americans after 9/11, and expressed discouragement in citizens' discriminatory actions and rush to judgment.

EB: How do you think the country, or world, changed as a result of 9/11?

M: I know there was more unity, and more pride. And I know for an immediate period after [9/11] everyone, with the exception of the Muslim community—they were kind of shunned out—you know, I know there was some violence that was happening, it was pretty sad actually, but I know there was a lot more unity, there was a lot more kindness happening.

EB: You said the Muslims were “shunned out.” Do you remember any of that, or responding somehow?

M: The Muslim community in San Angelo is nil. It was more just news and talk of violent acts and how people in America were disassociating with their Muslim faith because they didn't want to be shunned as Americans. I know that on my car I put [a] support the troops [magnet]—but I also know personally I reacted with confusion about Iraq and Afghanistan, and what we were doing there. Are we trying to help develop democracy? Are we trying to fight against terror? I know that sounds kind of contradictory. But that's how I felt. I was confused. Gosh, that's kind of frustrating (Interview, January 20, 2012).

As we engaged in conversation, Margaret was able to recall the feeling of frustration in the days and months after 9/11. She felt confused about U.S. military presence in Iraq and Afghanistan, yet felt compelled to publicly display a magnet supporting the U.S. troops serving overseas. Margaret showed that though she was quick to question public response toward the Muslim community after 9/11, she also felt the need to support the military. She remembered the frustration she felt in high school, but teetered between resentment for not being able to participate in more critical discussions about the War on Terror, and understanding, or rationalizing, the reasons behind governmental decisions.

I didn't identify with anything that was going on in high school, but no one ever talked to us about going to war or what the PATRIOT Act [was]. People in my high school [commented] that we should go to war—they wanted to kill the terrorists. I don't remember anyone expressing the want of *not* going. I think everyone was pretty angry that somebody would [attack] our country. I guess the thought was that the security in our country would be weak if we didn't do anything about it (Interview, January 20, 2012).

I found our conversation to be most interesting because Margaret had such a different schooling experience than the other participants. Her distrust of the institution of schooling began at a very young age—five—and has continued to grow since. What I find so fascinating about Margaret's story is that it is not typical of those of other preservice teachers at State University.

Lortie (1975) described in his seminal work, *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*, many of the reasons why people choose teaching as a career. He found some teachers (a

minority) enter the field in non-traditional ways, and that “teaching sometimes obtains the services of people who attended college with other objectives in mind” (p. 50). Margaret’s objectives for attending college changed and evolved during the years after she graduated high school, as was discussed in the previous chapter. After considering music, music education, and anthropology, Margaret ultimately decided on a career in a field that essentially let her down.

Giroux (1988) posits that the political debates about the purposes of schooling and the dominant forms of classroom teaching provide “teachers the opportunity to organize collectively to improve the conditions under which they work and to demonstrate to the public the central role that teachers must play in any viable attempt to reform the public schools” (p. 122). I believe Margaret’s dissatisfaction with schooling and her non-traditional route to teaching has allowed her to centrally place an agenda to reform the public schools within her goals as a teacher. Margaret sees the faults in public education—namely, lack of critical analysis and interdisciplinary learning—as problems she has the agency to remedy as a classroom teacher.

Though she is still struggling with understandings of citizenship—and perhaps *because* she is still struggling—Margaret views citizenship education as essential in elementary school.

Kids should have access and know everything that adult citizens should know. I don’t think there’s anything that a child can’t understand if taught well and discussed thoroughly. Some teachers may not want to teach about gay rights, or racism, or other controversial issues, issues many teachers feel kids are not old

enough to learn about. But I don't think that's true. I think kids need to learn about crises like 9/11 in more nuanced ways. I think *I* need to learn more about 9/11, and I'm appalled I wasn't learning about it as it was happening (Interview, January 20, 2012).

Margaret's lack of knowledge on the topic of 9/11 serves as her driving force, her passion in wanting to teach about the subject in ways that highlight notions of citizenship and other social studies strands. In the following sections I will elaborate further the ways Margaret's lesson plan about 9/11 grew after our initial conversations, and how she used her own thirst for knowledge to drive curricular decisions.

QUESTION 3: HOW DO THE PRESERVICE TEACHERS ENVISION TEACHING ABOUT TRAUMA/CRISES? HOW DO THEY TREAT 9/11 AS AN HISTORICAL EVENT DURING THEIR LESSON PLANNING?

Before the final formally scheduled meeting, the participants were asked to give some thought to how they might design a lesson plan or series of lessons about 9/11 for elementary students. I asked the participants to bring in any of their own resources to help with the planning process. I explained though, that I would bring multiple resources including children's books, professional publications, published curriculum, newspapers, textbooks, a copy of state and national social studies standards, and a laptop in order to access any online resources or video clips (see Appendix B for list of materials). Before meeting with each participant, I cleared a large conference table at State University and

spread out all of the materials. I also had a variety of lesson plan templates for the participants to use, or they were free to choose to use their own.

The themes described below illustrate the (sometimes inconsistent) thinking patterns experienced by teachers when planning to teach elementary students about 9/11. First, all participants expressed the ubiquity of potential curricular resources as overwhelming, which led to feelings of inadequacy for not knowing more about 9/11. Second, three of the participants utilized rationalistic methods to interrupt critical reasoning about why certain governmental decisions were made in the days and months following 9/11. Because they were planning lessons for elementary students, participants oftentimes struggled in their decisions about what sources to use in order to tell the story about what happened on the morning of September 11, 2001, specifically, questions about age-appropriateness surfaced when participants asked to view first-hand video accounts of the attacks in New York City. Participants also noticed a need for, and a lack of, more curricular resources that treat 9/11 as a global event, as opposed to a domestic one. Only one participant (Margaret) found the multitude of resources to be of absolute importance, and therefore expressed a desire to embark on a project to create a week-long unit of instruction about 9/11 instead of planning one lesson to be taught in isolation. Finally, I analyzed the think-aloud data to uncover the measureable standards—the big ideas—that preservice teachers hoped to parlay into deeper student understanding.

Researchers have found that when classroom discussions do occur, it is rare they involve controversial issues (Kahne et al., 2001; Hahn, 1991). It is even more rare for discussions about controversial topics to occur in the elementary grades (Bickmore, 1999;

Houser, 1996; Houser & Overton, 2001; Ochoa-Becker et al., 2001). The overarching objectives chosen by the participants help researchers make sense of how preservice teachers are thinking about discussing a controversial topic—September 11—in the elementary grades.

OVERWHELMED BY CHOICE AND FEELING INADEQUATE

When they approached the conference table full of resources, all participants seemed surprised at the wide array and variety of resources available. With each participant, I previewed the categories of resources: professional magazines, expository texts, newspapers from 2001, children’s books, and published curriculum about 9/11. The preview of materials took about ten minutes, and then I asked each participant where they wanted to start, or if they had any questions. Mariana responded:

There is so much stuff! Wow. I am trying to think of ways I can use everything, but knowing how the school day goes so quickly, and how social studies goes too, I am thinking there just won’t be enough time to cover it all. I think I should start with the TEKS and decide on the objectives I will teach first (Think-Aloud, February 11, 2012).

Instead of looking through each resource, Mariana made a quick decision to look at the state standards before she would consider thumbing through any of the materials. Isabel responded in a similar way:

I think I will choose my TEKS first and then look for resources that attend to those TEKS. I’ll have to put my blinders on because I could get lost. I need to keep the objective in the front of my mind” (Think-Aloud, February 10, 2012).

Both Mariana and Isabel shied away from even physically touching resources until they had looked over the state standards and made decisions about which objective(s) to teach. Isabel settled on a standard in third grade that states, “The student is expected to identify and compare the heroic deeds of state and national heroes, including...Todd Beamer...and other contemporary heroes” (TEKS, Third Grade Social Studies, 14. a., 2011). Isabel asked me how Todd Beamer played a part in the events that happened on September 11. She could remember in our previous conversation that he had something to do with what happened that day, and I asked her if she remembered the famous phrase, “Let’s roll.” Isabel responded, “Can we watch a video of that? I don’t know who Todd Beamer was. I never heard of ‘Let’s Roll’” (Think-Aloud, February 10, 2012).

Sarah’s think-aloud session lasted about two hours and she spent the first thirty minutes picking up and thumbing through each resource and asking questions about 9/11. Early in our meeting she said, “There’s so much stuff and not enough time to really go through it all...I think I need to do more research” (Sarah, Think-Aloud, February 3, 2012). Sarah gravitated toward the collection of children’s books, and after she had looked through the bulk of the resources, she asked for a copy of the state curriculum standards [TEKS].

Carlos also seemed overwhelmed by the choices presented in front of him, and he took a considerable amount of time to look through the newspapers. Carlos leaned forward on the conference table full of books, magazines, and binders, propped his elbow on the tabletop and slumped his chin into his hand. He scrunched his brow as he examined each photo in the Dallas Morning News EXTRA edition:

There is so much I forgot about. I mean, it seems like yesterday, but it's crazy to go back and think about it now that I'm an adult. And now that I will be teaching about something that I remember happening in my lifetime. I mean, I know I experienced that day, but it almost plays back in my mind like a movie, not like something that really happened" (Think-Aloud, February 11, 2012).

Carlos was digging deep into his memory and "replaying" the events that happened that Tuesday morning, and I could read it on his face. Throughout our meeting, I watched Carlos grasp for a way to make sense of how to teach about a traumatic event he witnessed as a boy. I asked him what he was thinking. He responded flatly, "No one taught me, so I'm not sure how to teach it" (Think-aloud, February 11, 2012). Carlos eventually decided on retelling the events as they occurred, and expressed a desire to teach the content using history standards as his springboard for the lesson's design.

Because Margaret was so overwhelmed with the resources I had to offer on the subject, she was not satisfied with my request to create "a" lesson plan about September 11. She resisted planning only one lesson and asked if she could plan an entire unit of instruction for fifth grade that would take "about a week" (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). As with each participant, I let each Margaret's thoughts and decisions lead the think-aloud lesson planning session, so I committed to working with Margaret until her project's completion. Envisioning her students learning about the topic over several days helped Margaret focus on the lesson planning task. Margaret was the only participant who wanted to plan her lessons for fifth graders. Notably, all other participants were completing an internship or student teaching semester in grades 3 and below, while

Margaret was placed in a fifth grade classroom. Margaret also knew she would remain in her fifth grade placement in the fall semester of 2012, and expressed a desire to follow through with the lesson plan by teaching the unit to her students during student teaching the next semester.

For a world-changing series of events that all participants could readily recall, and having spent ten years since September 11 in secondary schools and higher education, I was surprised to learn that these preservice teachers could not remember any lessons in their educational career, or any conversations in schools surrounding the terrorist attacks on 9/11 or the War on Terror. It made sense however, after learning that the participants had not studied about 9/11 in any formal educational settings, that they felt overwhelmed by the amount of topical information available. All participants expressed interest in learning more about 9/11 personally, but not all felt comfortable teaching this information to young children. In the next section I explore the dilemma of age-appropriateness the participants faced during the think-aloud sessions.

THE DILEMMA OF AGE-APPROPRIATENESS

All participants are pursuing a degree in elementary education at State University, and upon graduation and successful performance on their state certification exam will be certified to teach in self-contained classrooms, pre-kindergarten through 6th grade, or any content area in pre-k through 6th grade. Participants were given an opportunity to think about and create a lesson plan about 9/11 for students in either grade 3 or 5. As explained in chapter 3, 4th grade curriculum covers Texas history, so planning for 3rd and 5th grades presented the most feasible integration of the content.

Carlos was drawn to primary source documents and expressed a desire to share color newspaper photos in his lesson, but he was uncertain as to how much violence was too much to share with third graders. He picked up the book *America is Under Attack: The Day the Towers Fell* (Brown, 2011) and read it from cover to cover.

I think I could pick certain parts of this [book] to share with students. I think it is good because it has a lot of numbers in it and statistics. I think the numbers are important for kids to know, like how many people 9/11 impacted and the timeline of the day. Since the pictures are drawings they might be easier to show third graders (Carlos, Think-aloud, February 11, 2012).

Carlos expressed that although he wanted to use primary sources in his lesson, he kept rethinking and negotiating what was appropriate, and what was not. He thought that actual photos of the events were more authentic and meaningful, yet perhaps too “graphic” for young children to view.

I want to use the real photos here [in the newspapers] because they mean more, you know, like how we use historical thinking, but I worry about how graphic they are. I mean, you can see some blood on this woman’s shirt and the expressions on the faces of these people are just horrific, you know, it’s really graphic. But I do want them to see the emotion. I’m just not sure (Carlos, Think-aloud, February 11, 2012).

The struggle for Carlos to make this decision was genuine. He learned in his methods course that using historical thinking as a tool works to access more meaningful and

authentic interpretations of history, but he was conflicted about using these techniques with third grade children.

Mariana envisioned teaching a one- to two-day lesson in a third grade classroom via a teaching strategy she called “become the expert,” (Mariana, Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). Students would be placed in cooperative groups and given different sets of resources to study. For example, one group might be given a few children’s books about 9/11 to examine, while another group might have a series of newspaper articles or photographs. Each group would be expected to examine its set of resources and essentially “become the expert” about the assigned materials. Cooperative groups would later report out to the whole class to share what they learned. Though Mariana was committed to her idea, the more she looked through the printed photos and books, the more she struggled with making decisions about which images and narratives to include.

These are really scary pictures. And the words in the headlines and pretty scary too. I worry about the kids enjoying the photos and thinking they’re cool because it might remind them of a movie or videogame. But I want them to see what really happened. I’m not sure (Mariana, Interview, Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

Mariana expressed her concern for the students to “see what really happened” yet felt a need to protect the children from images and words that might exhibit too violent an interpretation of the event.

Sarah also expressed the possibility of censoring some of the materials to use in a third grade classroom, and also reflected on how she experienced the barrage of media

images on September 11. She initially wanted to find a suitable video clip to share with students, so she looked online and was able to find an amateur video of the first tower crashing into the World Trade Center (<http://youtu.be/r6B7g6mt4Gk>) that was eventually broadcast by CNN. After we watched the minute-long clip, Sarah responded

I think that's too much for a third grader to watch. It's too violent. I guess it has been a while since I watched any footage of 9/11...I forgot how scary it was and I don't think kids need to see it as it happened...not like I did. Maybe I'll just use photos (Sarah, Think-aloud, February 3, 2012).

Sarah expressed that she *did not* want students to experience the video images “like she did,” and made a decision to exclude video coverage of the events from her lesson plan. In another instance, Sarah thought about using a graphic novel, *Arab in America* (El Rassi, 2007). She said she was drawn to the book because it might give students another perspective on race relations in America after 9/11. The book contains some language and racial slurs that would be considered offensive or inappropriate in schools. Sarah picked up the book and thumbed through a few pages. “I think this book [*Arab in America*] is good, but maybe too overwhelming for third graders. I would have to look through it and just choose some pages for them to look at” (Sarah, Think-aloud, February 3, 2012). There were several instances when Sarah rethought her original plan to include a resource, but changed her mind when she focused on the age of the students.

Isabel chose her objectives and standards before looking through the resources, and decided to focus on community coming together in times of crisis, and the inclusion of Todd Beamer in her lesson plan. She did take considerable time looking through all of

the books, newspapers, and magazines I had laid out on the table, but she looked with her objective in the forefront of her mind. The consideration of her chosen objectives drove her curricular decision-making. As Isabel turned the pages of one newspaper she put her finger on a picture of two women embracing one another as they were covered in ashes and walking away from Ground Zero. Isabel stopped and pointed at the picture:

Here. This woman is helping another woman, and they probably didn't even know each other. This would be a good one to illustrate how people came together...people who didn't even know each other were taking care of each other. I think it's good to keep things positive (Isabel, Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

Isabel revealed an uneasiness in choosing any resource that might not "keep things positive." In essence, she put on curricular blinders in order to focus on the objectives that brought heroic deeds and community acts of kindness to the surface, while leaving out anything she might classify as negative.

Margaret's lesson-planning session lasted about three hours, and we scheduled a second meeting at the end of the session because she was not satisfied with the progress she had made on planning her week-long 5th grade unit about 9/11. During our first lesson-planning session Margaret looked through every resource I brought and we had a lengthy discussion about all of the materials before she began to talk about her plans for the unit. Margaret looked through the graphic novel, *Arab in America*, and commented

I think it would be really difficult for a fifth grader to derive a really critical meaning from this type of text. I feel like this is a little too abstract and might be

a little too high a level for [the students'] purposes (Margaret, Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

Other than this comment, Margaret did not again mention a concern about age appropriateness during any of our sessions. She went on to plan her unit, integrating language arts and social studies, and chose to culminate the unit by having students present group-created journey boxes on the topic of 9/11. The journey box project (Labbo & Field, 1999), as discussed in Chapter 3, requires students to utilize historical thinking methods (Seixas, 1993; VanSledright, 2002) to learn in more nuanced and critical ways about a topic, event, or historical figure that is typically not represented in the curriculum. Margaret planned for her students to examine things like photos, literature, and artifacts during the unit, and each day select items to add to their journey box.

At some point during our planning sessions, all participants wrestled with the idea of what was appropriate or inappropriate for young children, but those who were planning for 3rd grade instruction (all but Margaret) seemed to struggle more with this dilemma. Though participants recognized the benefits in their students' examinations of primary source documents and as-it-happened video accounts of 9/11, they mostly resisted this method of teaching in order to shield young students from violence and fear. Margaret seemed the most comfortable incorporating accurate images and videos in her lesson plan, not only because she was planning for more mature students, but most likely because she was placed in a classroom with a cooperating teacher that consistently uses historical thinking and critical investigation methods.

RATIONALIZATION INTERRUPTS OPPORTUNITIES TO CRITIQUE

Several instances occurred in each think-aloud session when participants expressed a desire to teach in more critical ways, and oftentimes the critical thought was overshadowed by a rationalizing thought. Sometimes the rationalizing thought surfaced because of the participant's lack of knowledge about alternative narratives. Other times more critical reasoning was interrupted by a rationalization of understanding. I noticed this phenomenon in all think-aloud sessions except Margaret's.

The first instance of a rationalizing interruption surfaced in Mariana's session as she was looking through a commemorative issue of *Time* magazine and stopped turning the pages. I watched her gaze turn to the words on the page and I could tell she was intently focused on the text. She was reading about a man named Ali Abbas, an Iraqi civilian whose home was attacked by American soldiers in 2003. Abbas lost his arms, his body was burned, and he lost his father, brother, mother, and 13 other members of his family. I asked Mariana what caught her eye on that page, and she said

Mariana: Wow. There has been a lot of destruction and so many innocent people have been killed and wounded...not just on 9/11 in America, but all over the world.

EB: What do you think about that? Is it part of the narrative you want to include in your lesson?

Mariana: I think it is very important. [*reaches for her lesson planning sheet*] I think it is important but I want to focus on these objectives. I want to let them

look through this *Time* magazine, but maybe after we have met the objectives (Mariana, Think-aloud, February 11, 2012).

Mariana was obviously struck by the violent acts that harmed Abbas and killed his family, but she strayed from highlighting this story in her lesson plan in favor of narrowly focusing on the objectives of the lesson, which were only related to 9/11. Though she mentioned the importance of telling this story, of considering casualties of the war, she opted to focus on 9/11 as a singular event, isolated from its causes and effects, and events that occurred later.

Sarah had originally planned to address the aftermath of 9/11, including racial profiling of Arab Americans and increased security at airports, as well as a discussion of the USA PATRIOT Act. Toward the end of our session, she made a last-minute decision to leave out these parts of her 3rd grade lesson. I found this interesting because Sarah had mentioned in our previous interview that she had witnessed firsthand derogatory racial comments by her acquaintances in reference to her boyfriend, who is Colombian. Sarah explained, “I think they [students] should know about how things changed—with security and everything—but I want to focus on the actions of the individuals, the ordinary citizens and the rescue workers” (Sarah, Think-Aloud, February 3, 2012). Sarah felt compelled to cut parts out of her plan that she previously believed were important, in order to follow the state-mandated objectives more closely. Clearly, Sarah became uncertain about how she might approach a more controversial perspective concerning the effects of September 11, and ultimately decided against approaching these topics.

Carlos also wanted to plan closely to the standards, though he chose different objectives for his plan than Sarah (see Appendix C). Instead of focusing on citizenship standards, Carlos wanted his lesson to attend to history standards. His lesson plan included the use of many of primary source materials including a YouTube clip of the attack on the World Trade Center as it happened on various networks (<http://youtu.be/1IKZqqSI9-s>). Carlos explained that he wanted to use this particular clip because, “you can hear the confusion in the newscasters’ voices. I think an important part of the story is that we were all so confused for such a long time. I think even the next day we were scared something else might happen” (Carlos, Think-aloud, February 11, 2012). In his whole-group lesson, Carlos planned for students to meet the state history objective that states, “The student is expected to identify reasons people have formed communities, including a need for security, law, and material well-being” (TEKS, Grade 3, History 1. a.). I asked Carlos about what he wanted students to learn about security and he responded:

I think about 9/11 [students] need to know that all the changes in the airport security and everything was needed. There were a lot of people that were being searched and there was the guy with the bomb in his shoes, so we have had to increase the security efforts. I mean, I think it has had a bad effect on the border and immigration, but it’s important to understand why this tighter security is so important. It’s because of 9/11 (Carlos, Think-aloud, February 11, 2012).

Carlos’s nascent thinking about a different perspective of the changes in security and the insertion of the PATRIOT Act was quickly rationalized (and suppressed) in order to

express an understanding of decisions made by the U.S. government in the name of its citizens' security.

In our earlier interviews, and as explained earlier in this chapter, I had noted Isabel's empathy for Arab Americans who had been illegally detained because of racial profiling post-9/11. When she chose to anchor her lesson plan with standards based in citizenship I wondered how she might attend to the empathy she expressed earlier. Just as she had in our discussion about civil liberties, Isabel talked about how she might teach about this topic to 3rd grade children.

I think I will teach it like the TEKS says [points at Grade 3, Citizenship, 12. a.], "give examples of community changes that result from individual or group decisions," so the way security changed in our community was because of a group decision that we all wanted the government to make for us to keep us safer after 9/11. So I want my students to be able to notice that part of the change at the airports and in public places is for our own safety, so it's important for us to comply (Isabel, Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

I asserted earlier that Isabel's main concern as a young girl after witnessing 9/11 was an attack on American soil. I contend that although Isabel (and the other participants mentioned above) could recall issues involving racial profiling and instances of civil liberties being stripped from Arab Americans following September 11, when it came time to confront these issues in a classroom, these participants suppressed the importance of teaching about them as they rationalized the necessity of stricter security measures imposed on U.S. citizens, in the name of stronger security.

DIFFERING UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE BIG IDEA

The participants organized their thoughts into 3rd and 5th grade lesson plans according to length, objectives, resources, teacher and student tasks, and the overarching “big ideas.” (see Appendices). At the end of the lesson-planning sessions I asked participants how they might describe the big idea of their lesson. I asked, “What is it that you want students to learn after having participated in this lesson in your class?”

Three participants, Mariana, Isabel, and Sarah, had planned very different lessons, yet their overarching objectives were almost identical. Mariana explained her lesson’s big idea as “how citizens cope during and after a crisis” (Think-aloud, February 11, 2012). Similarly, Isabel explained she wanted students to understand how communities come together in a time of crisis” (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). Sarah’s big idea differed, but only slightly, in that she wanted students to understand “how one major event can change a community, and how communities come together in a time of crisis” (Think-aloud, February 3, 2012). Both Mariana and Isabel chose to focus on only positive outcomes of the terrorist attacks that led citizens to console one another, donate blood, and exert efforts to rebuild. Sarah wanted to give more background by including how an event can change a community, but then chose for community changes to be explored in only positive ways (“coming together”).

Although the big ideas of their lessons were similar, Mariana, Isabel, and Sarah approached the lesson design in different ways. Mariana and Sarah’s lesson designs were most similar, in that they planned to utilize a K-W-L graphic organizer (see Ogle, 1986) that attempts to access students’ prior knowledge by having them think about what they

already *Know* about a topic, what they *Want to learn*, and what they *Learn*. After having students discuss what they already know about 9/11, both Mariana and Sarah planned to organize their students into four cooperative groups to examine four different “stations” equipped with resources and materials about September 11. Mariana wanted each group of students to remain at its station for the duration of the activity and “become an expert” on the materials that were displayed. Sarah, however, envisioned preparing four stations as well, but she wanted students to spend a predetermined amount of time at each station, and then rotate with their group so they could explore all stations. Sarah predicted her lesson might last more than one day in her class, and that students might have to visit “one to two stations per day for a couple of days” (Think-aloud, February 3, 2012). Mariana wanted to complete her lesson in one social studies class session (about 30-45 minutes).

The overarching objective of Isabel’s lesson plan was similar to Mariana’s and Sarah’s, yet she did not design her lesson to access students’ background knowledge. Isabel planned to open her lesson by reading *Fireboat: The heroic adventures of the John J. Harvey* (Kalman, 2002). She talked about using a video clip next, “to show my students how the planes hit the [World Trade Center] towers,” but eventually decided the videos were “too shocking and might scare the students” (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). In lieu of the video clip, Isabel decided she would tell students what she remembered about September 11, relying on her personal memory to serve as background information for her students. Next, Isabel planned for students to examine laminated newspaper photographs of community members helping each other, while she

posed questions such as, “What do you see people doing? How would you have helped out? What would you have done if you were in school that day?” (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). Isabel decided she would then show students a video clip of CBS News interview with Lisa Jefferson, the onboard telephone operator who took the call from Todd Beamer. He was aboard American Airlines Flight 93 (<http://youtu.be/H-viMzr2nac>) that crashed in Shanksville, Pennsylvania. Isabel chose to highlight this video because “it shows how strangers were there for each other and helped each other out” (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012). After this two-minute video clip, Isabel said she would let students ask her questions about Flight 93 and the plane that crashed into the Pentagon. She wanted to conclude the lesson by having students write in their “response journal” by answering the question, “How would you help your neighbors if a crisis happened in your community?” Isabel would also instruct students to draw a picture of “what it looks like when community members help each other in times of crisis” (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

The lesson plan Carlos designed also called for the use of a K-W-L chart (Ogle, 1986), but the big idea of his lesson was different than the other participants. Carlos was most concerned with the retelling of facts and the chronology of the events that happened on September 11. The resources he chose to include in his lesson plan mostly consisted of primary source documents such as newspaper photos from the Dallas Morning News, and a YouTube clip of news footage from multiple networks as the event happened (<http://youtu.be/11KZqqSI9-s>). Carlos decided he would ask his students how the video footage made them feel, and then probe them to think of ways the events of 9/11 might

have changed the communities like New York city, the nation, and the world. As a “group assessment” (Think-aloud, February 11, 2012), Carlos planned to ask students to help him create a 9/11 timeline of events on a large piece of butcher paper to hang in the room “to have them think about sequencing and so they know what happened first, next, and last” (Think-aloud, February 11, 2012). To conclude the lesson Carlos expressed a desire to read the children’s book *14 Cows for America* (Deedy, 2009).

I like this book because it shows what other people in the world thought about 9/11 and how the rest of the world was affected by what happened to us. I like that it comes from a different perspective, so the kids can see that even other countries were sympathetic about what happened in America (Think-aloud, February 11, 2012).

Because he chose state standards [TEKS] in the area of history to frame his lesson, Carlos wanted his students to be able to recount the events that occurred on September 11 in sequential order. He shared with me that he would not want a formal assessment to occur, but that the timeline the class created together could serve as an informal assessment.

When I sat down with Margaret at the conference table full of material about 9/11, she took a considerable amount of time to look through each resource and ask questions about what they were, where they came from, and how she could get a copy. I tried my best to answer all of her questions and make a list of items she wanted for her classroom that I could share with her at the conclusion of my study. As I explained earlier, Margaret decided she could not plan only one lesson about 9/11 for her fifth

graders. Though I was unprepared for her resistance, I accommodated her request and was anxious to see what might evolve from our session. Margaret started by flipping over a piece of paper and sketching a spreadsheet that listed the days of the week across the top and the words “what, where, who, and why” along the left-hand side. She organized her topics in the following order: Monday—What is terrorism?; Tuesday—What happened on September 11, 2001?; Wednesday—George Bush’s response; Thursday—American response; Friday—The impact of 9/11 over ten years.” Margaret seemed excited to have an outline and began quickly talking and listing topics, questions, and resources for each day in her grid. For example, on Monday (What is terrorism?), she listed

- What is Islam?
- What is al Qaeda?
- Historical origins
- Islams in America
- Distinguishing Muslims from “terrorists”
- What is terrorism? (Timothy McVeigh)
- Who is bin Laden?

(Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

I watched Margaret work fervently on her lists while she voiced her thoughts out loud, and for each item she listed, she scanned the table for a relevant resource to help her teach that element of the lesson.

Margaret's planning was sporadic; she was not satisfied with her plans at the end of our session. Margaret got a considerable amount of work done in the three hours we met, but she struggled trying to articulate the big idea of her unit. When I asked her she took a deep breath, and exhaled while she took off her glasses and rubbed her eyes. She put her glasses back on her face and said:

Gosh, the big idea? Of the whole unit? There are so many big ideas here. I want students to be able to know about the Muslim religion and the culture of Islam. I want them to know the difference between terrorists and civilians, and that someone's facial features or skin color can't provide that distinction. The big idea. They should know that what happened on 9/11 was terrible, how it affected everyone in the world. It was an event that everyone in the world would remember, and how American patriotism went through the roof, which might have seemed like a great thing, but they should also be presented with information about the negative things that happened too. Just like any event they study, I want them to see all sides, and make their own interpretations. I think at the end of the week the kids will be able to tell me the big idea. Right now, I'm all over the place. I'm still trying to figure it out myself! (Think-aloud, February 10, 2012).

As I reflected on Margaret's discomfort with this question, I thought about the question I was asking. I wondered why it seemed so unproblematic for the other participants to answer this question, and for Margaret, it was a struggle to answer. At the same time, Margaret seemed to be the most interested in finding out as much as she could about the

events surrounding 9/11. I remembered a conversation we had during the lesson planning session about a course Margaret took in her first semester at State University:

Margaret: I didn't learn about the Middle East at all in school, not until I took Contemporary Arabic Culture in college, and we didn't talk about 9/11 in [that course] either.

EB: What do you remember about that class?

Margaret: We talked a lot about architecture... we did not talk about tensions at all. And I think we talked about those things because I don't think [the instructor] wanted controversy in that class. They [the professor and the teaching assistant] told us it was a non-partisan class. I don't think they wanted to delve into any of that. And I took the class to understand Muslims, and I wanted to know more. We did not talk about the racial profiling of Muslim people in the United States. I remember there was a calligrapher that came to class to write our names. We watched a lot of music videos of pop icons. I specifically took that course so I could learn more in depth about what was going on in the world, and I left feeling pretty disappointed.

I was struck by this conversation because Margaret was very clear about what her expectations were of the course and was frustrated that they were not met. She was similarly frustrated and struggled to pinpoint the big idea of her unit on 9/11. Her sense of frustration was palpable as she grasped for more information and resources that could lead her to a deeper understanding of the interminable facets surrounding September 11 such as culture, politics, controversy, religion, beliefs, and terrorism. For Margaret, 9/11

was a defining moment in her young memory that opened up a world of confusion, a world she aggressively confronts and questions. I admired her tenacity to explore, interrogate, and research all of these aspects in order to present her students with varying perspectives in order for them to interpret 9/11 as an historical event in constructivist ways.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTER FOUR

The participants' memories of 9/11 are vivid and include specific reactions of their classmates and teachers. Their memories are closely linked to their teacher identities, and all participants wanted to share their personal experiences with their students to help teach about 9/11. Though they were in Texas in 2001, the participants' teachers reacted to 9/11 in ways that made students fearful of a terrorist attack in their respective cities.

Data analysis indicate the preservice teachers' understandings of citizenship are still evolving, yet the crisis of 9/11 further complicates—or interrupts—more critical notions of citizenship. Margaret exhibited a higher, more sophisticated level of civic understanding as reflected in her interviews and lesson plan design. She tended to relate more to social justice notions of citizenship, while the other participants talked about citizenship in more personally responsible ways.

When participants were asked to create a lesson plan for elementary students, they felt overwhelmed by the amount of resources on the topic, and that they did not know enough about 9/11 to teach about it effectively. The standards Margaret chose to highlight in her lesson plan dealt more deeply with social issues and controversy than did the other participants' plans, that outlined history and citizenship-based objectives.

In the next chapter I revisited the three research questions and summarized the themes for each that were presented in this chapter. I then described four constructed findings based on the data, and their implications for teacher education and citizenship education. Finally, I concluded the chapter with recommendations for future research in teacher education.

Chapter 5. Findings

Public schools have always encountered historical events of crises, e.g., the attack on Pearl Harbor, the bombing of the federal building in Oklahoma City, the shootings at Columbine High School, and Hurricane Katrina. Administrators and teachers have responded to these events that inevitably breach the walls of the school building. Through their public responses teachers are building their students' future notions of citizenry, and exhibiting how to respond in a moment of crisis. The national tragedy that occurred on September 11, 2001 provides a key example of how schools and teachers had to quickly respond to a crisis and make decisions as students were settling into their classrooms. The goal of this qualitative study was to examine what five preservice teachers remembered about 9/11 as they experienced the events as adolescents in Texas public schools. Additionally, I investigated how these preservice teachers' memories inform their notions of citizenship, as well as their thinking, as they consider teaching about 9/11 to elementary school children. In this study I asked the following questions:

- What are preservice teachers' memories of public/national crises and the surrounding events of 9/11 as they experienced them as students?
- What connections (if any) exist between preservice teachers' memories of crises and their understandings about the construction of citizenship?
- How do the preservice teachers envision teaching about trauma/crises? How do they treat 9/11 as an historical event during their lesson planning?

The study was framed combining the ideas of civic illiteracy (Marciano, 1997), belligerent citizenship (Ben-Porath, 2006), in the hopes that in moments of crisis attention to these notions can yield a politically enlightened and engaged citizenry (Parker, 2001).

First, Marciano's (1997) notion of civic illiteracy exposes the lack of attention given to tenets of citizenship ideals in schools, and necessitates the recruitment of "yellow ribbon" supporters that fervently surface after governmental decisions have been made. Marciano understands the odds teachers face in fostering civic literacy in the classroom, and suggests a transformation in teacher education that emphasizes citizenship education and democratic classroom practices as foundational to all content area knowledge. Marciano posits that civic illiteracy exists because "leaders and educators don't think carefully or deeply enough about the purposes of society and schools," and moreover, "the deeper and true reason is that genuine civic literacy would undermine the elite's ability to maintain effective control" (p. 10). Ultimately, this study attempted to afford preservice teachers the opportunity to create curricular moments in which civic literacy could be developed.

Helping to frame the study and extending Marciano's notion of civic illiteracy is Ben-Porath's (2006) unique theory of belligerent citizenship, which happens in the midst of (inter)national conflict. During times of conflict or security threats to the nation, the focus of a citizen's participation shifts from the open and voluntary to the directed and authorized. The measure of the belligerent citizen's participation moves from civic

engagement to “an enthusiasm to contribute to the war and the survival effort, possibly leading one to risk her life for the sake of the country” (Ben-Porath, 2006, p. 13). When citizens become belligerent, rationalization of governmental decisions can cause citizens to excuse interruptions in civil liberties for promises of safety and security. When preservice teachers are given opportunities investigate more deeply the contextual implications surrounding decisions that were made on and after 9/11, the hope is that they can recognize and resist temptations to succumb to belligerence.

Finally, Parker’s (2001) notion of the enlightened politically engaged citizen completes the theoretical frame of the study. Enlightened political engagement “has two dimensions—democratic enlightenment and political engagement—and together they suggest something like wise participation in public affairs” (Parker, 2003, p. 33) Parker argues for an enlightened political engagement that utilizes the democratic spaces in schools to increase civic knowledge, which allows for more access to political resources and opportunities to discuss social and political issues. Opportunities for school children to engage in enlightened political engagement however, is dependent on several factors including teachers’ civic backgrounds and understandings of citizenship, what teachers deem as important civic knowledge, and how comfortable teachers feel discussing the controversial in order to facilitate critical debate in classrooms. Knowing how preservice teachers are thinking about citizenship, and how they are deliberating whether or not to attend to democratic enlightenment and political engagement via citizenship curriculum and responsive behavior, can aid researchers in understanding the reasons why teaching critically about moments of crisis is viewed as possible, difficult, or impossible.

I reported the results of the study in the previous chapter and will briefly revisit them here before I discuss the findings of the study. The qualitative instrumental case study involved three responsive interviews and a think-aloud lesson planning session with each participant. In the next section I summarize the themes that helped to answer each research question.

WHAT ARE PRESERVICE TEACHERS' MEMORIES OF PUBLIC/NATIONAL CRISES AND THE SURROUNDING EVENTS OF 9/11 AS THEY EXPERIENCED THEM AS STUDENTS?

I found all participants' memories of 9/11 involved specific classmate and teacher responses. In other words, personal memories were fraught with emotional responses of others, whether classmates or teachers, and these memories were the most vivid in the retelling of their experience. Second, all participants expressed a desire for teachers to have done something differently than they did in the hours and days following the 9/11 attacks. Whether these young students craved a thoughtful conversation in order to understand notions of terrorism better, or whether they needed the classroom televisions to be turned off in order to resume a sense of normalcy, all of their needs were ignored. Finally, participants recalled specific instances of teacher-driven fear that predicted a possible attack in the cities where they lived. Ben-Porath notes this phenomenon as "shared doom," wherein experiencing a common sense of distress or threat, the belligerent citizen is ripe for growth.

WHAT CONNECTIONS (IF ANY) EXIST BETWEEN PRESERVICE TEACHERS' MEMORIES OF CRISES AND THEIR UNDERSTANDINGS ABOUT THE CONSTRUCTION OF CITIZENSHIP?

First, participants in this study had a difficult time explaining exactly what it means to be a citizen, and further, their descriptions were inconsistent with Westheimer and Khane's (2004) finding that descriptions of the personally responsible citizen remains the type of citizen that receives the most authentic attention in civic education. Some participants were able to describe citizenship in ways that were more participatory in scope, and Margaret expressed a desire to teach children in ways that help them work toward the resolution of social problems. Overall however, I found participants' explanations of citizenship were inconsistent and unsophisticated.

Second, participants in the study exhibited in various ways how a moment of crisis they experienced in schools, namely, September 11, was a watershed moment that interrupted, or required a shift in their understandings of citizenship. Of note, four participants' understandings of citizenship shifted even more toward the personally responsible column of the Kinds of Citizen's Chart (Westheimer and Khane, 2004) while remembering 9/11, and only one participant, Margaret, tended to lean in the opposite direction when faced with crisis. In other words, all participants except Margaret exercised rationalizing behaviors that resulted in overt acceptance of governmental policies (such as the USA PATRIOT Act) immediately following 9/11.

HOW DO THE PRESERVICE TEACHERS ENVISION TEACHING ABOUT TRAUMA/CRISES? HOW DO THEY TREAT 9/11 AS AN HISTORICAL EVENT DURING THEIR LESSON PLANNING?

When planning to teach about 9/11 in an elementary school classroom, participants felt overwhelmed by the amount of resources and curriculum available for their use. Simultaneously though, the young teachers felt inadequate to teach this topic because of a lack of information they have learned about 9/11 over the past ten years. With four participants, the ubiquity of information available about 9/11 coupled with the participants' lack of knowledge on the topic, created a desire to focus only on a few state standards in order to keep the lesson closed and tight. Margaret however, viewed this plethora of information and lack of knowledge as a chance to personally learn more. She resisted the initial task of creating one lesson plan about 9/11, and insisted on planning a week-long fifth grade integrated unit of instruction encompassing the study of Islam and Muslim communities, a brief study of terrorism, differing American responses to 9/11, American occupation in Afghanistan and Iraq, and a critical examination of patriotism. Regardless of their approach to teaching about 9/11, all participants explained they would use their own memories to tell the story of 9/11 and how they were in school when the attacks occurred.

As participants thought about what to teach about 9/11, they expressed a desire to use historical thinking methods in their instruction and wanted to use video clips and primary source photographs from a Texas newspaper that was printed on September 11

and 12, 2001. I am uncertain whether the participants' initial desires to utilize historical thinking methods surfaced because they had just completed the methods course that supported the use of historical thinking, or because they see the use of primary sources as an inherently valuable pedagogical mechanism. When we looked more closely at the primary sources however, participants oftentimes would reconsider their initial choices. When I probed further, participants mentioned the explicit nature of the sources, or the dilemma of age-appropriateness. The preservice teachers were conflicted with wanting to show students "what really happened," while simultaneously wanting to protect young students from images that might be "too graphic."

The participants revealed an incredible range of possibilities in how one might choose to teach about 9/11, given the ubiquity of resources and materials available on the topic. Three of the preservice teachers—Mariana, Isabel, and Sarah—wanted the big idea behind their lesson plan to center around citizenship and what it means to be a "good" citizen. They wanted to use the events of 9/11 to show students how ordinary citizens and community workers came together in a time of crisis. Carlos approached the big idea very differently. He was more interested in teaching 9/11 as an historical event and envisioned having students create a chronological timeline of the events that happened on the morning of September 11. Margaret approached the project in a much more complex fashion. When I asked her about the big ideas contributing to her lesson plan design, she had a difficult time narrowing them down. Margaret's big ideas involved history, citizenship, and discrimination. She wanted to show different perspectives about how

citizens responded to the attacks on the U.S., the struggles that Muslims faced in the U.S. post-9/11, and counteracting stereotypes.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study were complex, inconsistent, and likely raised more questions than they answered. In this section I outline the four findings of the case study based on the results. First, participants harbored memories of their teachers that exposed singular notions of citizenship. Within the crisis of 9/11, their teachers responded in a narrow, autocratic way. Second, when reflecting on their experiences in schools on 9/11, participants revealed how they succumbed to belligerent notions of citizenship. Finally, participants relied on their memories of 9/11 as a form of teacher identity, and continually accessed their memories as they made decisions about the enacted 9/11 curriculum through either technical or social views. I discuss implications for teacher education and citizenship education within each finding described below. To conclude, I suggest recommendations for further research based on the findings of the study.

Finding 1—Singular Notions of Citizenship

Citizenship has been theorized in many varied and complicated ways, yet during moments of crisis, what emerged in the classrooms of this study's five participants were narrow, monolithic notions of citizenship. Based on what the participants remembered, their notions of citizenship became isolated and zeroed in on one factor—a focal point—that did not allow for multiple understandings. In the previous chapter I discussed how participants' memories were focused on specific student and teacher reactions which

participants described as confusion, fear, and concern. In the particular moments they recalled, participants' understandings of citizenship became whatever the teacher decided in her classroom, at that moment. In other words, the type of citizenry that ensued in the participants' classrooms during 9/11 was very autocratic in nature. The data shows that when this (inter)national crisis occurred, singular classroom teacher interpretations were made, and students' understandings of citizenship at the time of the crisis coalesced around a singular reactor—the classroom teacher.

These singular notions of citizenship emerged when participants recalled their teachers' reactions. It was the teacher that decided what they needed. Participants revealed that it was their teachers that made decisions about whether or not to watch the television coverage of the events and whether or not to discuss the events on 9/11 and in the days that followed. Some participants remembered requests for the television to be turned off, and others recalled a desire to participate in critical and meaningful conversation about what was happening in their country, yet in their memories, participants described the teacher as the authority figure who did not allow for more democratic practices.

In the days that followed, participants remembered their teachers participating in the new surge of American patriotism, which rivaled the U.S. response to the sneak attack on Pearl Harbor by Japan in 1941. The data shows that the participants remembered their teachers encouraging them to participate in overt patriotism and civic engagement in various ways, and they especially remembered the *feelings* associated with these patriotic practices. The “collateral learning” that occurred via the participants'

teachers can absolutely be related to the ways in which they currently think about citizenship. Dewey posited that

collateral learning in the way of formation of enduring attitudes, of likes and dislikes, may be and often is much more important than the spelling lesson or lesson in geography or history that is learning. For these attitudes are fundamentally what count in the future... the actual conditions of living has given them the precious gift of ability to learn from the experiences they have” (Dewey, 1938, p. 49).

In a negative way, this “collateral learning” via the teacher complicates the literature about civic education in that regardless of the aims of any civic education program, the experiences, attitudes, and feelings that seeped into these young teachers as they witnessed this crisis—as they witnessed their teachers respond to crisis—has become more important in their understandings of what it means to be a citizen of the U.S. The participants’ teachers assembled all of the components of this collateral learning, and it was compressed into a belligerent and illiterate citizenry. I was particularly intrigued that although the participants were in secondary schools and therefore saw several teachers each day, and many students as well. However, only one conceptualization became the dominant notion in their memories, and thus the singular notion of *how teachers responded* in the participants’ minds.

Participants in this study will never know what it is like to be an adult in a world where terrorism, hijacked planes, and global conflict does not exist. If the preservice teachers’ (still evolving) understandings of citizenship fuse around this defining moment

in their lives, then teacher educators must be aware of this singularity that emerges during times of crisis. We should therefore consider the important role that teachers play during these moments, and bring citizenship and civic literacy to the center of the conversation. If we acknowledge that notions of citizenship become singularized during moments of crisis, that dialogue gets suppressed, we can understand the attenuation of more democratic practices in the classroom. Awareness can slow the rush to marginalize a type of citizenry that is engaging and considers deliberation.

Finding 2—Succumbing to Belligerence

One distinctive feature of belligerent citizenship is “an overpowering form of patriotic unity. War and perceived threats to national security tend to generate a knee-jerk response of unification” (Ben-Porath, 2006, p. 13). Understanding how belligerence surfaces can better prepare teachers to more cautiously attend to these social reactions. Ben-Porath (2006) also recognized that during crises, “the demand for national unity seems to be an authentic manifestation of a social need” (p. 14). National unity in this sense should not be conceived as destructive or caustic, but should be examined in critical ways that account for the diverse multicultural pedagogic spaces in which we teach. The data confirmed this feature of belligerent citizenship as participants discussed the overt patriotic responses and actions of their teachers, and later, how they described 9/11 as an event that united the country and the world.

A second characteristic of belligerent citizenship is “the suppression of deliberation and, consequently, and attenuation of the public sphere” (Ben-Porath, 2006, p. 14-15). Ben-Porath continued, “The most problematic consequence of the attenuation

of the public sphere is self-censorship, the subsiding tolerance in the public for hearing and corresponding with a variety of perspectives, and the silencing effect of this intolerance” (p. 15-16). The data revealed that participants did remember their teachers succumbing to these characteristics of belligerent citizenship, but what allowed this to happen? Despite any sophisticated notions of citizenship that might have been held by the participants’ teachers, it seemed as though fear and confusion allowed for the coalescing of the characteristics of belligerent citizenship.

Ben-Porath (2006) describes the emergence of belligerent citizenship as a “reconceptualization of the relations between individual and state...in which government can expect much of its citizens in exchange for their protection from violent death” (p. 11). After 9/11, government expected of U.S. citizens an unwavering support of its decisions, a renewed sense of patriotic fervor, and a sense of revenge. When participants discussed their memories of succumbing to these expectations, I noted the development of a belligerent citizenry, however, to extend the literature, I explained their understandings of citizenship as “unsophisticated.”

The notion of an unsophisticated citizenry was born out of the monolithic and autocratic teacher responses described in the first finding. The teachers in the participants’ memories perhaps saw the belligerence as a safe place to go where the suppression of deliberation and a sense of a common cause work to unite. Instead of questioning nationwide decisions, the teacher’s reaction was to comply and support. If we know citizenship acts in this temporal and contextual way during times of crisis however, then perhaps these understandings are not unsophisticated, but more fluid. In

other words, though belligerent citizenship is presented as an undesirable effect during times of crisis, I wonder if it is ever unavoidable.

When crises such as the terrorist attacks on 9/11 occur, the political and civic roles teachers take on are extraordinarily important. The force of the belligerent citizenry that develops in the context of crisis is so apparent, and the implication is that *all* notions of citizenship are immediately reduced or compressed. Within this reduction and compression, the unsophisticated and fervent patriotic unity emerges. In the case of 9/11 specifically, the reaction was to exude the belligerent citizenship in a temporal, immediate way.

The participants' teachers had an incredible opportunity to bring notions of citizenship to the forefront of their classroom conversations on 9/11. Unfortunately, participants have no recollection of teachers who reacted in this way. In chapter two I highlighted the literature that showcased what some teachers were able to do in their classrooms to counteract belligerent citizenship (see Bigelow, 2008; Verma, 2008). Future research should examine teachers such as these in order to uncover the circumstances or knowledges that allow for more critical dialogue and deliberation during crises. Diana Hess's (2009) seminal work advocates for the discussion of controversial political issues, and this scholarship should be extended to emphasize what teachers do *in the midst of* (inter)national crises and controversies.

Finding 3—Memory as a Form of Teacher Identity

A persisting theme in contemporary teacher education research is “teacher identity” or the “teacher-self” (Britzman, 1986; Lortie, 1975; Rose, 1998; Smith, 1996).

Through this view, teachers are “assumed to possess a consistent identity (a ‘teacher identity’) that serves as the repository of particular experiences in classrooms and schools, the site of thoughts, attitudes, emotions, beliefs, and values” (Zembylas, 2003, p. 107). Britzman (1986) discussed the disequilibrium faced by teachers as they encounter the emotional world of teaching:

This is the difficult process of making sense of, and acting within, self-doubt, uncertainty, and the unexpected, while assuming a role which requires confidence, certainty, and stability. It is a painful experience, often carried out in a state of disequilibrium (p. 452).

Teachers that were teaching in their classrooms on 9/11 certainly experienced an amplified version of this disequilibrium. Preservice teachers entering the field of education are oftentimes negotiating not only their young teacher identities, but also the cultural myths of the profession. Two of these myths include “(1) everything depends on the teacher; (2) the teacher is the expert” (Britzman, 1986, p. 448). The preservice teachers in this study experienced a critical event in schools, reflected on these experiences, and at the heart of their reflections were the actions and reactions of their teachers.

In particular ways, the participants recalled their understanding of the event and how *everything depended on the teachers* when the terrorist attacks were happening. In chapter two I discussed how teachers in New York City responded and reacted to the attacks on the World Trade Center and had to make hard and fast decisions about how to

handle themselves and their students—whether or not to let children look out the windows towards the World Trade Center, whether or not to evacuate the building, where to run in the case of evacuation, etc. The participants in this study were not geographically located near the attacks on September 11, yet there was still a need to depend on their teachers in order to follow directives of watching television coverage or not watching; feeling fearful or feeling safe; discussing or remaining silent. Because their teachers were viewed as the authority figure in their classrooms, participants looked to teachers *as experts*—not just on what was happening in the country—but on how to react or behave in response to what they were witnessing. The preservice teachers remember questioning their teachers (or they remembered other students asking questions), and assumed the teacher would be able answer those questions.

I found it interesting that the participants could recall certain teachers—certain class periods—yet coupled with their detailed and vivid memories were spotty or non-existent memories of other teachers and classes. I wondered why some memories were so distinct and others were blotted out. I found the memories that “stuck” with these participants were those that harnessed the most emotion (see Zembylas, 2003).

I contend that the explicit and vivid memories these preservice teachers harbor about how they witnessed the events of 9/11 via television in their classrooms directly interject into their developing teacher identities. I touched on this notion in chapter one as I reflected on a personal memory of watching the Space Shuttle Challenger explosion on television in my fourth grade classroom. I speculated that the ways I reacted as a teacher on 9/11 could have been informed by my experience as a student during a

remembered time of crisis. As the participants in this study move forward in their teaching careers, I suspect they will also experience some type of crisis—whether it involves students or teachers in their schools, or the city, state, nation, and world in which they live. In the midst of future crises—as the participants experience them as teachers—the analogy will be drawn again, and teachers will recall and relive that exact moment in order to inform their practice in a new, immediate context. Because it inherently adds to the complexities of a teacher’s biography, memory can be viewed in this context as a significant form of teacher identity.

Finding 4—The Enacted 9/11 Curriculum

When a crisis such as 9/11 occurs during the school day, teachers must negotiate both the temporal and contextual. As explained above, most teachers on September 11 made immediate choices about what to do in their classrooms—to watch the television, or not watch the television, to discuss or not discuss, to carry on with the normal school day or cease the usual routine. Contextually however, some teachers were directed by administrators about what actions to take. Regardless of what they were told to do, or what they intended to do, teachers’ decisions ultimately were negotiated between these temporal and contextual notions.

In their examination of the role curriculum materials play in teacher learning and instructional reform, Ball & Cohen (1996) found that “the curriculum that counts [in classrooms] is the curriculum that is enacted” (p. 8). This “enacted” curriculum considers how teachers work across five overlapping domains: what teachers think about their students, the teachers’ understanding of the material (or topic), how teachers

navigate instructional resources during lesson design, the intellectual and social environment of the class, and how teachers interpret the “messages about goals for instruction and about good teaching” (Ball & Cohen, 1996). The intersections of these domains highlight the complexities surrounding the enacted curriculum.

With more than ten years distance between the events that occurred on 9/11 and our think-aloud meetings, I observed each participant consider (or ignore) the curricular materials I had spread out on the long conference table. I realized what a different experience this was for each of them, and how their curricular choices informed the construction of their lesson plans in the ways Ball & Cohen (1996) suggested. Cornbleth (1985) explained the curriculum-in-use in social studies classrooms as having two distinct branches: the technical project, and the social process.

In the *technical project view*, curriculum is instrumental to practice—a tangible product, usually a written document, which specifies course topics and organization and materials. In the *social process view*, curriculum is the contextually shaped activity of students and teachers...the social process view is descriptive and interpretive (p. 37, emphasis added).

All but one participant (Margaret) in this study clung to the technical project view of curriculum during our think-aloud session. Four of the five participants began their lesson planning by choosing their objectives—a technical move—and designed lessons in linear ways (see Appendices C, D, E and F). Only Margaret viewed her lesson plan about 9/11 via a social process. Her think-aloud session took considerably more time and

articulated thought, and the process was all but linear. Margaret began this process by deeply investigating resources while considering how the materials might be interpreted by students. Ultimately, she decided to allow room for student choice (documents to be added to a journey box) when imagining a culminating piece of student work.

Contrary to a heavily technical process of lesson design however, none of the participants expressed a desire to utilize the elementary social studies textbook to teach about 9/11, and none chose to use any of the pre-packaged curricular materials as their only resource. Only Margaret saw the relationship between students and herself as reciprocal, instead of teacher-directed. Four participants saw the enacted curriculum of 9/11 as very behaviorist—requiring a stimulus, then response—whereas Margaret imagined her enactment of the curriculum as constructivist in nature—a collective endeavor.

The participants in this study represent a new generation of teachers where information no longer seeps in slowly. Instead, they struggle with the dilemma of information overload. These young preservice teachers expressed confusion and frustration in understanding how to critically look at all the information available and make decisions about what to include and what not to include in their lesson designs. Rather than teachers being the benefactors of an unending supply of resources on any one topic, event, or crisis in history, perhaps teacher educators should attend to ways we can better organize curricular materials for preservice teachers, or ways in which the preservice teachers can critically examine the plethora of curricular materials at their fingertips.

FUTURE RESEARCH

All preservice teachers in this study participated in a project in their social studies methods course that evoked historical thinking methods of investigation as a tool to construct a journey box (as explained in chapter three) that showcases any topic, event, or person via photos, primary source documents, and artifacts. For each item in the box, preservice teachers thoughtfully created document-based questions (DBQs) to access Seixas's (1993) notions of historical thinking: historical significance, epistemology, agency, empathy, and moral judgment. In previous courses I let each pair of preservice teachers choose any topic, event, or historical figure to explore more deeply. Students usually describe this task as difficult, and I worry that only one project that elicits this kind of learning is simply not enough. Teacher educators should not only attend to constructivist learning tools in the social studies such as historical thinking, but should attend to them often and across content areas.

Listening to the young teachers express their concerns for not knowing enough about the events surrounding 9/11, not knowing what may or may not be appropriate to teach young children about crises and violence, and feeling inadequate to teach content in critical ways, I wonder if the journey box project might be more useful if preservice teachers first considered their state standards. The participants in this study looked toward their state curriculum standards as a justification for the curricular decisions they were making in regards to lesson objectives, content, and resources. If teachers could spend more time in methods courses tracing lesson planning and curricular decision-

making to the standards from which they plan to teach, perhaps their time would be better spent. On the other hand, viewing teacher education and the enactment of curriculum through a critical lens, I worry that centering the standards only works to reinforce the status quo and perpetuate the curriculum-in-use as technical instead of a social process.

FINAL COMMENTS

In an open forum (Lookout Point) in *Middle Level Learning*, Tedd Levy (2002) stated:

The tragedy of 9-11 adds a new urgency to a long-standing challenge for social studies teachers: We need to teach students a new world literacy that will allow them to be thoughtful, competent, and caring inhabitants of our planet. The world is a different place now as compared with what it was when many world studies curricula [sic] were established...Social studies teachers do not need a new mountain of information to be added to an overloaded curriculum; rather, we need to reexamine and change what it is in the world that we do (p. 2).

As a teacher educator I worry we have not heeded the advice of Mr. Levy. We have indeed added a “new mountain of information” to an overloaded curriculum in our attempts to educate students about 9/11. I oftentimes wonder if it is just *easier* for us to succumb to the machine that is the status quo, both in our civic responsibilities, as well as in our lesson design and teaching. First, we would have to have profound knowledge or understanding of the historical implications on current political contexts surrounding crises, which Marciano blatantly exposes as missing in common schooling practices.

Additionally, and perhaps even more difficult, we would have to allow ourselves to deconstruct the embedded notions of what it means to be a citizen, what patriotism is truly about, and critically examine the documents that have served as the building blocks of our nation. Time will not stop in order for us to carefully and thoughtfully critique and rethink the “norms” of the schooling situation. Kumashiro (2004) would encourage us to engage in this critique with our students—as a social process—in order to examine the historical events and developments that have lead us to a consensus to define what is “normal” in education and in curricular design.

I stumbled upon a headline of an article on msnbc.com on March 25, 2012: “A 32-year-old woman from Iraq who was found severely beaten next to a threatening note saying ‘go back to your country’ died on Saturday”

(http://www.msnbc.msn.com/id/46845257/ns/us_news-crime_and_courts/t/iraqi-woman-beaten-calif-dies-threat-note-left-scene/#.T26xt3JWodl). The fact that this story is in the news today is but one example of how 9/11 has changed our country in meaningful and troubling ways. As teachers, students look to us as how to react, how to behave, when events such as these occur. I contend in the field of social studies, the current needs to be carefully woven with the historical in order to allow for more constructivist styles of learning.

The bold line drawn between what happens in our classrooms and what happens “in the real world” needs to be challenged and pushed against, with the goal of absolute extinction. If we continue to chip away at this massive partition, by first recognizing its existence, perhaps our students will be able to step into this complex, controversial,

fantastic world and say, “I recognize this place. I experienced it in school.” How teachers respond in moments of crises must attend to a stronger civic literacy, while confronting the belligerent citizen in all of us, or the enlightened politically engaged citizen will never emerge.

Appendix A: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview Protocol #1 (Citizenship)

1. What does it mean to you to be a citizen of the United States?
2. What does citizenship mean to you?
3. How do you practice being a citizen of the US?
4. What things should one *do* as a citizen of the US?
5. What things should one *know* as a citizen of the US?
6. What things should one *understand* as a citizen of the US?
7. Talk to me about how you see yourself fitting into the civic fabric of the United States... In other words...
 - a. Are you part of a certain class?
 - b. Do you carry different knowledges/understandings than other citizens?

Are you privileged in any way? Are you oppressed in any way?

Interview Protocol #2 (9/11 and Context)

1. Tell me what you remember about 9/11.
 - a. How old were you? Describe what you remember about that day.
 - b. Where were you going to school? Describe your school to me.
2. Tell me about your school. How did you feel about school?
3. What do you remember doing in the days that followed 9/11?
4. What do you remember your teachers doing? Calming down, informing you? Did the principal address 9/11? Did you talk to parents?
5. How did you feel as a student in school during 9/11 and the aftermath of 9/11?
6. Did you notice any changes in your school after 9/11?
7. What do you think is important for elementary school children to learn about 9/11?
 - a. Why do you think these are the most important things for them to learn?
8. Describe what you think it means to live in a “post-9/11” U.S.

Appendix B: LIST OF CURRICULAR MATERIALS

Children's Books

Brown, Don (2011). *America is Under Attack: September 11, 2001: the day the towers fell*. Roaring Brook Press, New York.

Curtiss, A. B. (2003). *The Little Chapel That Stood*. OldCastle Publishing, Escondido.

Deedy, Carmen Agra (2009). *14 Cows for America*. Peachtree Publishers, Atlanta.

Englar, Mary (2007). *September 11*. Compass Point Books, Minneapolis.

First grade students of H. Byron Masterson Elementary School. *September 12th: We Knew Everything Would Be All Right*. Scholastic, New York.

Kalman, Maira (2002). *Fireboat: the heroic adventures of the John J. Harvey*. Penguin Group, Ontario.

Langley, Andrew (2006). *September 11: attack on America*. Compass Point Books, Minneapolis.

Other Books

Baker, Kevin (2010). *America: The Story of Us*. A&E Television Networks, LLC, New York.

El Rassi, Toufic (2007). *Arab in America*. Last Gasp, San Francisco.

Professional Publications

Magazine of History: For Teachers of History. Published by the Organization of American Historians, Bloomington, IN.

- Fall 2001. Volume 16, Number 1: The Great Depression (*this issue included a Special Feature on the final page titled “Teaching Tragedy” with lesson plans and additional resources listed.*)

Rethinking Schools: A Special Report (2001). War, Terrorism and our Classrooms:

Teaching in the Aftermath of the September 11th Tragedy. Milwaukee, WI.

September 11: What Our Children Need to Know (2002). Thomas B. Fordham

Foundation, Washington, D.C.

Social Education: The Official Journal of the National Council for the Social Studies,
published by National Council for the Social Studies

- November/December 2011. Volume 75, Number 6: Teaching Difficult Topics with Primary Sources.
- November/December 2001. Volume 65, Number 7: Reflections in a Time of Crisis
- October 2001. Volume 65, Number 6: Teaching About Tragedy

Social Studies and the Young Learner: A Quarterly for Creative Teaching in Grades K-6,

published by the National Council for the Social Studies

- January/February 2002. Volume 14, Number 3: Reflecting on Current Events

Popular Magazines

People (September 12, 2011). The Children of 9/11: Portraits of Hope.

Reader’s Digest (September 2011). How 9/11 changed America.

Time (September 19, 2011). Special Commemorative Issue: Beyond 9/11.

Time (November 19, 2001). Thanksgiving 2001.

Newspapers

Austin American-Statesman

- September 12, 2011. 'America does not give in to fear'
- September 12, 2001. 'OUR NATION SAW EVIL'

The Dallas Morning News

- September 11, 2001. Day of terror.
- September 12, 2001. War at home.
- September 13, 2001. Counting bodies, searching for justice.
- September 14, 2001. 'A new kind of war'

Pre-packaged Curriculum

The September 22th Education Program: A National Interdisciplinary Curriculum.

Published by Social Studies School Service, Culver City, CA.

Appendix C: CARLOS'S LESSON PLAN

GRADE LEVEL	Third grade
BRIEF DESCRIPTION <i>What do the students do in this lesson?</i>	Students will learn about what happened on 9/11 through teacher narration, books, and primary source photographs.
BIG IDEAS <i>What central ideas or fundamental principles are the focus of this lesson?</i>	Students should know the specific sequence of events that occurred on 9/11.
OBJECTIVES <i>What specific knowledge and/or skills do you want the students to learn, practice, or experience as a result of participation in this lesson?</i>	I want students to be able to chronologically retell what happened on 9/11.
TEKS/PreK Guidelines addressed	History 1(A) describe how individuals, events, and ideas have changed communities, past and present; 2(A) identify reasons people have formed communities, including a need for security, religious freedom, law, and material well-being
Materials needed <i>List all of the materials needed to teach this lesson. Be as detailed as possible. (Include any additional materials needed for differentiated instruction accommodations listed below.)</i>	http://youtu.be/11KZqqSI9-s “America is Under Attack: September 11, 2001: the day the towers fell” by Don Brown “14 Cows for America” by Carmen Agra Deedy photographs from Dallas Morning News, 9/11/01
Preparation and set-up <i>Describe how the materials should be prepared, set up, and organized. Be as detailed as possible.</i>	K-W-L Chart should be prepared and ready for use. Large butcher paper should be prepared with a timeline drawn and blank lines for students to fill out at the lesson’s completion. Newspaper photos should be cut out and laminated for students to pass around and examine. Books should be ready for use. YouTube video clip should be cued.

Procedure

Describe exactly what the teacher and the students do in the lesson. Be specific.

S will join the T on the carpet. T will ask S what they know about 9/11. T will document S responses on the K part of the K-W-L chart. T will share his memory of 9/11. T will show S the MSNBC video clip. T will stop to answer any questions as S watch the video. T will facilitate discussion and answer questions by adding to or correcting information on the K-W-L chart. T will read marked parts of "America is Under Attack." T and S will revisit the K-W-L chart. T will facilitate sequential vocabulary such as "first, next, then, last." T will read 14 Cows for America and facilitate discussion about how 9/11 affected the world, not just the United States. S will help T complete a timeline of events to hang in the classroom.

Evaluation

How will you know that students met the lesson objectives? How will you document their learning?

Students will help the teacher create a timeline to display in the classroom of the events that happened on 9/11.

Appendix D: MARIANA’S LESSON PLAN

GRADE LEVEL	Third grade
BRIEF DESCRIPTION <i>What do the students do in this lesson?</i>	Students will learn about what happened on 9/11 and how the community, the nation, and the world came together.
BIG IDEAS <i>What central ideas or fundamental principles are the focus of this lesson?</i>	Students should know that when a community experiences crisis, they come together to help one another.
OBJECTIVES <i>What specific knowledge and/or skills do you want the students to learn, practice, or experience as a result of participation in this lesson?</i>	I want students to learn about what happened on 9/11 through real accounts. I want students to research real documents about 9/11 in small groups. I want them to be able to talk about ways people came together and helped each other on 9/11.
TEKS/PreK Guidelines addressed	History 1(A) describe how individuals, events, and ideas have changed communities, past and present; History 2(A) identify reasons people have formed communities, including a need for security, religious freedom, law, and material well-being; Social Studies Skills 17(A) research information, including historical and current events, and geographic data, about the community and world, using a variety of valid print, oral, visual, and Internet resources; 17(C) interpret oral, visual, and print material by identifying the main idea, distinguishing between fact and opinion, identifying cause and effect, and comparing and contrasting; 17(E) interpret and create visuals, including graphs, charts, tables, timelines, illustrations, and maps
Materials needed <i>List all of the materials needed to teach this lesson. Be as detailed as possible. (Include any additional materials needed for differentiated instruction accommodations listed below.)</i>	“Fireboat” by Maira Kalman “America is Under Attack: September 11, 2001: the day the towers fell” by Don Brown photos from the Dallas Morning News (pages 1-3A) cut out and laminated Time Magazine Beyond 9/11 video: Brian Clark and Stanley Praimnath (http://youtu.be/aojVZ4tBdRo)

<p>Preparation and set-up <i>Describe how the materials should be prepared, set up, and organized. Be as detailed as possible.</i></p>	<p>K-W-L Chart should be prepared and ready to use. Group tables should have tubs or boxes of materials assembled and ready for stations—one table will be a computer viewing/listening station Table 1: “Fireboat” and “America is Under Attack” books Table 2: Newspaper photos from Dallas Morning News Table 3: Brian Clark & Stanley Praimnath video Table 4: Time Magazine “10 Years Later”</p>
<p>Procedure <i>Describe exactly what the teacher and the students do in the lesson. Be specific.</i> S will join T on the carpet. T will ask S what they know about 9/11 and record their responses on the K part of the K-W-L chart. T will share her memory of 9/11 with S. T will break S into groups and send them to their tables to examine materials for about 20 minutes, depending on time (could take longer in each group if lesson is spread out over 2 days). T will facilitate group conversation and scaffold student learning. S will take notes in their groups and be ready to share. T will call S back together as a whole group. Groups will report out, share what was in their boxes, and then their research. T will allow other groups to ask questions, and will chart the S learning on the K-W-L chart.</p>	
<p>Evaluation <i>How will you know that students met the lesson objectives? How will you document their learning?</i></p>	<p>T will conclude lesson by asking questions about what community members did to help others on 9/11 and charting responses on the L part of the K-W-L chart.</p>

Appendix E: SARAH'S LESSON PLAN

GRADE LEVEL	Third grade
BRIEF DESCRIPTION <i>What do the students do in this lesson?</i>	Students will read books about 9/11, watch and listen to interviews from witnesses, examine newspapers from 9/11/01, and investigate photographs from primary sources to understand what happened and how people reacted on 9/11.
BIG IDEAS <i>What central ideas or fundamental principles are the focus of this lesson?</i>	Students will learn how one major event can change a community and how communities come together in a time of crisis through the investigation of what happened on 9/11.
OBJECTIVES <i>What specific knowledge and/or skills do you want the students to learn, practice, or experience as a result of participation in this lesson?</i>	I want students to know what happened on 9/11, and how things in our country changed after 9/11. I want them to know what it was like to have witnessed 9/11.
TEKS/PreK Guidelines addressed	History 1(A) describe how individuals, events, and ideas have changed communities, past and present; History 2(A) identify reasons people have formed communities, including a need for security, religious freedom, law, and material well-being; Citizenship 11(C) identify and explain the importance of individual acts of civic responsibility, including obeying laws, serving the community, serving on a jury, and voting; 12(C) identify examples of nonprofit and/or civic organizations such as the Red Cross and explain how they serve the common good; Culture 14(A) identify and compare the heroic deeds of state and national heroes, including Hector P. Garcia and James A. Lovell, and other individuals such as Harriet Tubman, Juliette Gordon Low, Todd Beamer, Ellen Ochoa, John "Danny" Olivas, and other contemporary heroes
Materials needed <i>List all of the materials needed to teach this lesson. Be as detailed as possible. (Include any additional materials needed for differentiated instruction accommodations listed below.)</i>	“Fireboat” by Maira Kalman “America is Under Attack: September 11, 2001: the day the towers fell” by Don Brown photos from the Dallas Morning News (pages 1-3A) cut out and laminated Time Magazine 10 years later

	video: Lisa Jefferson interview (http://youtu.be/H-viMzr2nac)
<p>Preparation and set-up <i>Describe how the materials should be prepared, set up, and organized. Be as detailed as possible.</i></p>	<p>K-W-L Chart should be prepared and ready to use. Group tables should have tubs or boxes of materials assembled and ready for stations—one table will be a computer viewing/listening station Table 1: Dallas Morning News newspapers from 9/11/01-9/14/01 Table 2: Brian Clark interview from “The September 11th Education Program” Table 3: Lisa Jefferson video Table 4: books—“September 11” by Andrew Langley; “September 12” by first grade students of H. Byron Masterson Elementary; “14 Cows for America”</p>
<p>Procedure <i>Describe exactly what the teacher and the students do in the lesson. Be specific.</i></p>	<p>T will gather S on the carpet for whole group instruction. T will ask S what they know about 9/11 and chart responses on the K part of the chart. T will tell S what she remembers about 9/11 and ask S what they want to learn about 9/11. T will chart responses on the W part of the chart. T will then read “America is Under Attack” by Don Brown to give S more historical background. T will ask questions during the read-aloud and S will answer. New information will be documented on the L part of the chart. T will break S into four groups to examine different materials at their tables. S will spend 10 minutes, or more, depending on time, and then groups will rotate. After all groups have examined all materials, S will return to the carpet to revisit the K-W-L chart. T will help S add to the L part of the chart. S will go back to their desks and individually write about what happened on 9/11 from the perspective of someone that was there that day. They can choose to write from the perspective of a fireman, a student in NYC, a person that was on one of the flights that was hijacked, or from any other perspective.</p>
<p>Evaluation <i>How will you know that students met the lesson objectives? How will you document their learning?</i></p>	<p>S will retell the events of 9/11, including how things changed after 9/11, from the perspective of someone that was there that day.</p>

Appendix F: ISABEL’S LESSON PLAN

GRADE LEVEL	Third grade
BRIEF DESCRIPTION <i>What do the students do in this lesson?</i>	Students will learn about 9/11 and how the community came together even though it was a terrible event.
BIG IDEAS <i>What central ideas or fundamental principles are the focus of this lesson?</i>	Students should know that when a community goes through a crisis, they come together to help each other out.
OBJECTIVES <i>What specific knowledge and/or skills do you want the students to learn, practice, or experience as a result of participation in this lesson?</i>	I want students to learn how the community comes together in a time of crisis.
TEKS/PreK Guidelines addressed	Citizenship 12(A) give examples of community changes that result from individual or group decisions; (B) identify examples of actions individuals and groups can take to improve the community; Culture 14 (A) identify and compare the heroic deeds of state and national heroes, including Hector P. Garcia and James A. Lovell, and other individuals such as Harriet Tubman, Juliette Gordon Low, Todd Beamer, Ellen Ochoa, John "Danny" Olivas, and other contemporary heroes
Materials needed <i>List all of the materials needed to teach this lesson. Be as detailed as possible. (Include any additional materials needed for differentiated instruction accommodations listed below.)</i>	primary source photos (from DMN 9/12/01) “Fireboat” by Maira Kalman, video clips: planes crashing into towers (http://youtu.be/5Tl_04Xoi0); Lisa Jefferson interview (http://youtu.be/H-viMzr2nac); time lapse of 9/11 Memorial (http://youtu.be/yBPQ-G9IhKQ)
Preparation and set-up <i>Describe how the materials should be prepared, set up, and organized. Be as detailed as possible.</i>	Have “Fireboat” ready to read. Have YouTube clips ready to show. Have photographs from the newspaper cut out and laminated.

Procedure

Describe exactly what the teacher and the students do in the lesson. Be specific.

S will join T on the carpet. T will read “Fireboat” to the S and prompt them with questions. T will tell S what she remembers about 9/11 to give S more background. T will show the MSNBC video as it happened. T will hand out laminated photos to S and let them pass them around. S can ask more questions at this time. T will facilitate discussion about how S notice the ways people were helping other people during this crisis. T will show video clip of Lisa Jefferson and facilitate discussion about how Todd Beamer and Lisa Jefferson exhibit characteristics of good citizens. Conclude lesson by showing the time lapsed video of the new 9/11 monument being built. T and S will talk about how good citizens came together to construct the monument to remember those we lost.

Evaluation

How will you know that students met the lesson objectives? How will you document their learning?

S will be assessed informally through their participation in the discussion at the carpet.

Appendix G: MARGARET'S LESSON PLAN

This was Margaret's first attempt at brainstorming how she might teach about 9/11. Since participating in this study, she has continued to work on her unit of instruction and plans to teach the unit in the fall semester of 2012 in her fifth grade student teaching placement.

Overall Objectives: different understandings of terrorism, historical significance of 9/11, changes in discrimination and struggles Muslims face in the U.S.	Monday
Questions to explore/topics to discuss	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -What is Islam? AlQaeda? -historical origins -Islams in America -distinguishing Muslims from terrorists -what is terrorism (KWL) -who is bin Laden? -explain journey box -What is the motivation for terrorist groups?
Activity	Writing journal, choose a primary source for the journey box

<p>Overall Objectives: different understandings of terrorism, historical significance of 9/11, changes in discrimination and struggles Muslims face in the U.S.</p>	<p>Tuesday</p>
<p>Questions to explore/topics to discuss</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -9/11 attack, chain of events -primary sources, photos -Flight 93, 12 -timeline of events -families and kids -kid connections -Todd Beamer video -parent involvement
<p>Activity</p>	<p>Writing journal (empathy), choose a primary source for the journey box</p>

<p>Overall Objectives: different understandings of terrorism, historical significance of 9/11, changes in discrimination and struggles Muslims face in the U.S.</p>	<p>Wednesday</p>
<p>Questions to explore/topics to discuss</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -American response -Patriotism—define. -Liberal and conservative views -war or no war? Pro-war movements, anti-war movements...why silenced? -Bush declares war -War protestors and restraint -risk of prejudice & American flags & banning together -Howard Zinn (definition of patriotism—discuss)
<p>Activity</p>	<p>Writing journal (patriotism), choose a primary source for the journey box</p>

<p>Overall Objectives: different understandings of terrorism, historical significance of 9/11, changes in discrimination and struggles Muslims face in the U.S.</p>	<p>Thursday</p>
<p>Questions to explore/topics to discuss</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -American occupation -Bush response -agree or disagree? -military opinions (visit from soldier panels?) -casualties of the war
<p>Activity</p>	<p>Writing journal (the decision to go to war), choose a primary source for the journey box</p>

<p>Overall Objectives: different understandings of terrorism, historical significance of 9/11, changes in discrimination and struggles Muslims face in the U.S.</p>	<p>Friday</p>
<p>Questions to explore/topics to discuss</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Today (post-9/11 world) -controversy of mosque on Ground Zero -kids of 9/11 -movie clips? Extremely Loud & Incredibly Close -10 year anniversary stories/videos -make a book for kids of 9/11
<p>Activity</p>	<p>Complete and present 9/11 Journey Box</p>

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Vita

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